A

HISTORY

OF THE

Island of Newfoundland:

CONTAINING A

DESCRIPTION OF THE ISLAND,

THE BANKS, THE FISHERIES,

AND

TRADE OF NEWFOUNDLAND,

AND THE

COAST OF LABRADOR.

Illustrated with Two Maps.

BY THE

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PREFACE.

THE discovery of America has produced important changes in the knowledge of the globe, navigation, and natural history in its several branches. The ancient systems of geography have gradually vanished, and mankind have founded their knowledge of the form and surface of the terraqueous globe on facts and experience. The whole art of voyaging by sea, the construction and equipment of ships, and the methods proper to preserve the lives and health of seamen in all climates, are likewise much better known. The sphere of natural history has been considerably enlarged by the wider field which this discovery has opened of the works of the Great Creator, some of which appear there constructed on a

larger scale and in a more magnificent style than in the Old Continent. The vegetable productions thus discovered have enriched the medical art with many valuable acquisitions. The precious metals, as well as diamonds and pearls, have since been much more common; and the fossil treasures, not only afford many useful articles in commerce and the arts, but also demonstrate the certainty of an universal convulsion of the earth at some remote period, and thus confirm the truth of the sacred records. Lastly, we may say, that the history of this discovery and of the events which followed it, in particular that of the conquest of Peru and of Mexico, present descriptions and facts so amazing and stupendous, that truth may be said to have put fiction out of countenance.

But, on the other hand, when we contemplate those immense countries invaded and laid waste: their peaceful inhabitants either butchered or loaded with chains; a dreadful solitude established upon the ruins of an innu-

merable, harmless, and happy population; the ferocious invaders destroying one another, and heaping their dead bodies upon those of their victims; and the traffic of man, sold and purchased by his fellow-men, introduced in order to replace the population thus destroyed, and to assist in procuring those metals which have been the cause of so many crimes, or to cultivate that ground still reeking with the blood of its lawful possessors; — when we reflect that the West Indian Islands, which, when first discovered, afforded a peaceable and even delightful retreat to their inhabitants, became, after a few bloody years, so many frightful solitudes, impervious and unwholesome, the hot-bed of fevers, doomed for ever after to destroy the strength, the health, the lives of their visitors, and to communicate to more salubrious climates the contamination of their infected atmosphere;—it may be asked, are not the advantages obtained by this discovery counterbalanced, or at least considerably embittered, by the reflection of the price which humanity has paid for them?

If, proceeding further to the north, we take a view of the immense extent of coast which reaches from Cape-Florida to the Gulf of Saint Lawrence, we cannot refuse our admiration to the fortitude, industry, and perseverance, which operated such a wonderful change in the face of that country.

Before, the whole extent presented a surface covered with inaccessible forests or marshes; and these, cleared by European industry, soon made room for commodious dwellings; the wild beasts retired, and flocks of domestic animals supplied their place, while to thorns and briers succeeded the most luxuriant harvests: the coasts were covered with towns, and the bays and harbours with ships.

But, on the other hand, when we observe that those men who represented themselves as the oppressed victims of persecution, soon became themselves the most cruel persecutors; —when we reflect on the inhuman laws and proceedings of the Puritans against all who

dissented from them; the horrid transactions respecting the supposed witches; the contentions which perpetually disturbed the peace of the colonies, even when the common safety required the greatest unanimity; the continual state of warfare natural to the savage inhabitants of those countries, adopted there by European nations among themselves, and those very savages armed by Europeans against Europeans;—we turn with astonishment to that vast island, whose name is scarcely ever mentioned in the history of those times, Newfoundland,—discovered by Cabot even before Columbus had made his first voyage to the continent of America,—and settled by Europeans long before any other part of the new world. We ask with surprise how it happens that Newfoundland should hitherto have been so little known, as to make it, even in our most modern systems of geography, a matter of doubt whether Placentia or Saint John's were its capital,—whether the race of its ancient inhabitants were extinct or still in existence,—whether it were inhabited by Euro-

peans, or a mere desert island. Has it been thus hitherto neglected by historians and geographers, because, as some have supposed, it is barren and useless? But, on closer investigation, we find, on the contrary, that Newfoundland has been the object of frequent and obstinate contests among the principal maritime powers of Europe, in order to establish an exclusive right to its possession, or at least to obtain a participation in the advantages which it procures to its possessor: we find it holding a distinguished rank in several declarations of war, as well as in preliminaries and treaties of peace among them. It is a mine of treasure far more valuable than the boasted mines of Peru, because more really advantageous to its possessor and to mankind in general. The Spaniards, while solely anxious to obtain the possession, and to secure the produce of the richest mines of silver and gold in the world, neglected the arts and agriculture; their wealth and existence itself became dependent upon the safe arrival of their galleons: poor in their supposed opulence, they soon were found a

different nation from what they had been before.—Newfoundland, on the contrary, offering to its possessors an inexhaustible source of commodities, easily obtained, and as easily exchanged for silver and gold, not only increased, or even, according to some writers, *created* the naval power of England, but also encouraged the arts and manufactures of the mother-country, furnishing employment to a vast number of mariners and fishermen, and to a multitude of artificers and mechanics, such as ship-carpenters, coopers, block-makers, blacksmiths, spinners, net-makers, sail-cloth manufacturers, sail-makers, rope-makers, salt-makers, tanners, curriers, &c. &c.

Newfoundland has hitherto been little known, because it has not forced itself upon the notice of the historiographer by deeds of cruelty, or by intestine divisions or external attempts which endangered the safety or the peace of its neighbours; but, on the contrary, like the source of the Nile, unobserved and unknown, it silently distributed subsistence to a conside-

rable portion of the inhabitants, and particularly of the *poor* of both hemispheres; and while the other settlements with which the Europeans have covered the new world, have generally been the destruction of the first colonists whom they have received, and of a great number of their successors; the climate of Newfoundland has even restored strength to those whose health had been affected by less wholesome climates, even to whole regiments, as well as to merchants and others coming from the West Indies. To these observations it may be added, that this island, considered, in respect to size, as next to Cuba and Saint Domingo, contains in its interior a race of men who, as we have strong reasons to believe, have maintained themselves during eight centuries, without any connexion whatever with any other tribe or part of the human race.

Features so striking as these attracted my notice soon after my arrival in Newfoundland, in October 1799. More important considerations led me afterwards to inquire minutely

into its circumstances, interests, history, and laws. A collection of facts, selected from a variety of respectable sources, extracts from the Records of the Courts there, and my own observations committed to a diary, had, in the course of thirteen years, supplied me with a mass of materials which, I confess, I had some thought of arranging with a view to publication on my return to this country. But, on my arrival here in the latter end of August, 1812, I became apprehensive that a work of this nature might not possess sufficient claims to the attention of the general reader to authorize its publication, particularly at a time when the most valuable interests of all the nations of Europe engrossed the anxious thoughts of every individual. I, therefore, determined silently to consign over the produce of my labours to a number of manuscripts on other subjects more immediately connected with the situations which I had held there, and which I had accumulated during the leisure hours that could be spared in the winter season, consistently with my public duties. I

persevered in this determination, although repeatedly asked why I did not publish some work respecting that island, until the latter end of the month of March, 1818, when the same question was asked, rather in terms of reproach, and with the assurance that "such a work would undoubtedly be very acceptable to the British public." Being thus induced to reconsider the subject, I at last resolved upon the attempt, communicated my manuscript, when completed, to a literary friend, and still farther encouraged by his approbation and a repetition of the same assurance, I now humbly submit it to the perusal of a candid and indulgent public.

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HISTORY

OF THE

ISLAND OF NEWFOUNDLAND.

CHAPTER I.

THE NORTHMEN.

HOW was America peopled? is a question which has naturally been an object of curiosity and attention ever since that continent was discovered. The theories and speculations of ingenious men, with respect to this question, would fill many volumes. There is hardly any nation to which the honour of peopling America has not been ascribed. The Phœnicians, the Carthaginians, the Greeks, the Scythians, in ancient times; the Chinese, the Norwegians, the Welsh, the Spaniards, and the Portuguese, in later ages; are said to have sent colonies thither at different periods, and on various occasions.

Inquiries of this nature necessarily become intricate and less capable of satisfactory results in proportion to the distance of the times to which they refer, and to the defect of authentic records which were either neglected to be made at the time, or have been lost in the wreck of empires. Many great revolutions in the natural as well as in the political state of the world and many important discoveries may reasonably be supposed to have taken place in distant countries, of which we have no knowledge: and where such events were recorded, besides the difficulty of perpetuating those records previous to the invention of the art of printing, we know that all languages are subject to fluctuations, which, from various circumstances, will ultimately change them, so as to render them unintelligible even within the limits where they were first formed or transplanted, unless they have been consolidated by a succession of respectable writers. All the ancient languages, except the Hebrew, the Greek, and the Latin, and all the modern languages, compared with what they were eight hundred years ago, prove the truth of this assertion. The knowledge of the Hebrew and of the Greek has been perpetuated, because the original documents of the Jewish and of the Christian religions were

respectively composed in those languages; and that of the Latin, chiefly because its use was continued in the service of the Western church, and in the public deeds of most of the states of Europe. But even of languages so eminently interesting,—of the Greek and Latin so strong in their classical excellence,—how few, comparatively speaking, are the monuments which have escaped the revolutions of empires and the wreck of time! Had we all the accounts which may be supposed to have been written of the naval expeditions performed by the Phœnicians, the Carthaginians, the Greeks, and the Chinese, it is probable that our knowledge on this subject would be much more extensive and satisfactory than it has hitherto been.

National prejudices and jealousies have likewise no small share in increasing the obscurity which veils the origin of the Aborigines of America. An English writer has very justly asked: "To what cause, but to the prejudices of historians, is it owing that, instead of a faithful unclouded mirror of the past events of this country, we have Whig histories of England and Tory histories; Church of England histories, Calvinistical histories, and Roman Catholic histories?" To the same cause we may attribute the contradictions

which are to be found in the authors of various nations who have written on this subject.

Most of those writers seem to have been anxious only to claim for a particular nation the glory of the first discovery, as establishing of necessity an absolute and indefeasible right of property: they would not consider that, if such evidences were admitted amongst nations, there would be no end of unhinging their possessions, or they must be involved in perpetual war and bloodshed. What Englishman would not be apt to treat very ludicrously any claim of this kind set up by Spain to the island of Jamaica?

Doctor Robertson, in his History of America, appears inclined to think that Powell's account of the discoveries made by the Welsh Prince Madoc, in the year 1169, must relate to Madeira, or some of the western islands: he observes, at the same time, that the pretensions of the Norwegians to the discovery of America seem to rest on a *more solid* foundation. These pretensions are likewise more or less positively supported by several other respectable writers and geographers of this and other countries.

The inhabitants of the northern coast of Europe, in the middle ages, were remarkable for the boldness and extent of their maritime

excursions. They were then known by the appellation of *Northmen*, and that country by the name of *Northmanna-land*, afterwards called Northway and Norway, in the same manner as the most northern point of that land was then, and is still called, *North-cape*. They had, for a long time, been the scourge of those seas; they subsisted chiefly on plunder; and the success of their piratical excursions encouraged vast numbers of emigrants from the north, east, and south of that part of Europe to forsake the inhospitable mountains and unfruitful plains, in order to share in their expeditions and spoils. From this coast swarms of bold and desperate adventurers continually issued, who spread all around the terror of their name, the *men of the north*. Not only the Orkney and Shetland islands, Ireland, England, France, and Spain, but also Italy, Naples, and Sicily, were by turns the scenes of their piratical devastations: wherever they landed they left a colony, which fresh accessions of new adventurers, from the same coast, soon rendered sufficiently strong to set all opposition at defiance. A party of these Northmen, in the year 874, by accident discovered Iceland, where, according to their usual practice, they planted a colony. In the year 982, they, in the same manner, discovered Green-

land, and established settlements there. From thence some of them proceeded towards the south-west, and discovered a country still more inviting, where they found some plants of the vine which bore grapes, and for that reason gave it the name of *Win-land.* Doctor Morse, in his American Gazetteer, describes Winland as a country accidentally discovered in the year 1001, by Biron, or Biorn, a Norman, and supposed to be a part of the island of Newfoundland. He says that an intercourse was some time after opened between it and Greenland; that, in the year 1221, Eric, bishop of Greenland, went to Winland to reform his countrymen, who had degenerated into savages; and that this prelate never returned to Greenland, nor was any thing more heard of Winland for several centuries. " The credit of this story," says Doctor Robertson, " rests, as far as I know, on the authority of the Saga, or Chronicle of king Olaus, composed by Snorro Sturlonides, who was born in the year 1179. His chronicle was published at Stockholm, in the year 1697. I should think that the situation of Newfoundland corresponds best with that of the country discovered by the Norwegians. Grapes, however, are not the production of that barren island." In answer to this objection, we must observe that

all the navigators who have contributed to the discovery of North America agree in stating that they found in those latitudes prodigious quantities of wild vines, bearing grapes of different colours and size. Martha's vineyard, in New England, was so called by Captain Gosnoll, in the year 1602, as l'Isle de Bacchus, now the Island of Orleans, in the river Saint Lawrence, had received that name from James Cartier, in the year 1535, on account of the infinite number of vines growing there spontaneously in the groves and forests. The wild vine even now forms a characteristic feature of the forest scenery in Canada. With respect to Newfoundland, Patrick Gordon, in the ninth edition of his *Geography Anatomized*, published in London in the year 1722, positively asserts, that those parts of the island which were then possessed by the French, namely, from Cape Bonavista round the north to Point Riche, as settled by the treaty of Utrecht, produced plenty of vines; and, in a French translation of that work, from the sixteenth edition, published at Paris in the year 1748, the same assertion is found in these words: " Les cantons que les François y possédent produisent des vignes en abondance." Mr. Pinkerton, referring to the origin of the names of Bacchus Island and Martha's Vine-

yard, gives it as his opinion, that "the same cause most probably gave name to Norwegian Vinland."

The account of the discovery of the Island of Newfoundland by the Northmen is given at large in Doctor Forster's History of the Voyages and Discoveries made in the North. The Doctor assures his readers, that the facts contained in this account have been collected from a great number of ancient Icelandic manuscripts, and inserted by Thormod Thorfoeus, in his two works intituled "Veteris Groenlandiæ Descriptio," and "Historia Vinlandiæ Antiquæ;" that the country of Winland is mentioned in "Adam von Bremen's Church History," p. 151; also that very exact relations of these discoveries have been preserved in "Angrim Jonas's Specimen Icelandiæ Historicum," and many other works; so that it is, in his opinion, hardly possible to harbour the least doubt concerning the authenticity of the relation.

He then proceeds to state that, in the year 1001, an Icelander of the name of Biorn, in a voyage from Europe to Greenland, having been driven by a storm a great way to the south-west of this tract, discovered a flat country covered with thick woods, and soon after an island. He, however, made no stay

at either of these places, but hastened, by a north-west course, to Greenland, where he was anxious to join Herjolf, his father. On his arrival there he mentioned his new discoveries. Lief, a son of Eric Redhead, immediately fitted out a vessel with thirty-five men, and, taking Biorn with him, set out for this newly-discovered country. The first land which he saw was rocky and barren, and he accordingly named it *Helleland*, or Rockland. He next came to a low sandy land, covered with wood, which he called *Mark-land*, or Woody-land. Two days after he saw land again, and an island lying before the northern coast of it. Here was a river into which he entered, and which he found well stored with fish, particularly very fine salmon; the bushes on its banks bore sweet berries; the soil was fertile, and the temperature of the air mild. At last he came to a lake, from which the river took its rise. Here he determined to remain the winter, and on the shortest day saw the sun eight hours above the horizon. This supposes, that the longest day, exclusive of the dawn and twilight, must have been sixteen hours long; and hence, it follows, according to our author, that this place being in the forty-ninth degree of north latitude, in a south-

westerly direction from old Greenland, must either be the river Gander, or the bay of Exploits, in Newfoundland. During their stay there, a German, of the name of Tyrker, who had been missing, was found in the woods making himself very happy with grapes, from which he told them, in his country they used to make wine. Lief, having tasted them, from this circumstance called the country *Winland dat Gode,* that is, the good wine-country.

It may be said, in confirmation of the Doctor's conclusions, that Newfoundland is the only land in those parts to which the description given in that passage can be applicable; and that part of it which most exactly corresponds with Lief's course an daccount, extending from Cape Freels to New World Island, actually contains two large rivers and bays, where an extensive and most profitable salmon-fishery has been carried on from time immemorial, both issuing from large lakes, and both having an island to the north or north-east. The river and bay of Exploits has New World Island, and is annually frequented in summer by the native Indians of Newfoundland. Gander Bay has likewise Fogo Island to the north, and issues from a lake of considerable extent; but this river is much narrower than the former.

These bays were formerly included in the part of Newfoundland ceded to the French by the treaty of Utrecht.

Lief returned to Greenland the following spring, and was succeeded in this enterprize by his brother Thorwald, who sailed from Greenland with the same crew, accompanied by Lief's mother. He, however, explored that year only the land that lay to the westward. The next summer he examined that which lay to the eastward, and found the coast covered with wood and beset with islands, a feature peculiarly characteristic of Newfoundland; but they could not perceive any human being upon it. The third summer they examined the islands, where, on a point of land, they damaged their ship to such a degree, that they found it necessary to build a new one. We may judge, from this circumstance, what kind of ships theirs were, and what an intrepid race they must have been, who ventured in those seas in ships that could be so easily and so soon constructed on a desert island. The old vessel was laid up on the promontory, which for that reason they called *Kioeler Ness*. They then examined once more the eastern shore, and discovered three boats covered with leather, in each of which there were three men. These they seized and wantonly mur-

dered, except one who escaped from their hands. Soon after they were attacked by a considerable number of people of the same description, armed with bows and arrows; but having erected a fence, made of planks, they defended themselves with so much spirit, that after an engagement which lasted about the space of an hour, their enemies were compelled to retire. These people were very short in stature, and were for that reason called by Thorwald *Skroellingers*, or dwarfs. Thorwald died soon after of a wound which he had received from an arrow, and was buried on the promontory, to which his people gave the name of *Krossa-ness*, from two crosses which were placed there agreeably to his request. His companions passed the winter in Winland; and, in the beginning of the following spring, returned to Greenland.

Thorstein, the third son of Eric Roude, or Redhead, set sail in the same year for Winland, with his wife Gudrid, his children, and servants, in all twenty-five persons; but having been driven by a storm to the western coast of Greenland, and obliged to winter there, Thorstein and most of his followers died; and, in the following spring, Gudrid returned home. She soon after married Thorfin, an Icelander of some consequence, who formed the resolu-

tion to take possession of the newly-discovered country, and to settle there a colony; he accordingly proceeded to Winland with a vast quantity of household furniture and cattle, and about seventy persons of both sexes. On their arrival they formed a regular settlement. They were soon after visited by the Skroellingers, and a most profitable trade was established of furs in exchange for other wares. Their visitors would also willingly have bartered for their weapons, but this Thorfin had expressly forbidden. One of them, however, found an opportunity to steal a battle-axe, and immediately made trial of it on one of his countrymen, whom he killed on the spot; the weapon was instantly taken from him and thrown into the sea.

Having, in the course of three years, obtained a considerable quantity of very rich furs, Thorfin returned to Greenland, and thence to Iceland, where he built a very elegant house on an estate which he purchased in the northern part of Syssel. After his decease, Gudrid made a pilgrimage to Rome, and afterwards retired to Iceland, and ended her days in a nunnery, which her son Snorro, a native of Winland, had founded for her.

Many similar voyages were made after this to Winland; and the descendants of the co-

lony planted there by Thorfin increased so rapidly; that, in the year 1121, one Eric, who had been appointed bishop of Greenland, preferred going straight to Winland, in order to reclaim and convert his countrymen there, who were become heathens.

From this period, continues Doctor Forster, we have no further intelligence with respect to that country; and it is highly probable that the tribe still existing in the interior parts of Newfoundland, differing remarkably from all the American Savages, as well in shape as in their manner of living, and being in a state of constant enmity with the Skroellingers or Esquimaux who reside on the opposite coast, are descended from those ancient Northmen. It is a somewhat striking coincidence, that these presumed descendants of the family of Eric Roude, or *Red*-head, should have been to this day distinguished by the name of *Red Indians*. Mr. Pinkerton, in his Modern Geography, says that, "as it is now universally admitted that Greenland forms a part of America, the discovery must, of course, be traced to the first visitation of Greenland by the Norwegians, in the year 982, which was followed in the year 1003, by the discovery of Winland; adding, that the colony in Greenland continued to flourish till the maritime

intercourse was impeded by the increasing shoals of arctic ice.* This interruption may, in like manner, account for the obscurity which prevailed respecting Winland, until it was more effectually discovered by John Cabot, in the year 1497."

If, as Mr. Pinkerton observes, the voyage of Nicola Zeno, in the year 1380, be not imaginary, he would appear also to have visited Winland. It is worthy of remark that, in the "Theatro d'el Orbe de la Tierra de Abraham Ortelio," published at Antwerp, in the year 1602, and dedicated to Philip the Third, King of Spain, the relation of that voyage is acknowledged as authentic. Doctor Forster appears likewise inclined to admit it.

Nicola and Antonio Zeno were two brothers of a noble and wealthy family of Venice, who, having formed the resolution of visiting England, had scarcely passed the straits of Gibraltar, when they were assailed by a violent tempest, which continued several days, and at last carried them to the Orkneys. Here they remained a considerable time, and were of essential service in assisting to oppose the inroads of the Northmen into those islands. As a return for these services, having resolved to

* See the notes at the end of the volume.

proceed thence on a voyage of discovery, they were liberally supplied with the means necessary to fit out three ships for that purpose. With these they set sail in the year 1394, and, taking a northerly course, arrived in *Engroneland*, where they found a monastery and a church dedicated to St. Thomas. A trade there was carried on by the Friars, in ships which went thither from the Orkneys, the Shetland, and Faro islands, and also from Drontheim, in Norway, from Sweden, and other northern regions of Europe. Nicola fell sick and died there. Antonio soon after proceeded on his intended voyage of discovery; and, after having been several days at sea, discovered an island called Estotiland, blessed with a pure and healthy air, a good soil, fine rivers, and many other advantages; little less than Iceland in size, but much more fertile; having in the midst of it a very high mountain, from which sprung four rivers that passed through the whole country. He found that the inhabitants of the southern part of the island were civilized, had several towns, made their buildings with walls, had arts and handicrafts of various kinds, sowed corn and brewed beer; they lived under the government of a king, in whose library Zeno found some Latin books which they no longer understood. But,

the inhabitants of the north were rude and unpolished, living entirely by the chace, and without any kind of government; they carried spears of wood, made sharp at the point; and used bows, the strings of which were made of the skins or entrails of beasts. All these circumstances, says Doctor Forster, respecting the inhabitants of the south, are strong indications of a people that had its origin from the northern nations of Europe. Nay, he adds, it is evident that this Estotiland cannot possibly be any other country than that of Winland, the Newfoundland of the moderns. It is beyond all doubt that several Normans settled in this country; these carried thither with them the arts and handicraft trades then known among them. That Latin books were found in the possession of the king, or chief, is not surprising; for, it is well known that Eric, bishop of Greenland, went, in the year 1121, to Winland. As this prelate was never heard of afterwards, it is probable that he died there; and, consequently, the Latin books in question might have been carried thither by him.

On referring to the earliest geographical descriptions of those countries, we find that, in Ortelio's Theatro d'el Orbe de la Tierra, the typus orbis terrarum, bearing date of the year 1587. *Estotiland* is there described as a large

island, under the same latitude as Norway, divided by the arctic circle into two parts, nearly equal, and separated from the continent by a strait, called De Tormenta, or of Tempest; whereas, in the Novi Orbis Descriptio of the same date, Estotiland is represented only as a peninsula lying to the north of what is now called Davis's Straits. In the "Principes de Cosmographie," translated from the Latin of Viettus, and published in Paris in the year 1637, Estotiland is said to be that part of North America which includes Davis's and Frobisher's Straits. And, in the "New Description of the World," by Samuel Clark, published in London in the year 1688, Estotiland is described as comprehending the northern regions of the *Mexican* province, lying between *Canida* or Nova Francia and Hudson's Bay; and Estotiland, *properly so called*, as the most northern region on the east side of America, to the south of that bay, being valuable only on account of the fishing trade, particularly in the cod, called New-land-fish, which is there so extremely abundant, that with a hook and a red rag a man may catch forty or fifty in an hour, which, when dried and salted, are brought into England and other parts of Europe. "There is also a trade with the natives for feathers, furs, and skins of

beasts; and, the most noted places are Prince Henry's Fore-land, Cape Charles, King's Fore-land, and Cape Wolstenham. On the south lies Newfoundland, which some term an island, as being divided from the continent by a frith, or strait, called Golfe de Chateaux, (strait of Bellisle,) and surrounded with islands, called by some Cabo Baccalaos, from the swarms of Baccalaos, or cod-fish, found there."

From these authorities, it is evident that the name of Estotiland in those parts is of a very early date, and that the Island of Newfound-land was generally considered as a part of the country so called. The learned author last quoted also states, that the natives of that island, upon the coming of the Christians, in-habited the sea coast, but "now for the most part have betaken themselves to the woods and fastnesses; that they used to express their duty and reverence towards their king by stroking their foreheads and rubbing their noses, which if the king accepted, or was well pleased with the person, he turned his head to his left shoulder as a mark of favour." Accord-ing to Laurent Echard, in his Geographical Dictionary, published about the middle of the last century, the country now designated by the name of New Britain was then also called Estotiland.

That some great revolution took place among the native inhabitants of the island of Newfoundland in the fourteenth or the fifteenth century seems to be the decided opinion of Doctor Forster, Doctor Robertson, and Mr. Pinkerton. According to the former, it appears, that, from the year 1402 to the year 1404, a great multitude of the inhabitants of Winland was carried off by a pestilence; so that, what with the diminution of their numbers, the want of assistance from Iceland and other parts, and the increasing cold, the Norman inhabitants were weakened to such a degree, that at last it became an easy matter for the Skroellingers, who had begun to shew themselves about the year 1376, to make war upon them; and, that it is, therefore, probable that these people have, at length, extirpated the whole Norman race; and yet, the same writer, only three pages before, gives good reasons for supposing, with still greater probability, that the tribe now existing in the interior parts of Newfoundland derives its origin from that same Norman race. Doctor Robertson says, that it is manifest, that, if the Norwegians did discover any part of America at that period, their attempts to plant colonies proved unsuccessful, and all knowledge of it was soon lost: and Mr. Pinkerton, that the colony in

Winland was soon destroyed by intestine divisions.

We are not in possession of the evidence on which these several opinions are founded, and therefore we cannot inquire into its validity and exact tendency: but, we may easily conceive, allowing the description of the population of Newfoundland, given by Zeno, to be correct, that intestine divisions should have arisen between the northern and the southern inhabitants of that island, the necessary consequence of which must have been to weaken, and ultimately to destroy, the ties of civilization, which had been before observed to connect the inhabitants of the south. This effect may have been accelerated by the necessity in which they found themselves from the year 1376, of uniting their efforts and directing their whole attention to the defence of the island against the increasing numbers of the Skroellingers, or Esquimaux, on the opposite coast. And though we cannot readily admit the possibility of extirpating the whole race, in an island of such extent as Newfoundland, and covered with woods and marshes, we may easily conclude that this perpetual state of warfare produced among all the inhabitants a similarity of manners, habits, and mode of living, the unavoidable consequence of an

exact similarity of situation and of wants. A savage life is certainly not the *natural* state of man: but it cannot be denied that his passions and appetites constantly tend to plunge him into that state. From the necessity and habit of devoting all his thoughts to the most effectual means of defence and of subsistence, he soon forgets the use of those faculties which he ceases to exert; the spirit of independence, at all times so powerfully active, and all the savage passions gain rapidly upon him; and, when the ties of subordination and of social order are once loosened, all civilization is soon at an end; no effectual restraint remains to curb the passions, the self-will, and self-interest of individuals; nor will any consideration be sufficiently powerful to prevail upon men reduced to that state to submit voluntarily to a regular and efficient form of government; and to renounce their independent, wandering, wild, and *idle* habits of life; for man, in a savage state, is seldom roused to exertions but by the immediate and pressing calls of hunger, or of danger, or the desire of revenge.

CHAPTER II.

JOHN AND SEBASTIAN CABOT.

It was accident that had led the ancient Northmen to the discovery of Greenland, and afterwards of Newfoundland; the same cause, five hundred years afterwards, led to the discovery of the southern continent of America. Vicente Yanez Pinzon had sailed from Spain, in December 1499, on a voyage of discovery; a violent tempest drove him from the Cape de Verd islands to Cape Saint Augustin's, on the Brazil coast, where he landed on the 26th day of January, 1500, and took possession of the same in the name of the crown of Castile. Exactly three months after, Pedro Alvarez Cabral, who had sailed from Lisbon with a fleet destined for the East Indies, was also driven by stress of weather to the same quarter of the globe. Thus, by an extraordinary concurrence of circumstances, if the sagacity of Columbus had not led him to America, that extensive continent would have been discovered seven years later by mere accident.

Let us not, however, deprive Columbus of his well-earned glory. His discovery of the New World was the effort of an active genius, enlightened by science, guided by experience, and acting upon a regular plan, conducted with no less courage than perseverance. If accident had any share in this enterprize, it was in depriving Henry the Seventh, King of England, of the honour of this first preconcerted attempt towards the discovery of the western hemisphere. Columbus, having in vain successively solicited the assistance of Genoa, his native country, of Portugal, of Spain, and of France, sent his proposals to the King of England, by his brother Bartholomew. The latter was taken by pirates in his voyage thither. Columbus had made the necessary preparations, and was on the eve of his departure for England, when Spain, at length, consented to second his views, but not until that great man had spent six years in anxious suspense and fruitless solicitations.

Henry, however, had the honour of contributing to the first discovery of the *continent* of America, for Christopher Columbus did not discover it till his third voyage, in the year 1498, nor did Americus Vespucius see it before the year 1499.

At that time the Venetians were distinguish-

ed by the flourishing state and the extent of their navigation and commerce: their harbours were continually crowded with foreign vessels, while their own sailed to every trading port. They had factories in the different towns and cities of the northern kingdoms, and agents wherever they deemed it advantageous to preserve an intercourse. John Gabota, or Cabot, by birth a Venetian, was employed in that capacity at Bristol; he had long resided in England, and a successful negotiation in which he had been employed, in the year 1495, with the court of Denmark, respecting some interruptions which the merchants of Bristol had suffered in their trade to Iceland, had been the means of introducing him to Henry the Seventh.

His skill in every science connected with navigation and commerce, and the success which had attended the enterprizes of Columbus, led him to suppose that land might probably be discovered to the north-west; or, according to some writers, that a passage to China might be found in that direction. He laid his conjectures before Henry, who directed him to prepare immediately for the voyage, and by letters patent, dated at Westminster, March 5, 1496, invested him with a commission, by which "full authority was granted to

John Cabot, to Lewis, Sebastian, and Santo, his sons, and to their heirs and assigns, to sail to all parts, countries, and seas, of the east, of the west, and of the north, under the royal flag, with five ships of what burthen soever they be, and as many mariners or men as they might desire to have with them, upon their proper costs and charges; to discover whatsoever isles, countries, lands of the heathens and infidels, and whatsoever they be, which before this time had been unknown to all Christians; to set up his standard and take possession of the same, as his vassals and lieutenants; paying him the fifth part of the profits of every voyage, as often as they should arrive at Bristol, the only port to which they were to return, all necessary costs by them made being first deducted. They, their heirs and deputies, were to be free from all payment of customs of all merchandizes brought from the newly-discovered countries; and these were not to be frequented or visited by any other of the king's subjects, without the licence of John Cabot, his sons, and their assigns, under the pain of forfeiture of ships and goods."

Some authors assert that John Cabot and his three sons sailed the same spring, with two ships, on a voyage intended for China, through the north-west, and fell in with the north side

of Terra de Labrador, coasting as far as the fifty-seventh degree of north latitude; that the next year, 1497, John made a second voyage with Sebastian, when they discovered, on the 24th of June, Cape Bonavista, in Newfoundland; and that, in the year 1502, they went again to Newfoundland, and brought three natives of that island to Henry the Seventh. Other writers state, that it was not till the year 1497, that the necessary preparations were completed for the voyage. Henry fitted and victualled at his own expense two ships at Bristol, and the merchants of that city, jointly with those of London, furnished four small vessels laden with coarse cloth and various other articles proper for the enterprize, Henry having, by a special commission, increased the number of vessels to six.

On board this fleet, says Fabian, a cotemporary writer, in his Chronicle, John Cabot embarked, with his son Sebastian and their associates, in the beginning of May, in the year one thousand four hundred and ninety-seven. He took a north-west course, and, after having, on several occasions, experienced the same difficulties from his men which had before so often tried the fortitude and presence of mind of Columbus, he had, at last, on the 24th of June, a sight of land, to which he gave

the name of Prima, or Bonavista, (first or pleasing sight,) a Cape still so called on the eastern coast of Newfoundland. Having landed in the adjoining bay, he saw several natives, who were dressed in the skins of animals; he saw likewise many stags and bears, black hawks, partridges, and eagles. He then, in the name of the King of England, took possession of that island, which he named *Baccalaos*, the word used for cod-fish by the natives. He next fell in, on the feast of Saint John the Baptist, with a smaller island, to which, on that account, he gave the name of Saint John's. Thence continuing his course, in a south-west direction, he explored the coast, taking possession, as he proceeded, for the crown of England, according to the forms observed in those times, until he found himself nearly in the same latitude as the straits of Gibraltar, and in the longitude of the island of Cuba, which is supposed to have been Chesapeak Bay, in Virginia. Finding himself short of provisions, he was compelled to stop there, and returned to England with a *good cargo*.

Stowe and Speed ascribe this discovery wholly to Sebastian, without any mention of the father, perhaps from a foolish national prejudice, because Sebastian was a native of Bristol, and that John was a foreigner: several

distinguished writers have fallen into the same mistake. But Hakluyt says, that John Cabot was knighted for these services; and Fabian, who, as we have already observed, lived and wrote at the time of the discovery of Newfoundland, states expressly, that "on board this fleet John Cabot, his son Sebastian, and their associates, embarked in the spring of the year 1497."

It is probable that John Cabot made more than one voyage to America; for he is said to have carried his discoveries as far as the gulf of Florida. He is also said to have brought to England three natives of the island of Newfoundland; and, from the following extract from Fabian's Chronicle, this voyage must have taken place in the year one thousand four hundred and ninety-eight or ninety-nine; for King Henry VII. came to the throne on the 22d of August, 1485. If Cabot's return, in the present instance, was later in the year than the month of August, it must have been in 1498; and, if before that month, then it was in the year 1499.

"In the fourteenth year of Henry VII. there were brought unto him three men taken in the Newfound-island. These were clothed in beasts-skins, and spake such speech that no man could understand them; and, in their demeanour were like brute beasts; whom the

king kept a time after; of the which about two years after I saw two apparelled after the manner of Englishmen, in Westminster-palace, which at that time I could not discern from Englishmen, till I was learned what they were; but, as for speech, I heard none of them utter one word."

Hakluyt says, that a map of the joint discoveries of John and Sebastian Cabot, drawn by Sebastian, with his father's effigies on one side of it, was hung in the privy gallery at Whitehall.

It appears that Sebastian Cabot had, at some period, left the service of England; for we are informed that, in the twenty-fourth year of King Henry VIII. he was persuaded, by a merchant of Bristol, named Robert Thorne, to leave the service of Spain and return to England. Here he obtained the esteem of King Edward the Sixth, who appointed him grand pilot of England, and also settled upon him for life a pension of £166 : 13 : 4, by a grant, dated at Westminster, January 6, 1549. Having been placed at the head of the Company of the Merchant Adventurers, he made himself eminently useful to this country in curbing the immoderate influence and ambition of the Easterlings, or Hanse-towns merchants, who, by an abuse of the extensive privileges which

had been granted them in their charters, in the year 1551, had not only wholly monopolized the woollen trade, but, by employing the shipping of their own country, exceedingly injured the navigation of England.

Purchas is very much offended that America should be called by that name, and says that it ought rather to be called *Cabotiana* or *Sebastiana*, on the ground that Sebastian Cabot discovered more of it than either Americus or Columbus himself. A modern writer observes, that "it is evident that Newfoundland was the first of our plantations, and that it has been the source of wealth and naval power to this nation: and, it may truly be said of Sebastian Cabot, that he was the author of our maritime strength, and opened the way to those improvements which have since made us so great and flourishing a people." In the same spirit Sir William Monson had said before: "To come to the particulars of the augmentation of our trade, of our plantations, and of our discoveries, because every man shall have his due therein, I will begin with Newfoundland, lying upon the main continent of America, which the king of Spain challenges as first discoverer. As we acknowledge the king of Spain the first light of the western and south-western parts of America, so we and all the

world must confess that we were the first that took possession for the crown of England of the north part thereof, and not above two years difference betwixt the one and the other; and, as the Spaniards have, from that day and year, held their possessions in the west, so have we done the like in the north; and, although there is no respect in comparison of the wealth betwixt the countries, yet England may boast that the discovery, from that time to this very day, has afforded this kingdom annually one hundred and twenty thousand pounds, and increased the number of our ships and mariners, as our western parts can witness by their fishery in Newfoundland. Neither can Spain challenge a more natural right than we to its discovery; for, in that case, we are both alike. If we deal truly with others and deprive them not of their right, it is *Italy* that must assume the discovery to itself, as well in the one part of America as in the other. Genoa and Christopher Columbus must carry away the praise from Spain; and the like may be said of Sebastian Cabot, a Venetian, who, by his earnest intercession to Henry VII. drew him to the discovery of Newfoundland, and called it by the name of *Baccalao*, an Indian name for fish, from the abundance of fish he found on that coast." In this passage, Sir William Monson

has, with equal judgment and impartiality, expatiated on the advantages accruing to England from so important a discovery. Although mistaken in the name, ascribing to Sebastian, a native of Bristol, what was due to Sir John Cabot, a native and citizen of Venice, it should never be forgotten that Newfoundland was discovered by this illustrious adventurer.* It does not appear that *earnest intercession* was necessary to induce Henry VII. to second the views of John Cabot in this respect, as that prince was generally reputed one of the most sagacious as well as one of the most opulent monarchs in Europe. When Bartholomew Columbus, having, at last, effected his escape from his long captivity, laid his brother's proposals before Henry, that king received them with more approbation than they had been received by any prince to whom they had hitherto been presented; and it may reasonably be supposed that the disappointment occasioned by the compliance of the court of Spain with Christopher's wishes, while his brother was negotiating in England for the same purpose, and the subsequent success of the Spanish expedition, must have operated as a strong in-

* Churchill's Voy. III. 396.

ducement in the English court to listen favourably to the proposals of John Cabot.

A want of precision is the great fault of the writers of those times. Inattentive to circumstances, and even less solicitous concerning dates, they delivered a confused account of facts, which circumstance has not only occasioned much trouble to later historians, but also prevented them from obtaining materials on which they could depend, on many important points. Hence those different and contradictory accounts of dates and names, which are to be found in most of the authors who have written on the discovery of Newfoundland.

CHAPTER III.

1497—1548.

JOHN CABOT had brought home no treasures in gold or silver, the great object of sueh enterprizes in those times; we are, however, informed that he brought a *valuable cargo;* and the account that he gave of the immense quantities of fish which he had observed on the coasts of Newfoundland, could not be received with indifference in a country which, long before, had shewn a just sense of the importance of Fisheries. Although her disputes with Scotland engrossed at that time the attention of England, so as to suspend all attempts towards similar enterprizes on the part of the government, it may be supposed that private adventurers, and particularly the merchants of London and Bristol, would not neglect a branch of commerce of so great importance to Roman Catholic countries, at a time when all the nations of Europe most strictly professed that religion.

Doctor Forster informs us that, as early as

the year 1500, the fishery was carried on by the Portuguese, Biscayans, French, and other nations, on the banks or shallows, and on the coast to the east and south of the island of Newfoundland. Although by no means favourable to the validity of the claims of the English to that island, he, however, acknowledges that the crown of England had "discovered it at its own expense;" adding, that as long as Spain, Portugal, and France, were powerful at sea, the English did not venture to dispute with them the title to this fishery; but, as soon as Spain was engaged in a war with England, the latter power, in the year 1585, sent a squadron into those seas, under the command of Sir Francis Drake, who seized the ships of Portugal, then subject to the crown of Spain, and carried them to England as good and lawful prizes. This taking possession of Newfoundland is, he says, the foundation of the rights which England has to the fishery carried on by her subjects in those seas. The same writer very justly observes, that "as, according to the account which Captain Anthony Packhurst gave to Hakluyt, so many nations carried on the fishery off the coast of Newfoundland so early as the year 1578, it is clear that so considerable a fishery could never have sprung up all at once, but that it must

have been established by degrees; consequently, it must have been carried on a great while, before it could have risen to the height at which it then was. Now, the French having fished on this coast so far back as the year 1504, it is very probable that the Portuguese, who had there, in the year 1578, fifty ships carrying altogether three thousand tons burthen, must, in 1504, or at least not long after, have fished there also." How, then, can we suppose that the English alone should have neglected to reap the fruits of the risks and expense attending the discovery of that valuable island? though they might, perhaps, not think it necessary or prudent to enforce their exclusive right to that fishery, until an unavoidable war with Spain gave them a fair opportunity in the year 1585. We are expressly told that the produce of the first voyage of John and Sebastian Cabot to Newfoundland was a valuable cargo, which could consist only of furs and fish; and that they made several voyages to those parts, which must have produced the same favourable result, and which may be supposed to have been the motive which induced the other maritime nations of Europe to direct their attention to those latitudes, whilst they neglected the more southern parts of North America.

Portugal appears to have been the first nation which followed the steps of John and Sebastian Cabot to the northern parts of North America. She was then in her glory; her sons were animated with the spirit of action and enterprize; and her government attended with equal ardour and promptitude to every important object that presented itself. Then also she looked upon the discoveries made by Spain and by England as so many encroachments on her own rights and domains. Anxious to discover new countries and to open a new route to India, Gaspar de Corte Real, a Portuguese of a distinguished family, set sail from Lisbon in the year 1501, and in the course of his navigation arrived at Newfoundland, in a wide and deep bay, which he named Conception Bay, an appellation which it still retains. He explored the whole eastern coast of that island, and then proceeded to the mouth of the great river of Canada, or Saint Lawrence; after this, he discovered a land, which he named Terra Verde, or Green land, afterwards called from him Terra Corterealis, or de Cortereal, now New Britain: that part of it which, being under the fiftieth degree of north latitude, he thought was still fit for cultivation, he named Terra de Labrador, or Terra Agricolæ, as it is called in the Cosmography of

Sebastian Munster. He then returned to Portugal; and, in a second voyage to that part of the world, he is supposed to have been murdered by the Esquimaux, or, according to other writers, to have perished in the ice.

In the year 1502, Hugh Elliot and Thomas Ashehurst, merchants of Bristol, obtained from Henry VII. letters patent for the establishment of a colony in Newfoundland; but we find no information whether they ever made use of this grant or set on foot any voyages thither, either in the writers who were their cotemporaries, or in those that immediately succeeded them.

Bergeron, a French historian, says, that in the year 1504, the fishermen of Normandy and Brittany visited the great fishing banks near Cape Breton, to which they gave that name, supposing it to be a part of the continent, and which it has retained ever since, although found afterwards to be an island. Doctor Forster likewise makes mention of a voyage performed in the year 1506, by Jean Denis, from Honfleur to Newfoundland, who drew a map of the river Saint Lawrence; and another, in 1508, by Thomas Hubert, or Aubert, from Dieppe to the same island, who is said to have carried over to France some of the natives; but these, he says, are rather loose hints than regular accounts of places explored by the

French, who seem to have shewn the least desire of any nation to attempt the discovery of countries, which did not promise the same sources of wealth that the Spaniards had found in Peru and Mexico. At last, however, Francis I. a sensible and enterprizing prince, in the year 1523, sent four ships, under the command of Verazani, a native of Florence, to prosecute discoveries in that part of the world; but Verazani only took a view of the island of Newfoundland and part of the continent, and then returned to France. The next year he undertook a second voyage, and, having touched at the island of Madeira, directed his course to the American coast, where he was assailed by a violent storm, and gave up the enterprize. He embarked again on a third expedition, and was no more heard of.

In the year 1527, Robert Thorne, a merchant of Bristol, the same who prevailed upon Sebastian Cabot to leave the service of Spain and return to that of England, presented to King Henry VIII. a memorial, respecting a passage to the Indies by the *North Pole*. Henry, though involved at that time in a multiplicity of affairs, observing in Thorne a considerable degree of activity and of sagacity, ordered that two ships should be immediately manned and provided with every thing necessary for

such an expedition. In these Thorne and his associates sailed on the 20th of May. On their arrival near Newfoundland, one of the ships was cast away at the entrance of a dangerous gulf (the straits of Bellisle,) between the northern parts of Newfoundland and the coast of Labrador. The other ship, to which Henry had given the name of *Dominus Vobiscum*, then shaped its course along the eastern coast of that island, towards Cape Breton and the coasts of Arembec, now Nova Scotia, frequently lying to, whilst parties went on shore on the different islands and places by which they passed. In the beginning of October, in the same year, the adventurers returned home disappointed in their hopes of discovering the north-west passage, notwithstanding their indefatigable assiduity and earnest endeavours.

L'Abbé Raynal observes that the discovery of America by the Spaniards, and that of the route to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope by the Portuguese, do not appear to have had so much effect on the French as they had upon the English and the Dutch, to excite them to similar enterprizes. Entirely taken up with her views on the crown of Naples and on the dutchy of Milan, France neglected her navy, and cherished a romantic spirit of chivalry, with an extreme contempt for every

thing relative to trade and commerce. These prejudices prevented her from giving that attention to voyages of discovery which they deserved. It is not, therefore, surprising to find that France has contributed but very little towards the discoveries made in the north; nor was it until the times of Henry the Great with his favourite Sully, and of Lewis XIV. with his great minister Colbert, that merchants and manufacturers began to be considered as valuable members of society, and their professions to receive that respect to which they are justly entitled, in as much as they enrich the state. He adds that, towards the middle of the sixteenth century, France, notwithstanding her indifference to her navigation and commerce, began, however, to give a serious consideration to the value of the gold mine, which the discovery of Newfoundland had opened in her fisheries. Francis I. not discouraged by the unsuccessful issue of Verazani's expedition, sent, in the year 1534, a fleet from Saint Maloes, under the command of James Cartier, an experienced navigator of that town. Raynal speaks of this as of an enterprize which seemed to have been entered upon merely from imitation, and was neglected from levity. Greater justice is done in this instance to the French monarch, not only by Doctor Forster, who was

a German writer, but also by Doctor Wynne, an Englishman, in his general history of the British empire in America.

James Cartier sailed from Saint Maloes on the 20th of April, 1534, with two ships and one hundred and twenty-two men; on the 10th of May following, he arrived at Bonavista, in Newfoundland; the land was as yet covered with snow, and the coast surrounded by great quantities of ice. He thence sailed round the island and found many commodious harbours; but the country was so uninviting, and the climate so cold, that he did not make a long stay there. He saw several of the natives of the island, of a good size and tolerably well shaped; they were dressed in beasts-skins, and wore their hair tied in a bunch, on the crown of their head, adorned with feathers. He thence took a southerly course, and entered into a bay, which, on account of the sultry weather which he experienced there, he called Baye des Chaleurs, a name which it still retains. It is a broad and deep bay on the western side of the river Saint Lawrence. He landed at several places on the banks of that gulf or river, and, on the 15th of August, he sailed for France, and arrived on the 5th of September at Saint Maloes.

The account which he gave of this voyage

on his return, induced Francis to send him out again with a larger force. Three ships well rigged and manned were now placed under his command, on board of which were several young men of distinction. With these he put to sea on the 19th of May, in the year 1535. The ships were soon after dispersed by a storm; but met again, on the 26th of June, at their general place of rendezvous in the bay or gulf of Newfoundland, to which he then gave the name of Saint Lawrence, on account of his entering into it on the day of that festival. On the 15th he came to an island which he named Assumption, now called Anticosti, from the Indian name Natiscotee. He next anchored by a small island, which he named l'Isle au Coudres from the number of hazel-trees growing upon it, a name which it still retains, about forty-five miles north-east of Quebec. Sailing farther up the river, he came to a large and fine island, covered with an immense quantity of vines growing spontaneously in the groves and forests, and hence named it l'Isle de Bacchus, now the Isle of Orleans.

Cartier on his return to France, in the same year, expatiated on the advantages which would result from a settlement being formed in those parts; a nobleman of Picardy, François de la Roque, Seigneur de Roberval, entered

into his views; and Francis, who used to call him the little king of Vimere, on account of his great influence in his own province, readily gave to this Seigneur every encouragement that he could desire. He created him "Lord of Norimbega (also called Arembec, now Nova Scotia) and his Lieutenant-General and Viceroy in Canada, Hochelaga, (now Montreal,) Saguenay, a river which empties itself into the gulf of Saint Lawrence, Newfoundland, the general name for all the country discovered by John and Sebastian Cabot, Bellisle, Carpon, a bay or harbour in the north of Newfoundland, Labrador, the great bay, meaning most probably Conception Bay, and Baccalaos." This long enumeration shews at once the temper of Roberval, the sagacity of Francis who sought to flatter his vanity by this long list of seigniories or lordships, and the great ignorance that prevailed at that time in France respecting those countries: we cannot help admiring at the same time the extreme liberality of the French king.

Roberval, determined to appear in his new government with a grandeur suitable to the dignity with which he was invested, procured cannons from Normandy, and fitted out two ships at his own expense, making preparations which were not completed before the expira-

tion of two years. Cartier, who was to go before as his captain-general, set sail with five ships, on the 23d of May, in the year 1540. After meeting with very rough weather, he made and landed in the harbour of Carpon, or Quirpon, on the north of the island of Newfoundland. He next proceeded to Hochelaga where he waited for the arrival of Roberval, who however did not leave France before April, in the year 1542. Cartier discouraged by this delay, finding his stock of provisions considerably reduced, and having reason to apprehend an attack from the native savages, set out at last on his return to France, intending in his way to take another view of Newfoundland. There he unexpectedly found Roberval in the road of Saint John's, where the latter had arrived just before him with three ships full of men, women, and children. Not being able to prevail upon his captain-general to continue with him, Roberval proceeded with his small fleet to the coast of the gulf Saint Lawrence and built a fort on a hill close to the shore. He afterwards sent his first pilot, Jean Alphonse de Xaintonge, to the northward to discover a passage to the Indies: but this pilot did not go beyond fifty-two degrees of north latitude, and Roberval soon after returned to France.

The expeditions and captivity of Francis diverted for some time the attention of the French from such remote interests; nor are we informed of the fate of the numerous colony which Roberval had carried to Hochelaga. In the year 1549, Roberval, with his brother, who is said to have been one of the bravest men of those times, and a numerous train of adventurers, embarked for the same part of America, and were never after heard of. This calamitous event discouraged so much the French government and nation, that fifty years elapsed before any similar attempt was again made by them.

In the mean time England, though at that period fully employed by the changes which were then making in the established religion, the domestic troubles of Henry VIII. the disturbances in Scotland, and the insurrections at home, was not inattentive to the interests of her North American possessions. A London merchant, named Hoare, proposed a plan for making a settlement in the island of Newfoundland, and was joined by several young gentlemen who engaged to share with him the expenses and risks of the enterprize. According to Hakluyt, Mr. Hoare was tall and graceful in his person, of an insinuating address, a cultivated understanding, and opulent. Among his

associates were Messrs. Tuck, a gentleman of Kent; Tuckfield Thomas Butts, the son of Sir William Butts, of Norfolk, Hardie, Biron, Carter, Wright, Rastal, Ridley, Weekes, and several others, in all thirty persons of ancient families and considerable property, who all embarked with Mr. Hoare in the admiral ship, called the Trinity, of one hundred and forty tons. In another ship, the Minion, went Messrs. Armigal Wade, afterwards clerk of the council to Henry VIII. and Edward VI. Oliver Daubeney, a merchant of London; Joy, afterwards gentleman of the Chapel Royal, and several others, many of whom were men of rank and opulence.

On the 30th of April, in the year 1536, they sailed from Gravesend, and continued at sea during two months without seeing any land, until they made Cape Breton. They next arrived at Penguin Island, a rock of some extent on the southern coast of Newfoundland, where they landed. Here they found a prodigious quantity of white and grey birds as large as geese, which, when *flead* and dressed, were delicious eating. Sea birds have always a disagreeable *fishy* taste, which is supposed to adhere to the skin and to disappear with it. Black and white bears were likewise very numerous; some of them were killed and proved tolerable

food. From this small island they proceeded to the coast of Newfoundland, where they remained several days at anchor without seeing any of the natives. At last some of them were observed rowing towards the ships; a boat was manned and sent after them, but they immediately retreated, and, gaining the shore, fled to an island in the bay; this also they left at the approach of the men, who found there a fire, at which the side of a bear was roasting on a wooden spit.

Mr. Hoare and his associates remained there till their provisions became short, and being then afraid to trust themselves at sea in such a condition, their distress became so great that they were reduced to feed upon herbs and roots of all kinds, which they gathered on the shore. And now a most horrid transaction took place which we would gladly pass over, if it had not been mentioned and most grossly misrepresented by other writers. "And it fortuned," says Hakluyt, "that one of the company or crew of one of the vessels, driven with hunger to seek abroad for relief, found in the fields the savour of broiled flesh, and fell out with one, for that he would suffer him and his fellows to starve, enjoying plenty, as he thought; and this matter growing to cruel speeches, he that had the broiled meat burst out into these words:

'If thou wouldst needs know, the broiled meat that I had was a piece of such a man's buttock.' The report of this brought to the ship, the captain found what became of those that were missing, and was persuaded that some of them were neither devoured by wild beasts nor yet destroyed by savages."

This transaction, says Doctor Forster, appears almost incredible; it is not easy to conceive how any but the most depraved of human beings could be driven to the necessity of murdering and feeding upon their fellow-creatures, in such a place as Newfoundland, where fish abounds, and where, by their own account, there are great numbers of birds and other animals. And yet horrible as is this transaction as stated by Hakluyt, Doctor Forster has thought proper to render it still more so by a direct falsification of Hakluyt's account; for his own relation runs thus: "One of them came behind another who was digging up some roots, and killed him with a view to prepare himself a meal from his fellow-creature's flesh; and a third smelling the delicious odour of broiled meat went up to the murderer, and by threats and menaces extorted from him a share in this shocking meal."[1] Now, according to Hakluyt's account, so far from the third person *forcing* from the murderer and talking with

him a share in the horrid repast, knowing what it was, it is manifest that he was totally ignorant of what it consisted, and only expressed his anger that he should enjoy, as he thought, plenty, and at the same time suffer his companions to starve. He could not be a partaker of it, because it is plain that the murderer had finished his meal before the altercation began, from his words: "the meat that *I had.*" It is farther evident, that the third man was impressed with a proper sense of the enormity of the other's crime, by his making a report of it to the captain, whose horror on the discovery is very fully shewn by his conduct on the occasion. But the idea which Doctor Forster's account seems intended to convey is, that they were all equally guilty and equally ready to perpetrate those horrid and detestable crimes.

As to the causes which led them to this extreme distress in such a place as Newfoundland where fish abounds, and where there were, according to their own account, great numbers of birds and other animals, it may be sufficient to observe, 1. That although fish is exceedingly abundant on that coast, it is not equally so every where and at all times; it comes in periodically in shoals, is continually changing its course, and when stationary is found only on grounds or ledges of a certain depth. In the

very heat of the fishery, when fish is most abundant, the inhabitants sometimes catch it at a small distance from the shore, sometimes they are obliged to go to a considerable distance, and sometimes even to other parts of the coast; nor can it be caught without proper bait and implements expressly made for that purpose.

2. Where mention is made of great numbers of birds and other animals, this must be understood in reference to Penguin Island where they had first landed, and which was then particularly remarkable for the multitudes of birds of that name and of other kinds, which laid their eggs there, and nested unmolested and undisturbed, as is now the case with Baccalao Island, off Conception Bay, and a few other desert islands and rocks on that coast. At what distance they were then from Penguin Island; whether the wind blew to or from it; whether they had strength sufficient in their starving condition to navigate their vessels back to that island; or whether, if able and the wind favourable, they were so well acquainted with its exact situation as to venture on the open ocean with confidence towards it; these are so many questions on which we have no grounds to decide.

Lastly, it is still more incredible that so

great a number of gentlemen of sense, judgment, and spirit, should have tamely submitted to that state of distress, if it had been in their power by any means to extricate themselves from it.

In fact they actually seized upon the first opportunity that presented itself to escape, by means which nothing but that extreme distress could possibly excuse or reconcile to their own feelings. A French ship laden with provisions soon after put into the same harbour; they made themselves masters of her, and leaving their own to the French, to whom Doctor Forster acknowledges that they distributed a sufficient quantity of provisions, they hastened to leave a country in which they had endured such miseries. After having observed vast islands of ice, though during the summer season, they arrived towards the end of October at Saint Ives, in Cornwall. The alteration produced in their persons by the sufferings which they had experienced was so great, that, although they had not been absent seven months, Sir William Butts and his lady could not recollect their own son but by an extraordinary wart on his knee. Hakluyt assures his readers that they may rely on the authenticity of his account of this voyage, as he rode two hundred miles in order to take the

particulars from the mouth of Mr. Butts himself, the then only survivor of those who had been engaged in it. Some time afterwards the owners of the ship which they had seized upon in Newfoundland came to England to complain of that seizure. The king examined closely into the affair; and finding that extreme necessity had occasioned this act of violence, he gave orders that they should be satisfied to the full extent of their demands by the payment of a considerable sum out of the royal treasury.

The circumstances of this unfortunate voyage prove that no settlement had yet been effected there by any European nation; and the conduct of the savages seems to indicate that the sight of an European vessel was not usual to them; nor does it appear that Mr. Hoare and his associates, in their voyage out and home, met with a single vessel. The French ship, which put into the harbour in which they were, must have been driven thither by false reckoning, stress of weather, or some other accident; for there were no inhabitants for whose use the provisions with which she was laden could be intended.

To these beginnings, says an English writer, alluding to Mr. Hoare's voyage, we owe the Newfoundland trade. That trade, however,

had commenced long before; but from this time the fishery was prosecuted by the English with greater vigour and systematic consistency than ever: it became a regular and distinct branch of the commerce of this country; the merchants of London, Bristol, and the west of England, who engaged in it, became more numerous, as well as the vessels which were fitted out for that particular object. Sailing from the English ports in the spring, those ships returned in autumn with their whole freight of fish both salted and *dried* on the coast of the island; a situation far more favourable to the fishery than the banks to which it had hitherto been confined, and where the fish was injured by remaining too long in the salt or pickle, as well as by the excessive pressure of the upper layers, and where it could not be *dried* on account of the damp and thick fogs that perpetually cover those banks. This trade, in the course of twelve years after this last voyage, became of such consequence as to be deemed an object deserving the interference and support of the legislature. In the year 1549, the third of the reign of King Edward VI. an act of parliament was passed "for the better encouragement of the fisheries in Iceland and Newfoundland." This act expressly prohibited the exaction of money, fish, or other rewards,

under any pretext whatsoever, from the English fishermen and mariners going on this service, by the officers of the Admiralty, or any others, on pain of forfeiture of treble the amount or value for the first offence, and for the second of loss of employment, and of making fine and ransom at the king's will and pleasure.

Hakluyt very justly observes, that it appears, from this act, that the trade out of England to Newfoundland was common about the reign of that Prince. To this remark of Hakluyt Doctor Forster adds, that this measure proves likewise, that many other nations used at the same time to carry on a lucrative fishery there, which it was intended to wrest out of their hands by these means. Hence we may draw a general conclusion, that the English Newfoundland fishery had at that time attained a considerable degree of importance in the opinion of all the maritime nations of Europe,

CHAPTER IV.

1548—1630.

"THOSE authors," says Mr. Pinkerton, "who wonder that colonies were not sent sooner to America, only shew their ignorance of the intentions of the first navigators. At that period, there was not one man in Europe who could have formed the smallest idea of the benefits of a colony; it was the success of the Spanish colonies, allured by gold alone, that, towards the end of the sixteenth century, opened the eyes of mankind; but, even then, Raleigh's transcendant mind held out gold to all his followers as the sole inducement." The attention of Europe had been particularly directed since the time of Cabot to the "gold mine of the Newfoundland fishery, like which, says twice the celebrated Bacon, of all the minerals there is none so rich." Hence the many attempts made to settle a colony in that valuable island, notwithstanding every discouragement that could arise from the nature of its soil and climate. The first attempt of this kind, which

also paved the way to others of a similar nature successfully made afterwards in other parts of North America, and which procured to its author the title of "the parent of all the English plantations" in that part of the world, was made in Newfoundland.

Sir Humphrey Gilbert, descended from an ancient family in the county of Devon, equally conversant in theory and in practice with cosmography, navigation, and the art of war, and remarkable for an enterprising spirit, for intrepidity and eminent abilities, had formed the resolution of settling a colony in the island of Newfoundland. Queen Elizabeth entered at once into his views, and, by letters patent, dated the 11th of June, 1578, invested him with full powers, similar to those which Henry had before granted to Cabot, to discover, settle, and regulate any remote countries not in the actual possession of any Christian prince or people, with all commodities, jurisdictions, and royalties, to him, his heirs, and assigns, for ever, within two hundred leagues where he or they should fix the place of their residence, within the six years next ensuing. Having obtained this patent, Sir Humphrey endeavoured to procure associates in the enterprise, and received assurances of support from a great number of persons who declared their resolution to attend

him on the voyage. When the vessels were completely equipped, and the crews assembled near the coast in readiness to embark, the majority of the adventurers departed from their agreements, and signified their intention of reserving their property for the support of plans concerted among themselves. Sir Humphrey, still determined to proceed with the few friends who yet remained unshaken in their attachment, sailed instantly, in the summer of the year 1578, for Newfoundland, where he made a short stay; and came back to England, having narrowly escaped, with the loss of one vessel, from a squadron of Spanish men of war by which he had been intercepted. The great expenses which he had incurred in preparations for this enterprise had so impaired his estate, that he was compelled to desist for some time from the resumption of his project.

About this time a material change was introduced respecting the nature of the property in fishing-rooms at Newfoundland. It appears, that hitherto the space of ground requisite to cure and dry the cod-fish belonged to the first person who seized upon it. This custom having been a perpetual source of disputes, Sir Thomas Hampshire, who was sent by Queen Elizabeth, in the year 1582, into those latitudes with five ships, was authorized to secure to every master

of a fishing crew the property of that fishing-room which he made the object of his choice, so long as he kept it employed for the use of the fishery. This new arrangement is said to have considerably increased the number of the expeditions to Newfoundland.

Sir Humphrey Gilbert, not in the least discouraged by the disappointments and miscarriage of his first enterprise, and seeing that nearly five of the six years to which his patent was limited were expired, sold his estate, which produced a considerable sum, and with the assistance of Sir George Peckham and other friends, who liberally contributed to the expenses of the undertaking, he equipped a small fleet of five ships and barks. The admiral was the *Delight*, of one hundred and twenty tons, of which Sir Humphrey himself took the command, appointing William Winter, a part-owner, captain, and Richard Clarke, master; the second was the *Raleigh*, vice-admiral, of two hundred tons, fitted out and commanded by Sir Walter Raleigh, Sir Humphrey's brother by his mother's side, having under him Captain Butler, and Robert Davis, of Bristol, master; the others were the *Golden Hind*, of forty tons, Edward Hayes, owner and captain, and William Cox, of Limehouse, master; the *Swallow*, of forty tons, Maurice Brown, captain; and,

the *Squirrel*, of ten tons, William Andrews, captain, and Robert Cade, master. The number of men on board the whole fleet amounted to two hundred and sixty, including several shipwrights, masons, carpenters, smiths, miners, and refiners.

It had been resolved by the proprietors that this fleet should take a northerly course, and follow with all possible exactitude the trade-way to Newfoundland, from whence, having taken in a proper supply of necessaries, it was to sail towards the south and enter every bay or river which might appear deserving of notice. The proprietors drew up the orders to be observed during the voyage, and delivered copies of them to all the captains and masters of the vessels.

On the 11th of June, 1583, the fleet sailed from Cawsand Bay, near Plymouth, and on the 13th Sir Walter Raleigh was obliged to put back to Plymouth in consequence of an infectious distemper which had seized his captain and several of his crew. The Golden Hind then became vice-admiral, and the fleet proceeded on the voyage. On the 30th of July they first discovered land, but imperfectly on account of an intense fog. Finding nothing but bare rocks they shaped their course to the south-east, and arrived, at length, at Penguin

Island north, now Fogo, where they took in a good stock of fowls or sea birds. After this, they reached the island of Baccalao, in the mouth of Conception Bay, and entered into that bay where they found the Swallow which they had lost in the fog. Then proceeding further to the southward, they made the bay of Saint John's, where they found the Squirrel, which had been refused admittance into that harbour by vessels of different nations which were within. These, according to Hakluyt, amounted to thirty-six sail, and according to Doctor Forster (p. 292), to four hundred, of which he says further (p. 461,) that fifty were Portuguese, of at least three thousand tons burthen. Sir Humphrey prepared to obtain a passage for his ships into that harbour by force, but, previous to his adopting this measure, he sent some of his officers to inform the people within the harbour, that he was empowered by the Queen of England to take formal possession of the place in her name; and that, if he met with the least resistance, he should instantly employ the means in his power to carry her majesty's commands into execution. The answer which he received from them was, that their intentions were peaceable, that they had only waited to be fully apprized of the object of his expedition, and that in token of their

respect they would cheerfully intrust him with a discretionary power of laying a tax on their provisions, in order to supply the necessities of his fleet. The ships then entered into the harbour; and, the next day, Sir Humphrey and his associates were conducted on shore by the owners and masters of the English vessels.

On the 5th of August, Sir Humphrey, having ordered a tent to be erected within sight of all the ships, summoned the English and foreign merchants to attend, and in their presence he caused the commission under the great seal of England to be publicly read, and afterwards to be explained to the foreigners who were not conversant with the English language. He then informed the assembly that, under the royal authority, he stood possessed of the harbour of Saint John's and all the adjacent land within the circumference of two hundred leagues; that thenceforward the witnesses of this transaction, and, through their information, all persons whatsoever, must consider these territories as belonging to the Sovereign of England, and acknowledge that he, the General of Queen Elizabeth, was empowered by royal licence to possess and enjoy them, and likewise to enact laws for the government thereof, as conformable to the laws of England as the nature of circumstances would admit; under

which regulations it was expected that all adventurers who might arrive at future times, either to dwell within the place, or to maintain a traffic with the inhabitants, should quietly submit to be governed. The customary ceremony of delivering a rod and a turf from the soil to the new proprietor was then performed in the presence of the assembly.

Sir Humphrey, having thus taken possession, proceeded to the exercise of his legislative authority by publishing some regulations concerning the public exercise of religion and the civil government of the place, to which the whole assembly promised obedience. The meeting was then dissolved; and, on the same spot, the general erected a wooden pillar, to which the arms of England engraved on lead were affixed. He then granted several parcels of land, the tenants being under covenant to pay a certain rent and service to Sir Humphrey, his heirs, and assigns, for ever, and yearly to maintain possession of the lands by themselves or their assigns; and having done this, he next issued orders for the collection of the tax on provisions from the ships and vessels in the harbour of Saint John's and on the adjoining coast. Doctor Forster says, that on this occasion the General received also valuable presents from all the captains of the ships that lay off that island.

While some of the English were engaged in this service, and others in repairing the vessels, Sir Humphrey sent several parties to explore the coast and to make excursions through the country, in order to inquire into the different productions of the island. The result of their observations was that the southern parts seemed destitute of inhabitants, a circumstance, says Hakluyt, which probably was owing to the frequent appearance of the Europeans, whose presence might have intimidated the natives, and induced them to retire into the interior. Towards the north they had met with some of them who had approached without dread, and appeared to be of gentle dispositions. The country was generally very hot in summer, and extremely cold in winter. The sea abounded so much in cod-fish that there were but very few instances equal to it elsewhere; they had also observed near the coast bonitos, turbots, large lobsters, and a large kind of herrings; whales were likewise found in great numbers, for which fishery alone Biscay used to send twenty or thirty vessels every year. In the bays and rivers there were salmons and trouts in great abundance. Wood grew with the greatest luxuriance over the whole country; game of every description was very common, and they could easily procure hides and furs of

all sorts. They also represented the soil as very fertile, and thought that by cultivation it would not be difficult to obtain hemp, flax, and corn. But what was calculated still more particularly to attract the attention of Sir Humphrey and his associates, was the report of the discovery of mines of iron, lead, copper, and silver, by the party sent for the special purpose of searching for metals on the coast to the northward of Saint John's. One Daniel, a native of Saxony, who is represented as an honest and religious man, and a very expert miner and assayer, brought to the General a kind of ore, of which he said that he would stake his life that it contained a considerable quantity of silver. Captain Hayes, of the Golden Hind, appearing to doubt the quality and value of the ore, and requesting that he might be allowed to have part of it: "Content yourself," answered the too sanguine Sir Humphrey, "I have seen enough; and were it not improper to satisfy my own humour, I would proceed no farther. The engagements which I am under to my friends, and the necessity of bringing the southern countries also within the compass of my patent, which is nearly expired, alone prevail upon me to continue the voyage. As for the ore, I have sent it on board, and desire that no farther mention be made of it so long as we shall re-

main in the harbour, there being Portuguese, Biscayans, and French, not far off, from whom this discovery must be kept a secret. When we are at sea an assay shall be made of it, and then, if we think proper, we may return the sooner hither."

At this time, while his faithful companions were endeavouring to accelerate the preparations for the continuation of the voyage, a party had conspired to prevent it by seizing the vessels and the officers during the absence of Sir Humphrey in the night, after which they intended to proceed directly for England. This conspiracy was discovered in time to prevent its execution; but some of the refractory crews still succeeded in their attempts to abandon the General. A vessel freighted with fish in one of the adjoining bays was seized upon by some of them, who compelled her crew to retire to the shore, whilst numbers, concealing themselves in the woods, watched for opportunities to escape in the ships which daily departed from the coast; others fell sick of fluxes and other violent disorders, of which several died, and the rest were permitted to return to England on board the Swallow, under Captain William Winter, with such a supply of provisions as could be spared from the common stock.

The three remaining vessels being completely fitted for the intended voyage, the General hoisted his flag on board the Squirrel, a light and expeditious sailer, and the best constructed for the purpose of entering creeks and small harbours; he gave the command of the Delight to Captain Maurice Brown, and the Golden Hind to Captain Edward Hayes. On the 20th of August they sailed from the harbour of Saint John's, which they found by observation to be in forty-seven degrees forty minutes north latitude. In the following night they made Cape Race, distant twenty-five leagues, and from thence nearly eighty-seven leagues towards Cape Breton.

On the 27th, in the latitude of forty-five degrees, Sir Humphrey gave orders to sound, and at the depth of thirty fathom they found white sand; in the succeeding afternoon the wind veered to the southward, when, in opposition to the advice of William Cox, master of the Golden Hind, the ships bore in with the land during the whole night at west-north-west. The next day it blew a violent storm at south and by east; the rain descended in torrents, and the fogs were so extremely thick that no object could be distinguished at a cable's length. Towards day-break, on the 29th, they were alarmed by the appearance of surrounding

sands and shoals, and, at every third or fourth ship's length, observed the water lessening in its depth. A signal was thrown out for the Delight to stand off to sea, but at that very instant she struck, and soon after her stern and quarters were dashed to pieces. The Squirrel and the Golden Hind immediately casting about east-south-east, and bearing to the south, with much difficulty got clear of the shoals and regained the open sea.

In the Delight perished Captain Maurice Brown and about a hundred of his associates, who, with a resolution that bordered upon madness, refused to set what they thought a bad example by deserting the ship, although they must have been convinced that it was impossible to save her. Fourteen of her crew leaped into a small pinnace and remained a short time alongside their ship, in the hope of being joined by their captain, but in vain. Having, at last, prevailed upon Richard Clarke, the master, and one of his companions, to join them, they cut the rope and ventured out to sea, furnished only with a single oar, and destitute of fresh water and provisions.

As the pinnace appeared to be much overladen, Edward Headly proposed the casting of lots, so that four of them might be thrown overboard. Clarke, whom it had been unanimously

agreed to except from this measure, availing himself of the affectionate regard with which he was considered by his companions, strenuously endeavoured, and at last succeeded, in persuading them rather to bear their present calamitous condition with Christian fortitude.

The pinnace was driven before the wind during six days and nights, while these men were reduced to feed upon some weeds which they picked up on the surface of the sea. Sinking under the sufferings of thirst, hunger, intense cold, and constant fatigue, Headly and another man expired on the fifth day; and, on the seventh, the remaining fourteen were fortunately driven towards the coast of Newfoundland, where they obtained a passage in a French vessel, and at last arrived safely in England. To the regular continuance of the wind at south during the time of their passage may be attributed the preservation of their lives; for, had it shifted to any other quarter, they could not possibly have made the land; and what is remarkable, within *half an hour* after they had reached the shore, the wind changed full north.

This melancholy fate of the Delight was a most distressing event to Sir Humphrey, who had to lament, not only the loss of such a number of men of tried fidelity and the destruction

of a valuable ship, but also the loss of his Saxon miner with the supposed silver ore which he had procured at Newfoundland. So confident was he of the value of this ore, that he had boasted to his friends, that, on the credit of the mine, he did not doubt of obtaining from Queen Elizabeth the loan of ten thousand pounds, to defray the expenses of another similar enterprise.

From this time the crews of the two remaining ships became intimidated, and expressed their apprehensions lest, their store-ship being now lost, they should be exposed to the inclemency of the approaching winter, together with the want of provisions and raiment. Sir Humphrey, in consequence of these representations, resolved to return to England; and, on the captain and master of the Golden Hind offering some arguments to induce him not to adopt this resolution: "Be content," said he to them, "we have seen enough; take no thought of the expenses which we have incurred. If the Almighty should permit us to reach England in safety, I will set you out royally in the course of the next spring; therefore I pray you, let us no longer strive here where we fight against the elements."

On the first of September the vessels changed

their course and steered for England, and on the second they passed in sight of Cape Race. Some days afterwards Sir Humphrey went on board of the Golden Hind, in order to have his foot dressed for a wound received by accidentally treading upon a nail. The wind was violent, and the ocean so extremely agitated, that Captain Hayes and the whole of his associates and crew, who every moment expected that the Squirrel would be swallowed up, earnestly entreated Sir Humphrey to remain on board their vessel. He, however, instantly departed, declaring that no consideration should induce him to quit the vessel and the brave associates with whom he had encountered so many dangers. On the ninth of September the *Squirrel sunk*, and was seen no more. In the course of the preceding evening Sir Humphrey had been observed unmoved in the stern of his ship with a book in his hands. Some *philosophical* historians adduce this as an instance of his ardent love of knowledge, which did not forsake him even in the extremity of danger; while others suppose the book which he had then in his hands to have been one of a religious kind; and this supposition seems to agree much better than the former, with the words which he was at the same time frequently

heard to repeat with a loud voice: "Courage, my lads, we are as near heaven at sea as we are on land."

Such was the fate of Sir Humphrey Gilbert, "than whom," say the authors of the Biographia Nautica, "few persons in that era were more distinguished by exalted understanding and undaunted resolution. He was in a manner the parent of all our plantations, being the first who introduced a legal and regular mode of settling, without which such undertakings must necessarily prove unsuccessful. His treatise concerning the north-west passage* was the ground of all the expectations which the most enlightened seamen had formed during many years of actually finding such a tract to the East Indies; and even now we find that many of his conjectures are true, and that all of them are founded on reason and the philosophy which was commonly received at that period."

The Golden Hind arrived safely at Falmouth on the 22d of September, and, more fortunate than the rest of the fleet, brought home her whole crew, excepting only one mariner. Of the fate of the Swallow we have no account.

The melancholy issue of this expedition did

* Published in the year 1576.

not deter the celebrated Sir Walter Raleigh, Sir Humphrey's brother, from engaging in a similar enterprise. Having, in the year 1584, obtained from Queen Elizabeth a patent of the same nature as his unfortunate relative's, he fitted out two ships and sailed for North America, to which he gave the name of Virginia in honour of the Queen, a title which continued to be applied to the British settlements in that part of the world, the original name of Newfoundland being then confined to the island now so called.

The year following, war having been declared between England and Spain, Sir Francis Drake was sent with a squadron to the Island of Newfoundland, where he took several Portuguese vessels freighted with fish and oil, and returned to England with his prizes. Doctor Forster, on this occasion, gives another strong instance of that inconsistency which lessens the value of his work. Anxious to prove the priority of right which, in his opinion, the Spaniards, Portuguese, and French have to fish at Newfoundland, he says, "this taking possession of that island, on the part of the crown of England, is the foundation of the rights which this nation has to the fishery carried on by her subjects in those seas." And yet, only two pages before, viz. p. 295, he had

said that "the Portuguese, Biscayans, French, and other nations, had *usurped* this fishery on the coast of a country which the crown of England had discovered at its own expense."

The next voyage to that island, recorded by the historians of those times, was performed by Richard Strang, of Apsham, and is remarkable, as it appears to have been the first expedition expressly sent for a purpose distinct from the cod-fishery, and more similar to what is now called the seal-fishery. Strang sailed from Falmouth on the 1st of June, 1593, with two ships, namely, the Marygold, of seventy tons, and another ship belonging to George Drake, both of London, and having on board several butchers and coopers. Their destination was to the island of Ramea, then called by the natives of the adjoining continent Menquit, within the straits of Saint Peter's, on the back of Newfoundland to the south-west. On the shores of this island, particularly in April, May, and June, there were, in Hakluyt's time, multitudes of amphibious creatures called vaccæ marinæ, or morses, with two large teeth resembling ivory, which, as well as their oil, were then considered as valuable articles of commerce. The proper season for catching these animals was almost expired before the

departure of the ships from England which had separated during the voyage, and did not join again. The vessel commanded by Captain Drake having reached Newfoundland, proceeded directly to Ramea, where a ship from Saint Maloes was lying at anchor, almost full freighted with morses. On the approach of the English, she slipped her cables and stood out to sea, leaving behind three shallops and twenty-two men.

On the 11th of July the Marygold made Cape Saint Francis at the entrance of Conception-Bay; thence proceeded to the bay then called Rogneuse, (Renowes,) doubled Cape Razo, (Race,) and sailed towards the bay of Saint Peter's; but as the crew were at a loss what course to steer, she lost her way, and at length fell in with Cape Breton, where they went on shore and saw several of the natives. They next bore away to the south-west, and at the distance of nearly sixty leagues from that Cape, observed great numbers of seals and porpoises, several of which they killed; they saw likewise several whales of an enormous size. After having hovered near the coast of Arembec, (Nova Scotia,) for the space of eleven weeks from the time of their arrival at Cape Saint Francis, the captain of the Marygold yielded to the persuasions of the master and

his associates and returned to England by the Azores.

The year following Captain Rice Jones sailed from Bristol for the gulf of Saint Lawrence, with a bark of *thirty-five* tons, so familiar were then the people of Bristol with this navigation. On the 19th of May he fell in with Cape Spear, then called d'Espere, on the coast of Newfoundland, and proceeded to the islands of San Piedro, or Saint Peter's, where, laying his vessel upon the lee, the crew in less than two hours catched with their hooks three hundred cods which served them for provisions. They found in the bay of Saint George the wrecks of two Biscayan ships, out of which they took seven hundred whale fins; they then returned to the bay of Placentia, and were employed with great success in catching cod. They arrived at Bristol on the 24th of September.

Three years afterwards, exactly one hundred years from the discovery of that island by John Cabot, Charles Leigh and Abraham Van Herwick, merchants of London, equipped two *armed* ships, a practice which, from the relation of this voyage, appears at that time to have been adopted by the French merchants in Newfoundland. These ships were the Hopewell, of one hundred and twenty tons, commanded by Captain William Grafton, and the

Chancewell, of seventy tons, commanded by Captain Stephen Bennet. With these Charles Leigh and Van Herwick's brother sailed as directors of the voyage. On the 8th of April, 1597, they left Gravesend; on the 18th of May they reached the bank of Newfoundland; and on the 20th they came into Conception-Bay. Having caught a considerable quantity of cod-fish at different places on that coast, the Hope-well arrived on the 18th of June at the island of Ramea, where she found two vessels from Saint Maloes and two from Sibiburo, with all of which she was engaged, at first with some prospect of advantage; but, at the close of the action, overpowered by their superior force, she retreated from the island, after having lost her pinnace, together with a cable and anchor.

The Chancewell, which had been separated from the Hopewell, was unfortunately wrecked upon the main of Cape Breton on the 23d of June. Eight of the mariners, whom the French had plundered even of their shirts, put to sea in their shallop, and came up with the Hope-well in her return from Ramea. They were no sooner received on board, than Captain Grafton sailed towards the road where the Chancewell had been lost, in order to secure the wreck and take in the remainder of the crew. On the passage, the Hopewell intercepted a large

Biscayan ship of three hundred tons, the crew of which had been concerned in plundering the crew of the Chancewell; and, partly by threats, and partly by mild persuasion, Captain Grafton prevailed upon them to restore a considerable portion of the plunder. On the 18th of July, as the master and sixteen men were cruising in their boat, they attacked and took a Spanish ship which they were towing to the Hopewell, when, in their turn, they were attacked by some barks from Saint Juan de Luz, and after an obstinate resistance they were obliged to give up their prize. On the 25th, being in the harbour of Cape Saint Mary, they there engaged a ship belonging to Bellisle, of two hundred tons and forty men, and took her after a long and sharp action. Mr. Leigh, having despatched the Hopewell to the Azores, proceeded in his prize on his return to England, and in the beginning of September arrived at Gravesend with a valuable cargo of fish and oil.

Henry the Fourth was then on the throne of France; the advantages which might be expected from settling colonies in North America could not escape the penetration of his minister Sully, and the commission, which had been granted by Francis the First to Roberval, was renewed in favour of the Marquis de la Roche, of Brittany, who was appointed the French

king's lieutenant-general in Canada, Hochelaga, Newfoundland, Labrador, and the Bay and River of Saint Lawrence.

De la Roche sailed from France in the year 1598, with forty criminals taken out of different prisons in France. On his arrival at the Isle of Sables, he landed there these men, and then stood away for the Coast of Acadia, now Nova Scotia. After having cruised thereabout for some time, he returned to France without these men, was ill received at Court, and soon after died of a broken heart. Henry sent a ship to bring the poor wretches from the miserable island where they had been left, and where, out of forty, only seven were found alive, who, on their return to France, received from the king a general pardon, and fifty crowns each.

On the death of La Roche, his patent was transferred to Chauvin, who made two voyages in the years 1600 and 1601 to Canada, from both of which he returned with a most valuable cargo of furs. The French merchants then began to understand the value of the Canadian trade; a considerable company was soon after formed for that purpose, the success of which was at first equal to the activity and perseverance with which they carried on their operations. But the injudicious policy adopted

by Samuel Champlain, the founder of Quebec, in taking a part in the quarrels of neighbouring Indian tribes, and supplying them with fire-arms, paved the way to those sanguinary struggles and ferocious mode of warfare, which never ceased to endanger the peace and safety of all the European settlements in North America, until the French were completely excluded from that continent. Quebec, founded in the year 1608, upon the borders of the river Saint Lawrence, became the origin, centre, and capital of New France, or Canada.

The reverend, enlightened, and indefatigable Hakluyt,* though a private clergyman, has immortalized his name by his exertions to encourage and direct the spirit of discovery at this period. Under his auspices an association was formed of men of rank and talents, for the purpose of establishing colonies in North America; and on the 10th of April, 1606, a patent was granted to them by King James the First, which led to the first permanent settlement founded at James Town, at the mouth of the river in Chesapeak-bay, in the year 1607, and firmly consolidated by Lord Delawar, in the month of June, 1610.

The year 1606 was likewise remarkable for

* He was then Prebendary of the Cathedral of Bristol.

a renewal of the attempt to discover a north-west passage by the Muscovy Company in England, who fitted out a bark of forty tons, under the command of Captain John Knight. On their arrival on the coast of Labrador, Knight and some of his associates having ventured on shore, were attacked and massacred by the savages; the rest of the crew, at a time when their vessel had sprung a leak and unshipped her rudder, were surrounded by upwards of fifty Indians whom they gallantly repelled; and, having repaired the damages, they proceeded to Newfoundland, where, Hakluyt says, they obtained from the *inhabitants* a plentiful supply of provisions and other necessaries. On the 20th of September they arrived at Dartmouth. Newfoundland was also visited three years afterwards by the celebrated Henry Hudson in his third voyage, as well as the coast of Labrador, to which he then gave the name of Magna Britannia.

At this time the island of Newfoundland appears to have engaged the public attention in England in a considerable degree. John Guy, a merchant, and afterwards mayor of Bristol, published, in the year 1609, a treatise on the advantages which would result to England from the establishment of a colony in that island; this treatise produced such an effect on

the public mind that a company was soon after formed, consisting of the Earl of Southampton, Lord-Keeper; Sir Laurence Tanfield, Lord-Chief-Baron; Sir John Dodderidge, King's Serjeant; Sir Francis Bacon, the celebrated father of true philosophy, then Solicitor-General, afterwards High-Chancellor and Lord Verulam; Sir Daniel Donn, Sir Walter Cope, Sir Percival Willoughby, Sir John Constable, John Weld, Esq. and several other persons of distinction and respectability. To this company King James, by letters patent, dated the 27th of April, 1610, made a grant of all the part of Newfoundland from Cape Bonavista in the north to Cape Saint Mary in the south of Saint John's. A colony was sent to that island under the direction of Mr. John Guy, who was appointed governor of the same.

After a voyage of twenty days, Guy arrived and landed near Conception-harbour, now Harbour-grace, in a cove since called Musquito, in Conception-bay. Here huts were immediately constructed to serve as habitations during their stay, and Guy behaved towards the natives with so much prudence and kindness, that he apparently gained their friendship, and was permitted without interruption to carry those measures into execution which were the most likely to insure success to the undertaking.

We are not informed from what cause the disappointment which followed arose, notwithstanding these favourable circumstances, but Guy and his associates soon after returned to England.

Four years afterwards Captain Whitburn, who, since the year 1591, had been successively employed in the *Bank-fishery* by Messrs. Cotton and Crook, merchants of Southampton, was sent to Newfoundland with a commission from the Admiralty, authorizing him to impannel juries, and to inquire upon oath of divers abuses and disorders committed among those who carried on the fishery on that coast. The authors of the Universal History very properly conclude from this circumstance that the trade was then confined to the English; for the Admiralty would hardly have taken upon themselves the cognizance of crimes and abuses committed by the subjects of another prince. By virtue of this commission, Captain Whitburn held a court of admiralty immediately on his arrival, and received the complaints of *one hundred and seventy* masters of *English* vessels, of injuries committed in trade and navigation; a proof of the flourishing state of the English cod-fishery, even at this early period.

It has already been observed that, by the new arrangement made by Queen Elizabeth, in

the year 1582, Sir Thomas Hampshire was authorized to secure to every master-fisherman the property of that portion of the coast which he fixed upon for the actual purpose of the fishery carried on by himself. By this measure, and by the grants afterwards made by Sir Humphrey Gilbert, a kind of property was introduced which gave confidence and security to the parties concerned in that fishery, and created a considerable degree of emulation among the adventurers at home. The expeditions to Newfoundland multiplied so rapidly, that, in the year 1615, upwards of two hundred and fifty English vessels, carrying altogether more than fifteen thousand tons, were employed on those coasts. Fixed habitations were formed, which gradually extended on the eastern side from Saint John's and Thorne-bay, or Torbay, to Cape Race. The inhabitants, compelled by the nature of their employment, and the irregularities of the ground, to live at a distance from each other, opened paths of communication through the woods; their general rendezvous was at Saint John's, where, in an excellent harbour formed between two steep mountains at a small distance from each other, they met the vessels from the mother-country, which supplied them with every necessary article in exchange for the produce of the fishery.

In the year 1615, Doctor Vaughan purchased from the patentees a part of the country included in their grant, and settled a small colony at *Cambriol*, on the southern part of the island, of which he appointed Whitburn Governor. He soon after proceeded himself to Newfoundland, and is said to have made Ferry-Land the seat of the muses. It does not appear, however, that he continued long there, or derived any permanent advantage from this undertaking. In the year 1623, Sir George Calvert, then one of the principal Secretaries of State, having obtained a patent for him and his heirs to be absolute lord and proprietor, with the royalties of a county palatine, of the peninsula formed by the bays of Placentia and of Trinity, erected the same into a province, to which he gave the name of *Avalon*. This was the name of a place in Somersetshire where Glastonbury now stands, the first fruits of Christianity in Britain, as Sir George intended his new province to be in that part of America. A considerable colony, composed chiefly of puritans, accompanied to Newfoundland Captain Edward Wynne, whom Sir George had sent with the commission of Governor, to prepare every thing necessary for his reception; while he employed, in the mean time, his interest and his fortune in securing the success of his enterprise,

in which he is said to have laid out two thousand five hundred pounds sterling. Captain Wynne, on his arrival, settled himself at Ferryland, where he built the largest house ever yet seen on the island, erected granaries and storehouses, and accommodated his people in the best manner possible; while he likewise endeavoured to establish an intercourse and trade with the natives. The following year he received a reinforcement of colonists, and a considerable supply of stores and implements; and soon after the colony was in so flourishing a state that, on the 17th of August, he wrote to Sir George: "We have wheat, barley, oats, and beans, eared and codded; and though the late sowing of them, in May or the beginning of June, might occasion the contrary, yet they ripen so fast, that we have all the appearance of an approaching plentiful harvest." In the same strain he speaks of his garden, which flourished with all kinds of culinary vegetables. Captain Powell, who commanded the ship in which the new colonists had been carried to Avalon, confirmed this account by a similar letter, in which he expatiated on the excellence of the soil and pasture, the commodious situation and state of the Governor's house, the quantity of pasture and arable ground cleared since their arrival, and the numerous herds of

cattle which they had already collected and reared.

These flattering accounts of the fertility of the soil, and of the expectation of a plentiful harvest, in an island which has always depended upon other countries for bread and other articles of first necessity, have subjected Governor Wynne and Captain Powell to the imputation of *wilful* misrepresentation. It may, however, be observed, that the state of the climate and of vegetation there, during the months of July and August, is generally such as to have fully justified those expectations. Vegetation is surprisingly luxuriant and rapid during the summer season; but this favourable state of the weather is not of sufficient duration to bring wheat, barley, and oats to perfect maturity.

We are farther informed, that a salt-work was erected, at Ferryland, by Captain Wynne, and completed by Mr. Rickson; and so delighted was the proprietor, now created Lord Baltimore, with the flourishing state of the colony, that he removed thither with his family, built a handsome and spacious house and a strong fort at Ferryland, where Cæcilius, his son, resided several years.

In the mean time, the plantations in Newfoundland received a considerable accession

from a colony sent from Ireland by Lord Faulkland, then Lord Lieutenant of that kingdom; but they soon after sustained more than an equivalent loss by the departure of Cæcilius, second Lord Baltimore. The French Admiral de l'Arade, with three men of war, had reduced the English fishermen there to great extremities: Lord Baltimore, with two ships, manned at his own expense, drove away the French, took sixty of them prisoners, and thus relieved Newfoundland. Finding, however, that his plantation was much exposed to the insults of the French, he returned to England in the year 1632. He then obtained from Charles the First the grant of a part of the continent of North America, to which, in the letters patent, the King gave the name of Maryland, in honour of his Queen Mary. Lord Baltimore, nevertheless, still kept possession of his settlement at Ferryland, which he governed by his deputies.

CHAPTER V.

1633—1702.

We are now entering upon a new and important era of the history of Newfoundland, as it is of the history of all the British settlements in North America in general; an era which strongly evidences the abilities and zeal of Charles the First to appreciate and to promote the national interests of England.

At this period the colonization of Virginia was completed; New England was in a flourishing state; Lord Baltimore, a Roman Catholic, was laying the foundation of the future prosperity of Maryland on the broad basis of security to property and of freedom in religion; and his colony appeared disposed to adhere, and *actually* did adhere, strictly to these professed principles. By a proclamation, dated at Whitehall, 24th November, 1630, King Charles had expressly prohibited the *disorderly* trading with the *Savages* of America, especially "the furnishing them with weapons and other habiliments of war." In this proclamation re-

ference is made to another issued in the reign of King James, for preventing the insufferable abuses committed by divers interlopers, irregular merchants, and disobedient fishermen and mariners, who, to the great prejudice and danger of the planters, bartered away to the savages of that country arms, powder, shot, and other things, with which they destroyed the English, who sold those weapons to them; an abuse which, introduced by Champlain, was probably afterwards adopted by the English settlers, on the principle of self-defence. Another proclamation was issued, dated at Greenwich, 24th May, 1631, "for the better ordering of fishing upon the coasts of his Majesty's dominions." A commission, dated 8th December, 1630, had been directed to the Lord-Treasurer and others, to erect a common fishery as a *nursery for seamen;* and, in the year 1633, King Charles issued another commission, "for the well governing of his subjects *inhabiting in Newfoundland*, or trafficking in bays, creeks, or fresh rivers there."

This document, a copy of which will be found in the Appendix, is of considerable interest, as this is the first attempt to establish in that island effectual restraints and rules for the protection of persons and of property, and for

the excellent naval laws and ordinances which have of late been established in that kingdom for the regulation of all maritime affairs, in which their summary and easy method of proceeding has been found to be very beneficial to all who have had occasion to be concerned in it; for the government finding that the only means to have a powerful navy was to encourage trade and navigation among private persons, nothing was omitted that could in any manner tend to that object. Having consulted all the laws and statutes in force in every part of Europe on naval affairs, retrenching what was superfluous or inconvenient, and supplying what was deficient with proper regulations for every subject, they have certainly compiled the most accomplished system of laws for trade and navigation that Europe ever saw: and, whether we consider the strength of the French navy, their surprising success in navigation, to which but in our fathers' time they were almost absolute strangers, the number of their merchants' ships and mariners, or the present state of their foreign plantations, the good effects of the means which they have used to encourage navigation will be obvious. Upon an exact survey of their trade, we shall find that five or six particular towns in France have now more ships belonging to them, than, I be-

lieve, the whole kingdom could have mustered not many years ago. Bourdeaux, Rochelle, Nantes, Saint Maloes, Havre de Grace, Dieppe, and some other towns in Brittany and Normandy, send every year a good number of ships to the fishings of Newfoundland, which is a very beneficial trade, employing a great many men and ships, besides those that go thither."

The laws to which this writer alludes are contained in an "Ordinance of Lewis the Fourteenth concerning the marine, given at Fontainbleau, in the month of August, 1681," of which an extract is inserted in the Appendix.

The rapid increase of the French commerce and navy from this time soon excited the surprise and alarm of all the naval powers of Europe. When King William was called to the throne of England, Lewis had long rendered himself the terror and scourge of the Continent. A confederacy was then formed against him by the Emperor of Germany and the States-General; and the Commons of England unanimously resolved that, if a war should break out with France, they would enable the King to prosecute it with vigour. This event took place soon after, and it is a remarkable circumstance that, in the English

declaration of war, the *first* grievance stated as one of the causes of this measure is, " that it was not long since the French took licenses from the governor of Newfoundland to fish upon that coast, and paid a tribute for such licenses, as an acknowledgment of the sole right of the crown of England to that island; but, of late, the encroachments of the French upon that island and his Majesty's subjects, trade, and fishery there, had been more like the invasions of an enemy than becoming friends, who enjoyed the advantages of that trade only by permission."

The history of this war does not, however, furnish any remarkable event particularly connected with Newfoundland, except an unsuccessful attempt mentioned in Doctor Wynne's History of America, which proves that the French were, at that time, in greater force there than was known by our government at home. He says that, on the 14th of September, 1692, the French governor of Placentia, having received advice that a squadron was at anchor within five miles of that place, Baron La Houtan was despatched with about sixty men to post himself where the English were most likely to land. On the 17th, Commodore Williams summoned the governor to surrender that place, and every other that the French had

in that bay. This the governor refused in resolute terms, and immediately ordered a boom to be thrown across the harbour. The following day, the English squadron found that they had no less than three forts to attack; they began a brisk cannonade, but towards the evening of the 19th they drew off, and the expedition ended in falling upon Point Vesti, which they set on fire.

This affair, says our author, excited great surprise; it was difficult to account for the rashness of the Commodore in attempting a place with the strength of which he was not acquainted; the precipitancy of the retreat of the English was also made a subject of blame, it being said that the French were reduced to their last charge of powder, and forced even to return the balls which they picked up during the engagement. Some have supposed, that a kind of mutiny in the squadron obliged the commanders to give over their enterprise; others have attributed this failure to their ill conduct, of which, it is said, they gave many glaring instances.

It is more reasonable to attribute this failure to the superior strength of the French in that quarter. For, while the attention of King William was entirely confined to the continental interests, France, which had long before

made North America an object of attention, was now taking measures in order to obtain possession of the whole of it. The English occupied, at that time, the sea coast, the harbours, and the mouths and banks of the rivers, extending in a few instances as far as a hundred, or at most one hundred and fifty miles into the country. The French had made settlements on the Mississipi and the Saint Lawrence, forming a line almost parallel to the sea coast. Here surely was an extent of territory sufficient for the emigrants of both nations, had they been in numbers infinitely greater than they actually were, and had they attended solely to the avowed purposes of those emigrations, the planting and settling those uncultivated wastes and forests; it must have been long before their interests could possibly have interfered with each other. But several causes contributed to feed there that hostile disposition, which, ever since the days of Edward the Third, had subsisted between the two nations, and to occasion the commission of open acts of violence in the new continent, when their respective States were at peace in the old world. The immensity of those territories naturally prevented any boundaries being properly adjusted in the first instance; and when once disputes had begun

upon this point, and national honour or private interest came to be, or were thought to be, concerned, it became impracticable ever after. The indefinite and extravagant charters, or grants of land, made by the powers of both kingdoms to their respective subjects, necessarily induced both to look upon each other as mutual encroachers. It is further to be observed that, whilst the English colonists assiduously attended to their natural employment, namely, agriculture and a certain degree of commerce, the French, who, at that time, paid little attention to commerce, and who looked upon agriculture only as a secondary consideration, appear to have had no other object in the new world than conquest and extension of territory. Instead of mercantile factories, they confined themselves to the erection of military forts at the back of the English settlements, from Quebec to New Orleans. At the conclusion of each war, the points in dispute respecting boundaries were left to be settled by the uncertain and endless proceedings of Commissaries. Animosities and encroachments, in the mean time, continued to the same extent, until it became evident that the only event which could be expected to put an end to that perpetual state of warfare, was the absolute exclusion of one of

the contending Powers from that part of the world. The immense distance of the scene of those transactions from Europe prevented the respective governments from obtaining correct information, and from keeping the private passions of their people under the necessary controul; nor could France, for the same reason, check the restless, ambitious, and arbitrary conduct of her Commandants and Governors in America, who, at last, actually boasted, as the result of their able and patriotic exertions, that they would soon be able "to drive the English colonists into the sea." Such views must have been highly gratifying to the French nation at large; and thus the French ministry were, in some measure, compelled to second them by adequate encouragement and assistance from the mother-country.

Newfoundland was too valuable to be overlooked in these extensive views, both as a fishery and as a naval and military station: its entire conquest had always been one of the most favourite objects with the French people, whom the destruction of a few inconsiderable fishing settlements, enlarged into a most important and brilliant achievement, had frequently seemed to console under the failure of enterprises of much greater consequence, or under signal defeats nearer home. It was in

pursuance of these views that, in the year 1696, the Chevalier Nesmond was ordered, with ten ships, to join the Rocheford squadron, to proceed to Newfoundland, and, having driven the English from that island, to go to Boston, which he was to attack, and afterwards to destroy all the English settlements between that town and Piscataqua. Nesmond did not arrive at Placentia till towards the latter end of July, when it was resolved, in a council of war, to make a descent upon the harbour and town of Saint John's, which contained, at that time, thirty-four English ships and vessels: but Nesmond failed in this attempt, and was obliged to return to France.

In the mean time another squadron, commanded by Ibberville and Bonaventure, arrived at Placentia, on the 24th of September. Brouillan had before set sail with eight ships from Saint Maloes, with orders to attack the town of Saint John's; but, a misunderstanding having arisen between him and the men of Saint Maloes, he was obliged to give up the attempt; and, having taken Fort Forillon, the commander and garrison of which he made prisoners, he returned to Placentia. There he had some differences with Ibberville, whose Canadians, refusing to obey any other orders

than those of that officer, threatened to return to Quebec. It was, however, at length agreed, that they should proceed in separate bodies to the attack of Saint John's, which they found an easier conquest than they had expected; for the fortress was but weakly defended, and the garrison equally in want of military stores and of provisions. Fresh disputes arising among the victors, concerning the mode of securing their conquest, it was finally determined to abandon it, after setting fire to the fort and to the town, while two ships were allowed for carrying the garrison to England.

Brouillan then returned to Placentia, whilst Ibberville pursued his successes with his Canadians, by entering the bay of Bulls, attacking and destroying an English frigate, commanded by Captain Cleasby, who made a glorious defence, and, by demolishing all the settlements, except those of Bonavista, and Carbonier-Harbour in Conception-Bay, which proved too strong for them. After this he likewise returned to Placentia, where he waited a considerable time, but in vain, for reinforcements from France; and thus this enterprise terminated.

The next year, a squadron, under Admiral Nevil, with fifteen hundred land-forces, commanded by Sir John Gibson, was sent to re-

venge and retrieve the late losses. It is said, by the authors of the Universal History,* that the ignorance of one of these officers and the cowardice of the other rendered the expedition fruitless; that Nevil, with a superior force, declined engaging the French Admiral Ponti; and, pretending to have lost time in a fog, returned to England, without either recovering any of the settlements that had been lost, or securing those that remained. It is not unreasonable to suppose that, if this representation of the transaction were founded in truth, the conduct of these officers would have been subjected to public inquiry, and we should have more satisfactory proofs than a mere allegation. This would not be the only instance to be found in the history of that part of America, where a fleet, dispersed and becalmed in the impenetrable fogs which frequently cover the Banks of Newfoundland, had been detained there so long as to be at last compelled to retire from a coast at all times dangerous, and still more so during and after the equinoctial gales. The peace of Rhyswick, accelerated by the sudden resolution of the Commons, that all the land-forces, raised since the 29th of September, 1680, should be paid

* Modern Part, vol. xxxix. section 16.

and disbanded, replaced Newfoundland in the same state of division between England and France, in which it was at the beginning of this war. A squadron was soon after sent thither, under the command of Captain, afterwards Admiral, Sir John Norris, as Governor of Newfoundland, to restore all things to order, and to see that the stipulations of the treaty were duly observed.

It appears that, even at this time, Newfoundland had acquired a sufficient degree of importance to make the appointment of Governor of that island an object of ambition; for, from this period, we find this office generally filled by gentlemen, whose names hold a distinguished rank in the naval history of these kingdoms. Thus, Sir John Berry, who held it in the year 1675, is represented in the "Biographia Nautica" as a great, gallant, and good man, who had received the honour of knighthood in 1672, for his meritorious conduct at the battle of Solebay, accompanied with the following compliment from King Charles II. "As your thoughts have been now upon honour, we will hereafter think of profit; for I would not have so brave a man a poor knight." In the short space of seventeen years this officer rose from the rank of Lieutenant to that of Vice-Admiral, to which he was appointed in the year 1682.

We learn, from the same writers, that Captain Thomas Gillam, who, in the famous year 1692, had the honour of first discovering the French fleet under Tourville, and of contributing, by his activity and bravery, to the glorious victory which ensued, was, for these services, rewarded by a promotion to the Saint Alban's, in which ship he was ordered the same year to Newfoundland, as Governor, and that he captured several valuable prizes off that coast. Sir John Norris, after a regular routine of services, had been appointed Captain in July, 1690, and, in the short space of eighteen years, was raised to the rank of Admiral of the Blue, in 1708, having, four years before, been honoured by Queen Anne with knighthood, and one thousand pounds, for his eminent services as second to Sir Cloudesly Shovel, in the engagement off Malaga. He was succeeded on the Newfoundland station, in 1700, by Sir Stafford Fairborne, an officer distinguished by great abilities and intrepidity. And Sir John Leake, or Lake, who has left the reputation of a generous, humane, brave, and good man, and who is reported to have been one of the greatest Admirals of the age in which he lived, was appointed to the same government in the year 1702.

In the year 1698, the consideration of the

fisheries became a principal object of the attention of the English Parliament. An act was passed prohibiting, on pain of forfeiture of ship and cargo, the importation of fish taken by foreigners in foreign ships. This was soon after followed by another, intituled, " An Act to encourage the Trade to Newfoundland," which is said to be little more than an enactment of the rules and constitutions which had been in force there for many years before. By this act, the right and privilege of *landing* and *drying* fish on the *shores* of Newfoundland was limited to British subjects arriving there from the king's *European* dominions, and to aliens residing in England;—in vessels fitted out and manned according to certain regulations specified in the act, one of which was, that the crews should be composed of at least one fresh or *green* man in every five: a *certificate* of those conditions being duly complied with, from the officers of the customs, entitled those vessels to the privileges of FISHING SHIPS, one of which was the free and exclusive use of any part of the coast for the purposes of the fishery. The master of every ship so qualified, first entering into a harbour, became Admiral of that harbour for the season; the second, Vice-Admiral; and the third, Rear-Admiral. These *Fishing Admirals* were authorized to decide and

determine all causes of disputes which might arise there, subject, in cases of intricacy, or where either party might think himself aggrieved, to an appeal to the commanders of such of his majesty's ships as should be appointed for convoy. Murders and all other capital offences committed there could be tried only in England, to which the persons accused were to be sent prisoners for that purpose.

By these regulations, the ADVENTURERS or merchants, and others, who visited Newfoundland only for the fishing season, were supposed to have obtained a considerable advantage over the pretensions of the inhabitants and planters who were settled there. This act likewise removed the obstacles that might be thought to lie in the way of a *free* fishery, from the various charters formerly granted of that island. It cannot be denied that the important changes made by this law produced, in course of time, abuses of a contrary nature, and equally prejudicial to the interests of the fishery, as those which it was intended to remedy. Those fishing admirals were not always the best informed, the most impartial, and incorruptible judges. Hence, about thirty years afterwards, it was found necessary to modify several provisions of this act, and to appoint a Civil Governor and Justices of the peace, for the protection of the inhabitants and planters,

for the better administration of justice, and for the support of public order and tranquillity. This act, nevertheless, was so well suited to the circumstances and necessities of Newfoundland, at the close of the seventeenth century, that, under its influence, the trade and fisheries of that island increased rapidly, and to a very great extent.

This measure for the encouragement of the trade and fisheries of Newfoundland from the King's *European* dominions, was soon after followed by another of still greater importance, which embraced all the English plantations in North America, and was the origin of that most excellent institution, now known by the name of the "Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts."

A public-spirited clergyman, of the name of WILLIAM CASTEL,* the author of "A short Discovery of America," inserted in the eighth volume of Churchill's Collection of Voyages, had presented to parliament, in the reign of James the First, a petition "For the propagating of the Gospel in America," signed by several divines of London and other parts of England. An ordinance was then made by parliament, by which Robert, Earl of Warwick,

* Then Rector of Courtenhall, in the county of Northampton.

being constituted Governor-in-Chief and Lord High Admiral of all those islands and plantations inhabited, planted, or belonging to any of his Majesty's subjects within the bounds and upon the coasts of America, a committee was appointed to assist him for the better government and preservation of the said plantations; *but chiefly*, "for the advancement of the true Protestant religion, and farther spreading of the Gospel of Christ among those that yet remained there in great and miserable blindness and ignorance."

Notwithstanding the extreme importance of the object in view, the zeal of parliament, the exertions of great numbers of sincere Christians, and the earnest petitions of the planters, adventurers, and owners of land in those plantations, nothing was done until King William took effectual measures to encourage that truly noble design. By his royal charter, dated the 16th of June, 1701, he erected and settled "a Corporation, with a perpetual succession, by the name of THE SOCIETY FOR THE PROPAGATION OF THE GOSPEL IN FOREIGN PARTS, for the receiving, managing, and disposing of the contributions of such persons as should be induced to extend their charity towards the maintenance of a LEARNED AND ORTHODOX CLERGY, and the making of such other provision as might be necessary; it appearing, that

in many of those plantations, colonies, and factories, beyond the seas, the provision for ministers was mean; and a great number of them were wholly unprovided with a maintenance for ministers and the public worship of God; so that, for lack of support and maintenance, many of the king's subjects wanted the administration of God's word and sacraments, and seemed to be abandoned to atheism and infidelity, and others of them to popish superstition and idolatry."

This society, by the charter, was composed of the chief prelates and dignitaries of the church, and of several lords and eminent persons in the state, with power to elect, from time to time, such others to be members of the corporation as they, or the major part of them, should think beneficial to their charitable designs. They were directed to give to the Lord High Chancellor, and to the Lords Chief Justices of the King's Bench and of the Common Pleas, an annual account of the several sums of money by them received and laid out, and of the management and disposition of the revenues of the corporation. And, certainly, no other society has more reason to say, as they do in their annual reports, that "through an especial blessing this work of the Lord hath all along prospered in their hands."

Soon after their incorporation, they received

applications from several parts of the American plantations for ministers and schoolmasters, accompanied with promises to do their best for the maintenance of such as should be sent to them, churches being already built or building in different places, which was easily accomplished in those countries, as all buildings were commonly constructed with wood. In the short space of four years from the date of their charter, this Society formed in North America an establishment of twenty-eight ministers, catechists, and schoolmasters, to whose maintenance they contributed at the annual expense of five hundred and ninety-five pounds sterling, besides four hundred and ninety-four pounds, which they paid in the year 1705 for libraries and gratuities to their missionaries.

Newfoundland, at that time, had several considerable settlements of English people, besides a vast number of occasional inhabitants who resided there during the fishing season, to the amount of several thousands, without any regular public exercise of religion. The Society sent to Saint John's a clergyman, of the name of Jackson, with an annual salary of fifty pounds sterling, besides a gratuity of thirty pounds for the expenses of his voyage.

CHAPTER VI.

RETROSPECTIVE VIEW OF THE NEWFOUNDLAND FISHERY, AND OF THE ACCOUNTS OF THAT ISLAND, AS GIVEN BY DIFFERENT WRITERS OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

HAVING brought the History of Newfoundland up to this important epoch, it may be interesting to the reader to take a retrospective view of the British and French fisheries, and of the accounts given of that island by the writers of those times.

According to l'Abbé Raynel, France, after the agreement made with King Charles, in 1634, sent annually her fishermen to that island, where they fished only on the northern part, which they called Le Petit Nord, and on the southern point, where they had formed a kind of town upon the bay of Placentia, which united all the conveniences that could be desired for a successful fishery. He says that, in the year 1660, the French government unfortunately gave up the property of that bay to an individual, named Gargot, whose rapacity

compelled the planters and fishermen to drive him away. The French ministry did not persist in supporting this man's unjust proceedings, but the system continued the same. The laborious men, whom necessity had united upon this barren land, were persecuted without intermission by the commanders who succeeded each other in a fort which had been erected in that town. This system of oppression, which prevented the colonists from acquiring that degree of competency necessary to enable them to pursue their labours with success must also have prevented their increasing in number.

The author of the "Considerations on the Trade to Newfoundland," inserted in the second volume of Churchill's Collection of Voyages, observes, that, "in the reign of Queen Anne, the French by this trade had so far increased their riches and naval power as to make all Europe stand in fear of them; which plainly shews, that twenty years quiet possession of this trade is capable of making any prince the most formidable by sea and by land, by the yearly increase of men, ships, bullion," &c. He asserts, that the whole increase of the naval greatness of France had its foundation from this trade, and thus explains the grounds of this assertion. "The nature of this trade is such, that about

one-fourth of the men employed in it are *green* men, that is, men who were never before at sea: and the climate being very healthy, scarce one man in fifty dies in a voyage; whereas, in the voyages to the East and West Indies, few green men are employed, and it is too well known what great numbers are swept away in those unhealthy countries. And it farther appears that their naval strength arises from this trade, by looking back to their first beginning therein. France had before very few ships, and these were of inconsiderable force and bulk; whereas," says our author, "they have since been enabled frequently to contend at sea with the united powers of England and Holland, and have besides a great many stout and large privateers to infest our coasts and ruin our merchants." He adds that, "at this time, namely, towards the end of the seventeenth century, the French were in the habit of employing in these fisheries about five hundred sail of ships, a great many of which were of good burden, and mounted from sixteen to forty guns; to man which they have," he says, "by a moderate computation, about sixteen thousand men, of which one-fourth being *green* men, they must consequently breed up by this single trade four thousand sailors every year."

The same writer observes also, that "the

French, by their extraordinary frugality, joined with their other great advantages, such as the cheapness of salt, and having the best and most convenient part of the country for fishing, &c. have quite beaten the English out of this trade, as may be instanced in many of the outports of our nation, and particularly *Barnstaple* and *Biddeford*, which formerly employed in this trade above fifty ships, and now do not fit out above six or eight small ships. This proceeds from the superior advantages of that part of Newfoundland which the French occupy, namely, on the south-west coast to the westward of Cape Ray. They are seldom annoyed with ice, as lying farther to the south, and in the best part of the island; whereas, our small portion, lying more to the north-east, is sometimes not clear of *firm lands of ice* till the beginning of May; and till that ice is gone no fish are taken, and it often hinders our ships from getting in; so that the French are in the country and at their business long before the English. They have better harbours, and greater quantities of fish; they have also salt, and some other fishing craft, cheaper than we have; and generally kill one or two hundred quintals *per* boat more than the English; which, besides the great inequality in fishing, on a moderate computation, may make their

fish, at least, five shillings per quintal cheaper than the English; and, what adds to their great profit, they are generally in Spain, Portugal, Italy, &c. before the time of our ships leaving the country, and consequently have the preference of all markets; which cannot be less than five shillings *per* quintal more than our later fleets can get: their fish being also better esteemed. The aforesaid *ten* shillings *per* quintal more to them than the English gain is undeniable evidence what prodigious advantage they reap by this trade; when we, under our present circumstances, are little better than losers, accounting *fifteen* or *sixteen* shillings *per* quintal a good price for our fish, as coming to after-markets."

In "A short Discovery of America, by the Reverend William Castel," inserted in the eighth volume of Churchill's Collection of Voyages, we find the following description of Newfoundland, as it was known at that period.

"Concerning the goodness of the soil, and the fitness for a constant habitation, though Mr. Whitburne, in a book written of Newfoundland, does, in both the aforesaid respects and some others, over highly commend it, yet, upon better inquiry of those who have formerly written of it, as also from those who usually

resort thither, I find it to be a convenient habitation for summer, but not for winter, by reason of the exceeding coldness, and the deep overcovering of the land with snow, and of the waters with huge shelves of ice, whereby they are debarred of necessary provisions, such as, in summer time, the island affords in great abundance and variety, viz. land-fowl and water-fowl, and fresh fish, being all the sustentation that the island affords. And yet, the yearly rich commodity of sea-fish, almost of all kinds, which are there usually in great quantities taken and transported into Europe, cause not only us, but all other neighbouring nations, yearly to resort thither; and because the constant return of that fish commodity is worth, at least, *two hundred thousand pounds* yearly, there have been divers contentions between the English and other nations, who, whether we would or no, have taken full liberty of fishing there.

"This great island affords many convenient and safe harbours for ships: towards the north, the first northern port nearest to the south, which is Cape de Raz, is Rennosa, lying a little above the forty-sixth degree; then Aquaforte, two leagues more to the north; then Punta de Farilham, as many more. Much higher, near upon the forty-eighth degree, are Thorne-Bay, then

CHAPTER VII.

1702—1713.

In less than two months after the accession of Queen Anne to the throne war was declared against France. This was done on the 4th of May, 1702, and, on the 24th of June following, Captain, afterwards Sir John Leake, received instructions from Prince George of Denmark, the Queen's Consort, and Lord High Admiral of the kingdom, to proceed to Newfoundland with a small squadron, in order to take possession of the whole island. He arrived there in the month of August, destroyed the French settlements and fishing-boats at Trepassey, Saint Mary's, Colinet, Great and Little Saint Lawrence, and the island of Saint Peter's, where there was a small fort, with six guns, which he razed to the ground. Having thus successfully executed his commission, he found himself, by the end of October, ready to return to England with the homeward-bound ships, after having taken twenty-nine sail of the enemy, and burnt two. Of these prizes, three

were laden with salt, twenty-five with fish, and one from Martinique with sugar and molasses.

The English did not, however, continue long in the undisputed possession of Newfoundland; for, in the year 1703, upon the news of the misfortune and death of the brave Admiral Benbow, in the West Indies, Vice-Admiral Graydon, having been sent with a squadron to protect the plantations, made the coast of Newfoundland on the 2d of August. In the evening of that day, there arose a fog, which continued for thirty days with such density, that it was difficult to discover one ship from another: this occasioned the total dispersion of the fleet, which could not again be brought together until the 3d of September. The Admiral then thought proper to refer to a council of war the consideration of the propriety of attempting an attack on the French at Placentia, and thereby forcing them to quit Newfoundland, which, it appears, was the principal object of the expedition under his command. It has been said that councils of war, except in some very particular cases, seldom forebode much heroism; that, when a commander-in-chief, whose power is absolute, condescends to ask advice of his inferiors, it is a tacit acknowledgment that his abilities are inadequate

to his power; or, that he is inclined to do that for which he dares not to be responsible. It has also been observed that, had the unfortunate Admiral Byng, in 1756, been positively ordered to call no councils of war, but to relieve Minorca at all events, he would have returned triumphant to Britain.

The council of war, in the present instance, consisted of the Admiral, Rear-Admiral Whetstone, thirteen captains of the royal navy, Colonel Rivers, commander-in-chief of the land-forces, six captains, and an engineer; and their unanimous opinion was, that to make an attempt on that place with the ships and forces in the condition in which they were, and at such a season of the year, was altogether impracticable, and, instead of any probability of success, might tend to the dishonour of her Majesty's arms. Thus ended this unfortunate expedition.

On Vice-Admiral Graydon's return to England, the House of Lords instituted an inquiry into his conduct, and addressed the Queen to remove him from all employments, and to direct her attorney-general to prosecute him for *impressing servants in the West Indies*. The authors of the Biographia Nautica observe, that, it has been said, though Vice-Admiral Graydon did not, on this occasion, do the

nation any remarkable service, yet, as to protecting the trade, and the other things in his power, he did all the service he was able; that it was his misfortune, first, to feel the effects of other men's mistakes, and next, to be made answerable for them; and that he suffered for miscarriages which it was not in his power to avoid.*

The miscarriage of this expedition seems to have operated as an encouragement to the French to attempt the conquest of the whole island of Newfoundland. Historians complain that the navy of England, then under the direction of the Prince of Denmark, assisted by a council, was very badly managed; whilst the army, under the command of the great Duke of Marlborough, performed achievements which will ever form one of the most brilliant epochs in the History of England.

The French garrison of Placentia had been reinforced by a strong party of men, and twelve officers from Canada. In the year 1705, these, under the command of Subercase and of L'Epinay, commander of the French man of war La Guêpe, set out from Placentia with about five hundred men, and marched to Petty-

* Biog. Naut. vol. v. p. 20.

Harbour, an English port within nine miles of Saint John's; and having reached the latter place, they made a resolute attack on the two principal forts: but failing in their attempt, they ravaged the different settlements, destroyed Fort Forillon, made all the inhabitants prisoners, and from thence they spread their devastations along the coast as far as Bonavista.

In the following year, viz. on the 25th of July, 1706, a report was brought to Saint John's, that the enemy had a considerable number of ships employed in the fishery in several harbours to the northward, and other parts of the island. Captain John Underdown, commander of the Queen's ship the Falkland, was then in Saint John's Harbour with the Nonsuch, commanded by Captain Carleton. Having been petitioned by the merchants, masters of vessels, and inhabitants of that place, to protect the British trade in those parts, he accordingly set sail from Saint John's, on the 26th of July, accompanied by Major Lloyd, who desired to be employed in this expedition, with twenty of his company, on board the Falkland, and as many on board the Nonsuch. The next day they came before Bonavista, and finding there no appearance of an enemy, the Commodore ordered Captain Hughes, commander of the

Medway, on that station, to join him with a French ship of war, which the latter had taken a few days before. On the 2d of August they stood into Blanche-Bay till they arrived off Fleur-de-lys-Harbour, when Major Lloyd, in the commodore's pinnace, and the first lieutenant of the Falkland, in the pinnace belonging to the Nonsuch, were immediately sent into the harbour. They found there several stages and other necessaries for the fishery, which they destroyed, and afterwards returned to their ships. At six o'clock the next morning they doubled the Cape, and saw a ship which struck upon the brisk exchange of a few shot; this was found to be Le Duc d'Orleans, from Saint Maloes, of about three hundred and sixty tons, thirty guns, and one hundred and ten men. In another arm of the same bay, called Eguillete, they saw another large ship; but the place being rocky, and the water so shallow that none of the English men of war could come near her, the Medway's prize was ordered to go in as close as she could with safety, whilst Captain Carleton, Major Lloyd, and the first lieutenant of the Falkland, in boats well-manned and armed, were directed to land upon the island under which that ship lay. This was executed so promptly and so ably, that the French ship struck, after having fired several

broadsides, her crew being no longer able to keep the deck against the small shot from the shore. This ship belonged also to Saint Maloes, carrying twenty guns and eighty men.

Having here received information that, about three leagues farther north, in a place called La Conche, or Conch-Harbour, there were two ships of thirty-two and twenty-six guns, both of Saint Maloes, the commodore directed Captain Hughes to burn the last prize, and afterwards to join him at that place, whither he proceeded himself with the Falkland and the Nonsuch. On the afternoon of the fifth, they arrived at Conch-Harbour, where they found two ships ready for sailing. After exchanging several broadsides, the French set their ships on fire, and went over to the next harbour, called Carouge. The commodore being informed that there were four French ships in that place, immediately stood for it, meeting in his way, at about eight o'clock in the evening, the Medway's prize; but there being very little wind, and that at south-west, it was near six o'clock the next morning before he could get off the harbour's mouth: he then sent in his boat, and found that the French ships had escaped, taking advantage of their great number of men and boats, by cutting and towing out. The English ships then proceeded to the

northward, and about five o'clock in the afternoon came off the harbour of Saint Julian, where they discovered a large French ship; standing in for that harbour, they came to an anchor in twenty-six fathom water. The place where that ship had been hauled in being very narrow and shoaly, the Medway's prize was ordered to go as near her as possible; the French ship then fired two guns; but, it being late in the evening, and the enemy appearing determined to make a spirited resistance, it was not thought advisable to commence the attack, before the following morning.

On the sixth of August, at four o'clock in the forenoon, Captain Carleton, Major Lloyd, and Lieutenant Eagle, went towards her with all their boats, well-manned and armed; and having effected their landing, attacked, and at last drove the enemy from a strong post which they occupied on the shore. They then boarded the French ship, where they found several trains of powder laid, for the purpose of blowing her up. By this timely discovery the ship was preserved, and, by noon, towed out to sea.

The British pilots being unacquainted with the coast, the commodore resolved not to proceed any farther north, but to sail back to Carouge, and there await the arrival of the

Duke of Orleans prize, which had been left at Grand Canarie with a lieutenant and sixty men. They looked into Petit Maître, where they destroyed a considerable number of stages and boats, and found vast quantities of fish and oil; and at about seven o'clock in the afternoon they came to an anchor, and moored in Carouge-Harbour. On the 12th and 13th, it blew a hard gale at south-west; on the 14th, having been joined by the Duke of Orleans prize, they weighed at four o'clock in the morning, stood out to sea with her, and came into Saint John's Harbour, where the Falkland and the Nonsuch arrived with the two prizes on the 17th, the Medway's prize having before been ordered to proceed to Trinity.

From this expedition, which deserves to be recorded on account of the activity and judgment displayed by Captain Underdown and his associates, equal to the good fortune that attended their operations, it appears that, while the English had on that station only the Falkland and Nonsuch in Saint John's, and the Medway at Bonavista, the French had in the northern parts of the island no less than ten armed ships, mounting from twenty to thirty-two guns. The loss which the latter suffered by the capture or destruction of six of them, and the ruin of their fisheries, must have

been a severe blow to their trade. So large a force shews the degree of importance which they then attached to the Newfoundland trade.

On the 8th of April, 1707, the House of Commons complained in strong terms of the "great declension of the British interest in, and lucrative trade to, Newfoundland," and resolved, that "an humble address be presented to her Majesty, that she will be graciously pleased to use her royal endeavours to recover and preserve the ancient possessions, trade, and fishery, in Newfoundland."

This resolution was so well timed, that, as the events of the following year proved, the French, in the midst of the repeated disasters which they experienced under the victorious arms of the Duke of Marlborough and the Confederates, still continued to attend to their interests in Newfoundland, and to persevere in their determination to attempt the conquest of the whole island.

Saint Ovide, the French King's Lieutenant at Placentia, on the first day of the year 1708, actually took and completely destroyed the town of Saint John's. He had arrived the day before within five leagues of that harbour without being discovered; having effected a landing without opposition, he marched into the town; the commandant advancing to meet him

within three hundred feet of the first palisade which surrounded one of the principal forts, Saint Ovide rushed forward, entered by the gate which had been left open, and calling out "Vive le Roi," the English were struck with such a panic, that he and his people had time to fix their scaling ladders to the main body of the place, which they mounted, and, the governor of Fort William being wounded, in less than half an hour Saint Ovide had taken possession of both forts. The singularity of the season fixed upon for such an enterprise, may easily account for the surprise into which this unexpected attempt threw the garrison. The next day, Saint Ovide, with the garrison, consisting of sixty men, immediately despatched an account of his proceedings to Costebelle, Commander-in-chief on that station, who sent him orders to dismantle the forts, destroy the town, and then return to France.

Costebelle then turned his thoughts to the reduction of Carbonier, the only settlement of any consequence which remained, at that time, to the English. He divided his troops into two bodies, one of which was to proceed by land from Placentia to Conception-Bay, whilst the other went round to Trinity-Bay in two sloops, under the command of one Bertrand, a native of Placentia, with orders to take the short-

est road to the back of Carbonier. On the arrival of the sloops in Trinity-Bay, they took an English frigate, of thirty guns, and one hundred and thirty men: but Bertrand having been killed in the engagement, his companions were so much disheartened that, on seeing two privateers at a distance, they abandoned their prize, and made all possible speed to get clear out of the bay. In the mean time, the body which had come by land, disappointed in their expectation of support from Bertrand's party, retired from Conception-Bay, after having destroyed every house and other erections within their reach.

As soon as the news of these events reached England, the effect which they produced may easily be conceived by those who are acquainted with the state of parties at that time. Strong memorials were presented to government, as if the dearest interests of the nation were on the verge of destruction; declamatory pamphlets issued from every press; the daily prints announced the speedy annihilation of British commerce. The ministers, who were at this juncture in a critical situation, found it necessary to provide against clamours which could not be appeased but by immediate and effectual measures to recover an island of such import-

ance to the British merchants, and on which their commerce with Spain, Portugal, and Italy, depended in a considerable degree. They saw that, in order to effect this object, it was necessary to send such a force as should be able to curb the power of France in North America; and, for this purpose, an expedition was formed, under the command of two officers of great experience, namely, Captain George Martin, of the royal navy, as Commodore, and Colonel Francis Nicholson. The latter was sent to Boston, in New England, to collect all the forces which could be spared from that colony, so that they might be ready to embark as soon as the Commodore should arrive with his squadron.

That the French at that time had a considerable force in North America, is evident from the details of the operations of this expedition, which, however well planned by the government at home, had no other result than the capture of Port Royal, in Nova Scotia, which then received the name of Annapolis Royal, in honour of Queen Anne.

With respect to Newfoundland, we are informed that, in the same year, Captains John Aldred, in the Rochester, Humphrey Pudner, in the Severn, and George Purvis, in the Port-

land, visited and destroyed all the fishing places which the French had on the north side of the island.

In the year 1711, a plan was formed for an attack on Quebec, in Canada, which proved unsuccessful. The object to which government directed their attention, as next in importance, was the conquest of Placentia, which was generally considered, of the two, both the most practicable and the most profitable for England. The fleet in her way to Quebec had intercepted a packet from Costebelle, who was still Commandant at Newfoundland, to Pontchartrain, the French Minister of Marine, in which he complained of the defenceless state of Placentia, and, in general, of the French possessions there, stating that he could hardly muster one hundred men fit for service in the whole island. It is said, that the English fleet had then on board upwards of seven hundred and fifty men, and that, although they were so short of provisions as not to have enough for more than ten weeks, the conquest of Placentia would not have taken them more than three days. The question was debated in a council of war, and carried in the negative.

Thus the French continued in peaceable possession of Newfoundland until the conclusion of the Treaty of Utrecht, which was signed on

the first of April, 1713. By this Treaty, that island, and the adjacent islands, were declared to belong of right *wholly* to Great Britain; the French were allowed to catch fish, and to dry them on land, only in that part which stretches from Cape Bonavista to the northern point of the island, and from thence down by the western side as far as Point Riche; but they could not fortify any place, or erect any buildings there, except stages and huts for the fishery; nor were they to resort to Newfoundland beyond the time necessary for fishing and drying of fish. In all places to be restored by France, the French subjects might either remove themselves with all their moveables to any other place, or remain and become British subjects; in the latter case, they were to enjoy the free exercise of their religion, according to the usage of the Church of Rome, as far as the laws of Great Britain allowed the same.

The cession of Cape Breton to France was strongly condemned, as endangering all the acquisitions which the English had made by this Treaty in Nova Scotia and Newfoundland, and was attributed to the inability of the ministers to stand out any longer against the opposition carried on at home.

Queen Anne, harassed with discordant counsels, and agitated by the altercations

which passed between her ministers at a long Cabinet-Council held on that occasion, was seized with an apoplectic disorder, which caused her death on the first of August following, in the thirteenth year of her reign; a reign, which, from the desperate efforts of the Pretender, the gigantic exertions of France, the brilliant and hitherto unparalleled achievements of Marlborough, and the favourable stipulations of the Treaty of Utrecht, has insured her a distinguished place in the annals of Great Britain.

It must, however, be acknowledged, that the regrets occasioned by the necessity of acceding to the cession of Cape Breton, and the injurious consequences to the British interests which were apprehended from that measure, were fully justified by subsequent events. In consequence of the liberty which the Treaty of Utrecht gave to the French inhabitants of Nova Scotia to retire to that island, it became in every respect a French settlement, where neither laws nor language were admitted but the French.

In Nova Scotia and Newfoundland, the priests performed publicly their sacerdotal functions, as if popery had been the established religion of the country. Richards, the English Commander-in-chief, very judiciously endea-

voured to abridge those impolitic indulgences, and to prevent the dangerous consequences of the unpardonable oversight, by which the French, who had consented to remain in the ceded countries, were exempted from taking the oath of fidelity to the British Crown. But he was not supported in these wise measures, which, if carried into effect, might have prevented a great waste of blood and treasure. The influence thus obtained by the Church of Rome was the more pernicious, as it was in the hands of the JESUITS, who, equally regardless of the laws and interests of either government, appear to have considered their mission in those parts of the world, as intended merely to propagate the tenets, and to extend the power and wealth of their own order. By representing the English in the odious light of HERETICS, they exasperated the national jealousy and animosity to the utmost height, and omitted nothing that could excite and confirm a ferocious aversion among the inhabitants of the countries in which they had obtained a footing.

The cession of the whole Island of Newfoundland by the Treaty of Utrecht, set for ever at rest the contested claims respecting the property of that island, and put an end to the ruinous state of the English trade and fisheries there, which had long been the subject of loud

and well-grounded complaints at home. But the privilege reserved to France, of fishing from Cape Bonavista round the north to Point Riche, proved a new source of disputes, which actually remained in an unsettled state until the close of the American war. The object in contest was the real situation of *Point Riche*, which, it seems, could not be found in any of the charts known at the time of the treaty. The French insisted, that their line of demarcation ought to extend as far south as Cape Raye, while the merchants and planters of Newfoundland, in a petition which they presented to the British parliament, in 1716, stated, that Point Riche ought to be fixed at fifty degrees and a half of north latitude. This allegation, supported by a letter found by the ministers from Prior, who had been a party to the conclusion of the Treaty of Utrecht, and had settled the business of the limits, was at last admitted as conclusive by the Court of France, in 1764. But the latter, some time afterwards, alleging that they had discovered in their archives a manuscript chart, drawn by Jean Denis, to which, they said, reference had been made in the negotiation in 1713, and which placed Point Riche at *forty-nine* degrees upon the border and to the north of the Bay of the Three Islands, now called North-Head, they

demanded for these claims the same deference as they had shewn for those which had been presented to them. This, says l'Abbé Raynal, was reasonable and just; and yet the French who ventured to frequent the contested space experienced the loss and disgrace of having their boats confiscated. Such, according to the same writer, was the state of things, when hostilities were renewed between the two nations in the year 1778.

CHAPTER VIII.

1713—1763.

It has been observed, that the act of the 10th and 11th of King William III. had given a considerable advantage to the merchants and adventurers who visited Newfoundland only for the fishing season, over the pretensions of the planters and inhabitants, many of whom had engrossed, and detained for their own private benefit, a considerable proportion of the places on the coast fit for the purposes of the fishery. This act was so well suited to the circumstances and necessities of Newfoundland at that time, that under its influence, after the Treaty of Utrecht, the trade and fisheries of that island increased to a wonderful extent. The number of resident planters and inhabitants increased likewise in proportion, and they soon began to feel the want of the protection of a Government and Police, and of an Administration of Justice more efficient and impartial than could be expected from the Fishing Admirals. Disorder and anarchy had long

prevailed in the island, particularly during the winter months; and the British Government found it necessary to put some stop to that state of confusion, by the appointment of a Civil Governor and of Justices of the Peace. This appointment is considered by Chief Justice Reeves as an advantage gained by the inhabitants and planters over the adventurers and merchants who carried on the fishery there from this country, and who, he says, preferred the former inefficient courts, because they could make use of them when they needed their assistance, and could intimidate them and obstruct their proceedings, whenever they themselves were to be the objects of animadversion. He even goes so far as to state, that the only remedy against the ignorance or partiality of the Fishing Admirals, which lay in an appeal to the naval commanders on that station, not always easy of access on account of the distance and other circumstances, was frequently made useless, as "he that made a present of most quintals of fish was sure to have the determination in his favour." Hence arose a powerful opposition to every attempt at introducing order and government into Newfoundland.

Captain Henry Osborne, whose merits as an officer may be estimated from the circumstance

of his having afterwards obtained the thanks of the House of Commons, and a pension of £1,200 a year during life, was ordered to Newfoundland as Governor in the year 1728, with authority to appoint such respectable persons as he should think most proper, to act as JUSTICES OF THE PEACE, and to hold Courts of Record, hearing and determining on all matters in dispute between parties according to the laws of England, not extending to capital offences, which were, as before, to be tried only in England.

In the year 1730, an affray having happened at Torbay, between one Blackmore and one Goss, in which the latter was killed, Blackmore was brought prisoner to England, tried, and acquitted. About the same time, another man, of the name of Steel, was likewise brought to England on a charge of murder, tried at the castle of Exeter, and condemned.

The expense and risk of bringing several witnesses on these occasions, and the number of persons who were thus unavoidably detained in England as evidences, and thereby kept from their fisheries, were considered both as a private and a public detriment. This led to a commission to hold a COURT OF OYER AND TERMINER at Newfoundland, and to try offenders for capital crimes. This commission,

granted under the great seal to the Governor and Commander-in-chief, authorized him, as Chief Magistrate of the island, to appoint persons of character and integrity as Commissioners to hold this Court; these were, at that time, the three Justices in Saint John's and four principal merchants. A Sheriff was also nominated by the Governor, to be annually elected by him, under the name of THE HIGH SHERIFF OF NEWFOUNDLAND. Grand Juries were to be empannelled from among the principal merchants, and Petty Juries from the most respectable boat-keepers. Justices of the Peace were, at the same time, appointed by the Governor, and Courts of Session established in the principal out-harbours, which now formed so many distinct districts; and these were annually visited by some man of war, whose Captain was commissioned to hold a SURROGATE'S Court, for the trial of civil causes, as well as to sit in the Courts of Session as a Justice of the Peace. This, however, says very candidly the author of the "Remarks on the British Newfoundland Fishery," *usually ended in a friendly visit.**

* Remarks on the British Newfoundland Fishery and its Laws, published at Dartmouth in the year 1792, for the avowed purpose of pointing out the *very injurious consequences to the trade and fisheries,* of *all* the acts of Government and of Parliament subsequent to the 10th and 11th of

These Judges were afterwards called FLOATING SURROGATES.

In the year 1740, we find the office of "Governor and Commander-in-chief, in and over the Island of Newfoundland and its dependencies," filled by the Right Honourable Lord George Graham, who was then Captain of the Adventure. He was succeeded, in 1741, by the Honourable John Byng, the fourth son of George, Lord Viscount Torrington, and who was then Captain of the Sunderland, of sixty guns. Governor Byng's active, judicious, and brave conduct, particularly whilst on the Newfoundland station, give him a distinguished

King William III. which are there said "by their operations to have so burdened the fishery, as to check the industry of the adventurers, and to destroy all confidence between master and servant, and between every other description of persons." Speaking of the system of judicature established under that act, the same writer says: "The authority thereby given to Fishing Admirals, to determine all disputes relative to the fishery, is founded on a strict plan of justice, equity, and reason. It is leaving the decision of controversies to a description of persons who alone can judge of the wrong done, and who cannot be led away or biassed by any reward. They are really and *bonâ fide* arbitrators between the parties. Again, to prevent the possibility of partiality or self-interested views, (if such could be,) either of the parties may bring the matter before the Captain of one of his Majesty's ships, who is again an umpire between them. Can there be a more equitable mode?"

rank among the eminent characters which adorn the list of the Governors of that island.

England was then at war with Spain, whose ships of war and privateers carried their depredations on the British commerce in every part of Europe and America with unprecedented activity and boldness. The squadron under the command of Governor Byng, not only most effectually protected the Newfoundland trade and fisheries, but also were uncommonly successful in making captures on the enemy. It was, in consequence, judged necessary that a COURT OF VICE-ADMIRALTY should be established at Newfoundland, in order to prevent the expense and risk of sending the prizes to England for trial and condemnation. Such a court was accordingly established, with power to take cognizance of all matters within the jurisdiction of the High Court of Admiralty in England, to which an appeal lay from the decisions of the Vice-Admiralty Court in Newfoundland. The Judge of this Court was likewise Chief Justice of the Courts of common law, and President Commissioner of the Court of Oyer and Terminer.

The first Judge of the Vice-Admiralty Court of Newfoundland was William Keen, Esq. an old experienced merchant in that trade; he was also the first person who was appointed

NAVAL OFFICER, an office intended for the purpose of collecting from the different Fishing Admirals their annual returns, so as to make up the yearly *fishing schemes* for the information of government. He was besides to examine all ships' cockets, to receive the manifests and reports of ships' masters, taking accounts of their lading, forwards and back, every voyage. A Deputy Naval Officer was also appointed in every out-port.

This new arrangement was so much approved by the merchants and masters of vessels there, that they proposed, of their own accord, to pay this officer half-a-crown for each ship, and five shillings for every certificate, or bill of health, that might be required.

Happy, says the author of the "Remarks on the Newfoundland Fishery," happy would it have been for all concerned in this, then beneficial trade, had a bill been brought before parliament and passed, so as to have made permanent, and to have established by law, the good policy of these arranged and consolidated customs, *proved good by experience.*

Disputes concerning the limits in Newfoundland, as well as between Canada and Nova Scotia, had continued to be the source of discord, and the pretence for encroachments

on the part of the French settlers in North America, since the year 1713. France very justly considered her fishery in Newfoundland and Cape Breton as the principal branch of her commerce, and the foundation of her maritime force. But she had the mortification to see that important trade suspended in 1745 by the loss of her part of Newfoundland, which was, soon after, followed by that of Cape Breton.

The Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in the year 1748, was no sooner signed, than France began to restore her marine which had been nearly ruined in the late war, to revive the disputes respecting the boundaries of Nova Scotia, and to aim at the conquest of all the British settlements in North America. In gradually drawing and extending a line along the borders of those settlements, from the Saint Lawrence to the Mississipi, and building forts to secure the most convenient passes on the lakes and rivers that formed the communication, one of the great objects of the French Commandants and settlers there appears to have been to cut off all intercourse and traffic between the Indians of the interior countries and the British colonies. This plan was now followed up by erecting forts and forming settlements upon the River Ohio. The French inhabitants of the district of Anna-

polis, with parties of the neighbouring Indians, made incursions on the British settlements. These hostile attempts, accompanied by all the cruelties of the Indian mode of warfare, increased in audacity in proportion to the forbearance of England, who, for a long time, endeavoured to put an end to that state of things in America by the complaints of her Ambassador, and the memorials of her Commissaries at Paris. The inefficacy of these measures of conciliation, and the increasing distress of the British colonies, exasperated the government and the people of England to such a degree, that war became at last inevitable; and never was a war more universally considered as national, and as springing from a root truly English. The ministers having received certain intelligence that a considerable number of Indians, supported by some European regular troops, were on their march, intending, as it was apprehended, to commit hostilities on some parts of British America, the Earl of Holdernesse, one of the principal Secretaries of State, wrote circular letters, dated the 28th of August, 1753, to the several Governors of North America, directing them to unite in a confederacy for their mutual security, and to endeavour to engage the Indians on their side. Major Washington, who afterwards acted so conspicuous a

part in the cause of American independence, had, previous to this, been deputed by the Government of Virginia to the French Commandant on the Ohio, to demand by what authority he had erected forts, and made settlements within the limits of the British provinces.

About the same time, the French sent eight thousand troops, of whom two thousand five hundred were intended for Canada, three thousand five hundred for the Mississipi, and two thousand for Saint Domingo. They also collected together, at Brest and at Rochefort, a considerable number of seamen to be sent to Canada, to man some men of war that had been built there. A most unaccountable spirit of delusion and of infatuation appears to have, at this period, blinded the French ministry; for, whilst their Ambassador in London was making great protestations of the sincere wish of his court speedily and finally to adjust all disputes between the two crowns concerning America, and was encouraging discussions on that subject, intelligence arrived in England that the French had a squadron at sea.

General Braddock was then immediately sent with troops to Virginia; and a squadron was ordered to sail for Newfoundland, under Admiral Boscawen, who, on his arrival on that

coast, took his station off Cape Race. A few days after, the French fleet, under the command of M. Bois de la Mothe, arrived near the same coast: and, favoured by one of those impenetrable fogs which are so common in that part of the world, his fleet effected their passage to Canada, some by the usual way, between Newfoundland and Cape Breton, and the rest by the straits of Belleisle, on the north of Newfoundland; a navigation hitherto unattempted by large ships of war. Two of them, the Alcide and the Lys, both sixty-four gun ships, being separated from their consorts in the fog, were intercepted by two English ships of the same strength, the Dunkirk and the Defiance, commanded by Captains Howe and Andrews, who bore down upon them, and, after a vigorous resistance, took them, with about eight thousand pounds on board.

When it was known in France that Admiral Boscawen had put to sea with the British fleet, the French Ambassador was ordered to intimate to the British court that, in case this armament acted upon the offensive, he would consider the first gun that should be fired as a declaration of war. Being now sensible, by the capture of those two ships, which was first published in the London Gazette on

the 15th of July, 1755, that England was no longer to be amused with fruitless unmeaning negotiations concerning the limits of Nova Scotia, France recalled her two Ambassadors from London and Hanover. Thus began that war which, provoked by flagrant acts of hostility committed by the French Commandants and settlers in America since the year 1748, soon spread like a devouring flame over every quarter of the globe, and which, in the end, cost France all her possessions in Canada. By the capture of all the ships and vessels employed by the French in the Newfoundland fishery, it is said that they lost upwards of twenty-five thousand seamen, and that, in consequence of this loss, they were, during the whole of that war, incapable of properly manning their fleet.

Cape Breton was soon after taken by Colonel Monkton, whilst Captain Rous destroyed all the French fishing erections and settlements upon the coast of Newfoundland.

Governor Byng had been succeeded, in 1744, by Sir Charles Hardy, Captain of the Jersey of sixty guns. He is represented as a brave, generous, and worthy man. Several of the ships under his convoy having been captured by the enemy, on his return from

Newfoundland, at the end of that year, his conduct became the subject of a court martial, which terminated in his honourable acquittal. It appears, however, that he did not return to Newfoundland, for it is said, that, in the month of July following, he was employed near the Straits' mouth, where he distinguished himself in an engagement with a French seventy-four.

In the year 1749 Captain, afterwards Lord George Brydges Rodney, whose name holds so distinguished a rank in the Naval History of Great Britain, particularly for his victory of the 12th of April, 1782,* was appointed Governor of Newfoundland, in the Rainbow, and continued on this station until the usual time of recal, that is, generally three years. In the first year of his government, the principal

* Admiral Rodney appears to have first set the example of that religious mode of reporting signal victories, which, during the last war, formed so striking a contrast with the bombastic reports and bulletins of the republican and imperial generals of France. His letter to the Admiralty respecting this victory began with these words: "It has pleased God, of his divine providence, to grant to His Majesty's arms a most complete victory over the fleet of his enemy, commanded by the Count de Grasse, who was himself captured with the Ville de Paris, and four other ships of the fleet, besides one sunk in the action."

merchants, traders, and others, concerned in the fishery, represented to him, in a memorial, that their trade suffered greatly from the illegal practices committed by the merchants and traders residing in the northern and southern parts of the island, in forcibly seizing and carrying away from those boat-keepers and inhabitants who were indebted to them, their fish, train-oil, boats, and craft; thereby rendering them incapable of prosecuting the fishery to the end of the season; and keeping all such effects to themselves, without having any regard to other creditors: which practices, if not timely prevented, might be the ruin, not only of many inhabitants and fishermen, but of the trade in general.

In consequence of this representation, Governor Rodney issued a Proclamation, dated at Saint John's, the 19th of August, 1749, prohibiting such unjust and violent practices on pain of being prosecuted with the utmost severity of the law; and requiring that the *ancient usage then in force in St. John's* should be strictly followed; namely, that whenever a boat-keeper, or other person concerned in the fishery, became, in consequence of an unsuccessful voyage, or by any unforseen accident, incapable of paying his just debts, the

creditors should content themselves with a fair proportion of their respective debts, paying the servants' wages in full, so that there might be no hinderance to the prosecuting of the fishery to the end of the season; the said creditors choosing a person to receive the produce of the voyage, and to make a proportionable division thereof according to the amount of their respective claims, at the close of the fishery. And whenever any doubt or suspicion arose, that the debtor had not wherewith to discharge all his just debts and the servants' wages, the principal creditors were authorized to adopt such measures as should appear the most proper to secure the due execution of this ancient and equitable usage.

In the beginning of July, 1760, Captain James Webb, of the Antelope, then Governor of Newfoundland, having received intelligence that some French ships were on the north-western part of the island, proceeded in quest of them in the Fortune sloop of war, and, in the course of his cruise, took the Tavignon, of St. Maloes, with upwards of three thousand five hundred quintals of dry cod fish; the whole of which capture produced, by public sale in St. John's, the sum of £2570. The officers of this ship, on her arrival at that

place, were allowed to go on shore on their parole. One of them, being suspected of having taken a plan of the garrison, was searched, and, the plan was actually found concealed in the lining of his coat, with a packet from St. Christopher's for Mr. Secretary Pitt.

In the year 1761, Commodore Webb was succeeded in the government of Newfoundland by Captain, afterwards Lord, Graves, well known for the important share which he had in Lord Howe's victory of the first of June, 1794. So inconsiderable was the naval force on that station at the latter end of the year 1761, that the trade, in a memorial presented to the Governor about the middle of November, offered to equip, at their own costs and charge, the Weymouth, a merchantman, carrying twenty guns, and one hundred and twenty-five men, as an armed vessel, for the protection of the fleet homeward-bound, there being no ship for the last convoy to England. This offer was accepted, and the command of that ship was given to Lieutenant John Neale, commander of the Surprise, whose guns, ordnance, and stores, were conveyed on-board the Weymouth. The Governor sailed in the Antelope, in the beginning of December, with the last convoy bound for

Spain and Portugal, consisting of seventy sail, carrying altogether about seven thousand tons, six hundred and eighty men, and near two hundred guns.

In the course of this year France had experienced very considerable losses in her navy, privateers, and merchant service. Yet, by a dexterity of negotiation of which there is hardly an example in history, she acquired, at the close of a most ruinous war, such a powerful and hearty assistance, as afforded her the fairest hopes of retrieving at once all her misfortunes. Spain manifested a considerable interest in her cause, and extreme uneasiness at the unprecedented successes of the British arms. And while France was negotiating a treaty at London, expressing her readiness to procure the blessings of peace by the most humiliating concessions, her minister at the Court of Madrid was employed in such measures as, instead of extinguishing the flames of war, tended to spread them more widely. Every concession on the part of France becoming a new incentive to the animosity of Spain towards England, even at the very time that the negotiation seemed nearest to a conclusion, then was the moment for Spain to interpose, and at one explosion to blow up the whole basis of the treaty. With a

plan for an accommodation perfectly agreeable to the English ministry, Mr. Bussy, the French Agent at London, delivered a *private* memorial, in which he stated that, in order to establish the peace upon the most solid foundation, it might be proper to *invite the King of Spain* to guarantee and confirm it; and, for this purpose, it would be necessary finally to adjust the differences which subsisted between the Crowns of Spain and England; namely, among others, the restitution of the captures which had been made on the Spanish flag, and the "privilege of the Spanish nation *to fish on the Banks of Newfoundland.*" It is not difficult to conceive with what surprise such unexpected proposals were heard and with scorn rejected by the manly spirit of Mr. Pitt, who clearly saw that there was a perfect union of interests and councils between the Courts of France and Spain; and that, if the latter deferred to declare war, it was principally because she waited the arrival of her fleet from America. He accordingly advised prompt measures, which were warranted by the evasive and insulting conduct of the Spanish Ambassador in London, and which, by intercepting the Spanish resources in their arrival to Europe, would have disabled Spain from giving assistance to France. He could not, however,

persuade his colleagues in administration; and, in consequence, " unwilling to remain in a situation which made him responsible for measures which he was not permitted to guide," he resigned the seals on the 9th of October, 1761. The British ministry continued to negotiate by means of Lord Bristol, Ambassador at the Court of Madrid, until the Spanish galleons being safely arrived in Cadiz, Spain at last tore asunder the veil which her policy had hitherto thought proper to assume. Lord Bristol quitted Madrid the 17th of December; soon after the Spanish Ambassador left London, and war was declared in January, 1762. Spain immediately prohibited the importation of fish from Newfoundland, and the Pope seconded this prohibition, releasing by a rescript the subjects of that kingdom from those fasts which rendered that fish indispensably necessary.

About the latter end of May, in the year 1762, intelligence was received by the Admiralty, that a French squadron under the command of M. de Ternay had sailed from Brest under cover of a fog. Sir Edward Hawke, with seven ships of the line and two frigates, was immediately sent in pursuit of them; but they eluded his vigilance. They were seen about fifty leagues to the northward of the Lizard, by Cap-

tain, afterwards Admiral Sir Joshua Rowley, who, though greatly inferior in strength, and having under his care a fleet of merchant-men bound to the East and West Indies, no sooner perceived them than he made a disposition for battle; they then tacked to the northward; he gave them chase until they were nearly out of sight; and, having no hope of bringing them to action, he discontinued the pursuit and rejoined his convoy; his squadron consisted only of one seventy-four, one forty-four, and one thirty-eight gun ships.

On the 24th of June the French squadron entered into the Bay of Bulls, and landed there some troops, which marched towards Saint John's. This place not being in a condition of defence, surrendered by capitulation; and the garrison, consisting only of sixty-three men, were made prisoners, together with the officers and crew of the Gramont sloop of war, which happened to be at that time in the harbour. The French found there several merchant-vessels which they seized, as well as every kind of property within their reach; and being determined to keep possession of this place, they immediately began to repair the fortifications of the town and harbour. They took likewise Carbonier and Trinity, and in general availed themselves of the unprepared

state of the island to make any resistance, to commit every kind of devastation on its trade and fisheries. When the knowledge of these transactions arrived in England, the ministry were universally and loudly blamed on account of their neglect of Mr. Pitt's advice for the protection of Newfoundland: and while they endeavoured to persuade the public that the loss of this cold, barren, and inhospitable island was of very little consequence, they nevertheless did not delay to prepare an armament for its recovery. But their preparations for this purpose were rendered unnecessary by the vigilance and activity of Captain Charles Douglas, of the Syren man of war; of Governor Graves; and of Lord Colville and Sir Jeffery Amherst, who commanded the sea and land forces in North America.

Captain Douglas, who happened to be at that time on a cruise at the southward of Newfoundland, having received information of the appearance of a French squadron with land forces on that coast, took into the service two merchant-vessels then in Saint Mary's harbour, and appointing to each a petty officer from the Syren, he immediately despatched them with directions to cruise during a stated time on the Banks, in order to

communicate this intelligence to the convoy that was daily expected from England, and then to proceed with letters for General Amherst to Halifax, where they were to take in supplies and bring them to Placentia.

The brig William, having cruised on the Banks her appointed time without meeting the convoy, proceeded to Halifax, and thence to Placentia, where she was discharged on the 24th of September following.

The Bonetta sloop, commanded by Peter Burne, master of the Syren, was much more fortunate. She met on the outer edge of the Great Bank Governor Graves, in the Antelope, with a large fleet of merchant-men, which were thus prevented from falling in with the enemy. Burne was immediately ordered by the Governor to transport a party of marines from the Antelope to the Island of Boys, near Ferryland, where it was understood that a considerable number of the inhabitants of that part of Newfoundland had taken refuge, and which was to be as strongly fortified as circumstances would permit; he was thence to proceed with the utmost expedition to Halifax with the Governor's and Captain Douglas's despatches. He accordingly parted from the Antelope, which he afterwards rejoined and

left at Placentia on the 30th of July, and reached Halifax in safety some days before the William.

Governor Graves, on his arrival at Placentia, finding the forts in a ruinous state, and the place in a defenceless condition, ordered Fort Frederick and Castle-Hill to be immediately repaired, so as to be able to oppose effectually any attempt that the French might make on so advantageous a position. He landed there a party of his marines, waiting anxiously for the expected reinforcement from Halifax. Captain Douglas was at the same time superintending the repairs of the fortifications on the Island of Boys, a place which was then considered as of great importance.

Lord Colville, on receipt of the despatches brought by the Bonetta, sailed from Halifax, and, having looked into Bay of Bulls, arrived off Saint John's harbour, which he blocked up, whilst M. de Ternay lay inside at anchor with a superior squadron. Colonel Amherst, brother to Sir Jeffery, had sent Burne to Louisbourg with orders to get some troops in readiness; on the 11th of September he joined the squadron under Lord Colville's command off Saint John's, with about eight hundred men, chiefly Highlanders, and some provincial light infantry.

The French having stopped up the narrow entrance of Quidy-Vidy, by sinking shallops in the channel, the troops proceeded to Torbay, about seven miles to the northward of Saint John's, where they landed under a galling fire, which continued to annoy the boats until the light infantry compelled the enemy to retire. The latter took to the woods, through which the British force had to go, over hills and difficult passes, under a continual bush-fire, which wounded several of their men. Captain Mac Donald, with his company of light infantry, having succeeded in dispersing the enemy's force, the British troops then advanced rapidly to the strong post of Quidy-Vidy, which they took sword in hand. This advantage opened a communication with the ships, for landing the artillery and stores. They next proceeded to dislodge the enemy from a strong position on a hill on the other side of the pond, from which the French retreated with precipitation, leaving several prisoners behind them. The French were still in possession of two very high and steep hills, the one in the neighbourhood of the English advanced posts, now called Signal-Hill, f om which it was necessary to dislodge them; and this was performed with great resolution and bravery by Captain Mac Donald,

at the head of his own and the provincial light infantry. With this corps, he passed the sentries and advanced guard unobserved, nor was he discovered till the main body of the French saw him climbing up the rocks and almost at the top, when he actually gained it in the midst of the enemy's fire, which he soon returned with such vivacity that the French gave way. In this engagement the gallant Captain received a mortal wound, his Lieutenant and four of his men were killed, and eighteen men were wounded.

On the 16th of September, Colonel Amherst proceeded vigorously in his preparations to attack the fort and town of Saint John's. The breastwork and unfinished battery which commanded the harbour being taken, the guns on Signal-Hill pointed towards the town, and the entrance of the channel cleared of the shallops, which the French Admiral had sunk in it, the rest of the artillery and stores were landed from the ships. This, fortunately for the English, was performed before a violent gale of wind drove Lord Colville to a considerable distance from the coast; the French Admiral, taking advantage of this circumstance, slipped his cables and made his escape under cover of a thick fog, without being seen by the English fleet till he had got too far out

at sea to allow of a pursuit. Indeed, his conduct was so very extraordinary in abandoning a place and garrison which had been entrusted to his protection, that the English could not at first believe that the ships which they descried were those of M. de Ternay.

On the night of the 17th, the Colonel opened a battery with one eight-inch mortar, seven coherns, and six royals; the French at the same time began a brisk fire from the fort, and threw several shells; but, finding themselves abandoned by their fleet, they capitulated on the 20th, in the morning, and surrendered themselves prisoners of war, on condition of being conveyed to Brest by the first opportunity. This condition was immediately complied with by Lord Colville, who had by this time returned into the harbour.

Thus the town and fort of Saint John's, with all the other places which the French had taken on this coast, were recovered by a small number of men, who acted throughout with the greatest resolution, and surmounted many considerable difficulties by dint of indefatigable labour and perseverance. In this expedition Lieutenant Schuyler of the Royal Americans was killed; Captain Mac Donald died of his wounds; Captains Bailie and Mac Kenzie were wounded, but recovered; and

not above twenty men were lost on the part of the English in all the different actions with the French, who are reported to have been a fine body of troops.

It is said that this retaking of Newfoundland was, at that time, highly extolled as "adorning the lustre of the British arms," in a year remarkable for the conquest of Martinique and of all the Caribbees; of the Havannah, with its fleet and rich magazines; and of the Philippines, or Manillas, which is represented as one of the best conducted, most splendid, and most important of all the successes which marked the progress of this glorious war. It is likewise observed by the writers of that period, that, in the retaking of Newfoundland, as well as in the reduction of the Havannah and of the Philippines, the fleet and army co-operated with singular harmony and success; and that both the whole plan and the subordinate parts of these expeditions, were conducted with consummate wisdom and heroic bravery.

With respect to Newfoundland, the French squadron, then in Saint John's, consisted of the Robuste, of seventy-four guns, l'Eveillé, of sixty-four, La Garonne, of forty-four, La Licorne, of thirty, and a bomb-ketch: they had fifteen hundred soldiers, and a proportion-

able quantity of artillery and stores; whilst the English, with an inferior squadron, had only eight hundred soldiers, and these were necessarily divided between Placentia, the island of Boys; and the expedition engaged in the retaking of Saint John's. The French had had sufficient time to strengthen themselves in a place which they had taken without any loss either of men or of ammunition, and to avail themselves of every advantage of a position fortified by nature, and capable of every improvement which art could add to its strength. That the French government was particularly anxious to keep possession of Newfoundland is evident, from the activity with which the French Commandant repaired and added to the fortifications of Saint John's, and also from the circumstance of a large French frigate, bound for that island, with a considerable supply of military stores, which Captain Hervey, afterwards Earl of Bristol, met and took, in the month of September, in his passage from the Havannah to England.

Having paid this just tribute of praise to the officers who eminently distinguished themselves on this occasion, justice requires the honourable mention of two merchants, whose names are still well known and highly respected in Newfoundland, and whose public spirit and

services were essentially useful at that critical time.

One of them was Robert Carter, a merchant at Ferryland, who, by his prudence and indefatigable exertions, found the means to procure a sufficient supply of provisions and other necessaries, for the support, not only of the garrison at the island of Boys, but also of a considerable number of distressed inhabitants, who had retired thither for protection and relief, from the 24th of June to the 9th of October. From the account of the articles thus supplied, during that period, and afterwards certified by four magistrates and principal merchants of Saint John's, to be according to the price current, previous to the arrival of the French squadron on that coast, it appears, that the wholesale prices were as follows, viz.

Bread, 14*s*.—flour, 16*s*.—and cordage, 50*s*. per *cwt*.—Beef, £3, and pork, £4 per *barrel*.—Butter, 9*d*.—cheese, 4*d*.—and nails, 6½*d*. per *lb*.—Sheep, 14*s*. a head, and fire-wood, 15*s*. per 100 sticks.

The other was Charles Garland, then a merchant and Justice of the Peace, in the district of Conception-Bay. Carbonier-Island was then deemed a place where a battery could be useful to the port and to the neighbouring settlements. Mr. Garland supplied, at his own expense, and

for a considerable time, a small detachment which he had obtained from the head-quarters for that small island, with fire-wood, provisions, and additional pay, until the French took it and destroyed the works and batteries. He was also most active and successful in providing, in conformity to a requisition of Governor Graves, a number of seamen from his district, for the English squadron, on condition of being discharged, if they required it, as soon as the people should be enabled to follow their usual business. Mr. Garland was fully indemnified afterwards for his expenses, and his services were most honourably acknowledged by the government.

Another fact relating to a single individual, which I shall beg leave to mention, is, that under the respectable, but, at that time, very inferior character of *Master*, the Northumberland, one of Lord Colville's squadron, contained the, afterwards, justly celebrated CAPTAIN JAMES COOK.

This great and unfortunate officer, to whom it was reserved to prove to the world, by repeated trials, that voyages might be protracted to the unusual length of three and even four years, in unknown regions, and under every change and rigour of climate, not only without affecting the health, but even without diminish-

ing the probability of life in the smallest degree, was, in the year 1758, appointed master of the Northumberland, the flag-ship of Lord Colville, who commanded the squadron stationed on the coast of North America. It was there that, when about thirty years of age, during a severe winter, he first read Euclid, and applied himself to the study of mathematics and astronomy, without any other assistance than what a few books and his own industry afforded him. He remained in that ship until the conclusion of the war, in the year 1763; when, through the recommendation of Lord Colville, and of Governor Graves, he was appointed to survey the Gulf of Saint Lawrence and the coasts of Newfoundland. In this employment he continued till the year 1767, when he was fixed upon by Sir Edward Hawke to command an expedition to the South Seas. The charts, which were drawn from the surveys taken by him at that time, are still held in very high estimation.

Governor Graves, on resuming his command in Saint John's, very humanely directed his attention to the means of alleviating the extreme distress, which had been occasioned by the capture and temporary occupation of that town by the French. The principal inhabitants represented to him, that there was a great number of

distressed Irish servants in the island, without masters, and without means of paying for their passage home; and that there was not provisions enough to subsist even the poorer inhabitants throughout the ensuing winter. They proposed to send as many of them home, as two sloops, then lying up in the harbour of Saint John's, could carry, engaging to furnish a sufficiency of provisions for that voyage. The Governor readily acceded to this proposal, and agreed to take the two sloops into his Majesty's service for that purpose, at the expense of government.

The unexampled success which, in the latter half of the year 1762, had attended the naval and military enterprises of Great Britain, and the consequent losses suffered by France and Spain, produced in the French and Spanish Cabinets an unfeigned inclination to peace, from which the Court of London was not averse. On the 25th of November, his present Majesty declared, from the throne, that "He "had pursued this extensive war in the most "vigorous manner, in hopes of obtaining an "honourable peace; and that, by the prelimi-"nary articles, it would appear that there was "not only an immense territory added to the "empire of Great Britain, but a solid founda-"tion was laid for the increase of trade and

"commerce; and the utmost care had been "taken to remove all occasions of future "disputes between his subjects and those of "France and Spain." This was in reference to the signing of the preliminary articles of peace between the three powers, which had been done at Fontainbleau, on the 3d of the same month. In the course of the negotiations, France unequivocally acknowledged her sense of the importance of her Newfoundland fishery, by accepting that privilege as the compensation for her voluntary unsolicited cession of the whole country of Canada.

By the Definitive Treaty, concluded at Paris, on the 10th of February, in the year 1763, France renounced all pretensions to Nova Scotia, or Acadia, and to Canada, with all their dependencies, as well as to the island of Cape Breton, and all the other islands and coasts in the Gulf and River of Saint Lawrence; and England agreed to grant the liberty of the Catholic Religion to the inhabitants of Canada, as far as the laws of Great Britain permitted. The thirteenth article of the Treaty of Utrecht, relating to the privilege of the French to fish, and dry their fish, on the part of the coasts of Newfoundland therein specified, was renewed and confirmed. The French were also allowed to fish in the Gulf of Saint

Lawrence, but only at the distance of three leagues from all the coasts belonging to Great Britain, as well those of the Continent as those of the islands situated in the said Gulf of Saint Lawrence; and of fifteen leagues from the coasts of the island of Cape Breton. England ceded to France the islands of Saint Pierre and Miquelons in full right, to serve as a shelter to the French fishermen; the King of France engaging not to fortify the said islands, nor to erect any buildings upon them, but such as were necessary for the convenience of the fishery, and to keep upon them a guard of fifty men only for the police. And, by the eighteenth article, the King of Spain desisted from all pretensions to the right of fishing in the neighbourhood of Newfoundland.

By this Treaty, Great Britain acquired a totality of empire in North America, extending from Hudson's Bay to the mouths of the Mississipi. The countries and islands thus ceded were formed into four distinct governments, called by the names of Quebec, East Florida, West Florida, and Grenada. And to the end that the open and free *fishery* of the subjects of Great Britain might be extended to, and carried on, upon the coast of Labrador and the adjacent islands, his Majesty thought fit to put all that coast, from the River Saint

John's to Hudson's Straits, together with the islands upon the said coast, under the care and inspection of his Governor of Newfoundland; while the islands of Saint John's and of Cape Breton, or Isle Royale, with the smaller islands adjacent thereto, were annexed to the government of Nova Scotia.

The title of the Governor of Newfoundland, which was before "Governor and Commander-in-chief in and over the island of Newfoundland, the fort and garrison of Placentia, and all other forts and garrisons erected, or to be erected, on that island," was, in consequence of these new arrangements, changed into that of "Governor and Commander-in-chief in and over the island of Newfoundland in North America; and of all the coast of Labrador, from the entrance of Hudson's Straits to the River Saint John's, opposite the west end of the island of Anticosti, including that island with any other small islands on the said coast of Labrador; also the islands of Madeleine, in the Gulf of Saint Lawrence: and of all the forts and garrisons erected or established, or that shall be erected or established in the said island, or on the coast of Labrador, within the limits aforesaid."

By the Commissions of the Peace then issued, in form generally similar to those used in Eng-

land, "by virtue of the power given and granted unto the said Governor, by letters patent, dated at Westminster, the 30th of March, in the third year of the reign of George the Third, &c." the magistrates appointed in the several districts were directed to take care, that all persons guilty of any capital offence should be carried to the prison at Saint John's, in order to take their trials at the Assizes, yearly to be held there. They were required not to do any thing, by virtue of such commission, contrary or repugnant to the act for encouraging the trade to Newfoundland, passed in the 10th and 11th years of the reign of King William the Third; nor in any manner to obstruct the power thereby given and granted to the admirals of the harbours, or to the captains of his Majesty's ships of war, or any matter or thing prescribed by the said act. They were also directed to appoint some of the inhabitants and planters, residing there in the winter, as constables and other ministers of justice, for the preservation of the peace.

To the power of issuing such commissions, originally granted by letters patent, dated the 31st of May, in the year 1728, to Henry Osborne, then Governor of Newfoundland, and continued to all subsequent Governors, was now added the power and authority to appoint

Judges, and, in certain cases, Commissioners of Oyer and Terminer, who were to meet only once in the year, during the time that the Governor was residing in Saint John's. The Governor was authorized to pardon offenders, and to remit all penalties, forfeitures, and fines, cases of wilful murder only excepted, when he might, however, on extraordinary occasions, grant reprieves. No officer of any ship of war, or trading ship, was to be deprived of life by sentence of such court, before the King's pleasure should be known: and persons accused of treason were to be sent to England for trial, with the witnesses.

The Governor, in his instructions, was particularly enjoined not to permit any officer, soldier, or others, belonging to the garrisons, to be concerned in the fishery, to take up any beaches or fishing-rooms, or to interrupt the fishermen in their business. He was also required to see that the laws against blasphemy and immorality were duly put in force; to report to the Lord Bishop of London any minister of the Established Church who should give scandal by his life or doctrine; and to see that the Lord's day was duly observed.

Governor Graves was further directed, taking the act of King William for his guidance, to inquire into several gross abuses which were

then prevalent, to the great injury and discouragement of the fishery.

The evils which the act of King William was expressly intended to remedy, respecting the engrossing of places convenient for the fishery, had, notwithstanding, continued to exist and to increase. Considerable tracts of land along the water-side, which had originally been fixed upon, on account of their superior convenience for the purposes of the fishery, were either built upon or converted into fields or gardens; the ancient custom of erecting houses, buildings, or enclosures, not immediately connected with the curing and drying of fish, at a suitable distance from the water-side, had long been disregarded. To have merely cleared the ground of a few bushes, to have carried on the fishery for one or more seasons on the same spot, was considered as conveying an exclusive right thereto, though the claimant neither actually used it, nor intended to use it, for the purposes of the fishery. Masters of fishing-ships, not connected with the principal mercantile houses there, though qualified according to the act of King William, frequently found themselves under the necessity of paying an arbitrary rent to some of the inhabitants, for the use of convenient places for the purposes of curing and drying their fish, which were then

unoccupied, rather than injure their voyages by the delay, or expose themselves to the doubtful issue and certain loss of a reference to the Fishing Admirals, or Justices of the Peace, who, besides, might reside at a considerable distance from the spot which they had chosen.

It was said of the Fishing Admirals, and of the Justices of the Peace in the out-harbours, that their decisions and conduct were uniformly characterized by the grossest partiality and injustice. With respect to the former, the owners of their ships, their agents, connexions, and friends, could not possibly be in the wrong in any case; and as to the resident Justices, a quarter-cask of Lisbon or Madeira, a present of some choice spirits, nay, a barrel of apples, a few bottles of West-Indian pickles, as well as the promise of support against all unfavourable representations, and the threat of being turned out of office, or of being *unhorsed*, as they termed it, were the usual grounds of the decisions of those administrators of Justice. Taverns, originally intended for the convenience of people travelling from harbour to harbour, were the common resorts of servants, who obtained there an unlimited credit, the publicans relying upon the influence of their suppliers to enable them to recover, at the fall, the debts so contracted, out of the

servants' wages; as well as upon their extravagant charges, which left them a handsome profit, even if they recovered only one-fourth part of those debts. Employers supplied, likewise, their own servants with mixed liquors, at the *publicans' price*, taking care to reimburse themselves at the fall out of the servants' balance for these articles, as well as for the *neglects* of duty which such a practice necessarily rendered extremely frequent. These charges, together with those for necessary articles supplied during the season, not only completely balanced the accounts between the masters and servants, but frequently left the latter *in debt* to the former. Without employment, and destitute of means of support, the servants readily availed themselves of the facilities afforded by the New England traders to withdraw to the Continent of America; whilst those who were compelled to remain in the island, were either tempted to commit thefts, or other acts of rapine and violence, or obliged, if they could find masters, to hire themselves, on any terms, for the ensuing season; still looking anxiously forward to the means of escaping to the Continent, as the only resource left them to extricate themselves from this state of oppression and distress. Such desertions were, at that time, become so frequent, as to attract

the most serious attention of the British government. It was also a common practice, by warrant under the hand of a *Commissary*, to attach or stop the servants' wages in their masters' hands, at any time during the fishing season, for debts contracted to the publicans, or for balances claimed by their former employers.

The Commissioners of the Admiralty had issued the most express orders to the Governor of the island, to insist upon the masters of fishing-ships bringing home from Newfoundland, at the fall, the number of men which they carried out, but without producing any considerable effect; in fact, the measure was impracticable beyond a very limited extent. When it is considered that, for example, a ship of one hundred and fifty tons burden, engaged in the northern fishery, employed no less than sixty men, in various capacities, how could that ship, laden with fish and oil, be expected to bring home all those men? and still less, if she was bound to a foreign port, or to the West Indies. The author of the "Remarks on the Newfoundland Fishery," asserts that, previous to the act of the 15th Geo. III. which directed, that "the sum of forty shillings should be stopped out of each servant's wages, for the payment of his passage from New-

foundland to his native country, in order to prevent their being left beyond sea, it having caused many to turn pirates and robbers," the fishermen were embarked in ships from Great Britain and Ireland early for the fishing season, and returned the following winter to their respective homes; that ships were prepared in a current manner for the accommodation of servants *from Europe to Newfoundland*, and *back again* from Newfoundland to their native countries, at the end of the season. No allowance seems to be made, in the latter part of this statement, for the different degree of accommodation for such purposes, in vessels going out in ballast, or with a small cargo of goods, and in vessels returning home or going to market with a full cargo of fish and oil. He adds that, a real fisherman never wintered at Newfoundland *from choice* in those days, which is readily admitted, though not in the sense which he means to convey; and what he says farther, that no master ever kept more winter-servants than the occasion of his situation compelled him to do, is a confirmation of the state of wretchedness to which servants were then reduced.

Attempts had been made, at various times, by the Governors of Newfoundland, to open a communication and establish an intercourse

with the native Indians of the island; but hitherto without success. About this time, one Scot, with another ship-master and a strong crew, went from Saint John's to the Bay of Exploits, which was known to be much frequented by the Indians, during the summer-season. Scot and his party having landed at the mouth of the Bay, built there a place of residence, in the manner of a fort. Some days afterwards, a large party of Indians appeared in sight, and made a full stop, none of them showing the least inclination to approach nearer. Scot then proposed to the other ship-master to go among them: the latter advised to go armed; Scot opposed it on the ground that it might create an alarm. They proceeded towards the Indians with part of their crew, without any arms. Scot went up to them, mixed among them with every sign of amity that he could imagine, taking several of them, one after another, by the hand. An old man, in pretended friendship, put his arms round his neck; at the same instant another stabbed Scot in the back; the war-whoop resounded, a shower of arrows fell upon the English, which killed the other ship-master and four of his companions. The rest of the party then hastened to their vessel, and returned to Saint John's, carrying one of those

who had been killed, with the arrows sticking in his body.

Captain Thompson, of his Majesty's ship Lark, was more successful with another tribe. He was cruising, in September, 1763, as Surrogate, along the south-west part of Newfoundland, when he observed a large party of the Indians, called Mickmacks. Having had a conference with their chiefs, he succeeded in concluding with them, in the name of the whole tribe, a treaty, by which they engaged themselves to live in strict friendship with the subjects of Great Britain wheresoever they should meet them, and to give their assistance against the enemies of the King of Great Britain, *as long as the sun and moon should endure.*

It has been already seen, that by the Treaty of Paris, Spain entirely gave up all claims to the privilege of fishing in these latitudes. With respect to France, it had been contended that, should the fish-trade to Newfoundland be allowed to her under any restrictions, this would be giving her the surest and best nursery for seamen, and enabling her to rear again with facility a rival naval power, which it had been one of the greatest advantages reaped by this war to have destroyed; that she would not only aoquire by it this invaluable benefit, but also be enabled

to carry on and enjoy the profits of a superior trade, as she had done formerly. On the other hand, it was observed, that comparative benefits arising to France were an unsure scale of the interests of Great Britain; that things of less value to her might be of an importance to Great Britain, infinitely greater than others which she held at a much higher price; and that the greater or less facility of obtaining certain objects should be rated as constituting no inconsiderable part of their intrinsic value, because they tended to hasten or protract the conclusion of peace, and to prolong or shorten its duration: that the total loss of the Newfoundland fishery would be to France more than any positive gain to England; that France and her islands would be exposed to all the extremities of want, rather than open their markets to British fishermen; that this was true, not of France only, but of Spain, who had, since her declaration of war, prohibited the importation of fish from Newfoundland; and the Pope had freed her subjects, by indulgences, from those fasts which rendered it indispensably necessary. How far the same ecclesiastical policy might prevail in other popish countries (and those of that persuasion are the only customers of England for fish in Europe) could not be foretold; but should an enmity to

heretic England prevail with the see of Rome, to dispense with her own injunctions, and a jealousy of England incline other popish states to avail themselves of such dispensations, instead of acquiring more by an attempt to possess all, England might lose a considerable part, if not the whole of the advantages which she before enjoyed from that fishery.

The first overtures to the Treaty declare, that the privilege of the fishery at Newfoundland was the compensation for Canada, whilst England considered Canada as of considerable value, both as an acquisition of country and as a frontier; and her conquests in North America, in general, as the first and most important objects of that war. The British colonies, thus secured from every hostile attack at the price of British blood and treasure, and of many national advantages which England had it then in her power to exact from France and Spain, were placed in such a situation as no longer required the immediate protection of Great Britain. From that moment they may be said to have obtained independence, when their condition enabled them to assume it.

By a census taken at the close of the year 1763, it appeared that the population of Newfoundland consisted altogether of 13,112 inhabitants, including women and children; of

whom 4795 were Roman Catholics, and 7500 were constant residents in the island. It appeared also that, in the course of that season, there had been made 386,274 quintals of cod-fish, of which 348,294 quintals had been carried to market; 694 tierces of salmon; 1598 tons of train oil; and fur taken by the inhabitants, estimated at the value of about £2000: —and that there were 106 ships qualified, according to the act of King William, for carrying on the fishery; 123 sack-ships, that is, vessels coming to Newfoundland for the sole purpose of purchasing fish ready made; and 142 ships from the British American colonies. Of the number of quintals of fish stated above, 235,944 had been caught and cured by the resident inhabitants of the island. No mention was then made of a *seal*-fishery there; but it was thought that a very considerable whale and sea-cow fishery might be carried on in the Gulf of Saint Lawrence, and upon the coast of Labrador.

CHAPTER IX.

1763—1775.

THE Treaty of Paris, after many warm debates, had, at length, obtained the sanction of both Houses, and the animated warfare between political writers on this subject had ceased, in some degree, to agitate the public mind. The pacific intentions of the French and Spanish Courts had been sufficiently manifested in every transaction since the conclusion of the Treaty; and, if any doubt could have remained of the sincerity of those intentions, it must have been completely removed by the known strength of the British navy in the parts where those powers were most vulnerable. Nevertheless, a considerable degree of dissatisfaction still prevailed among the people. The Earl of Bute, under whose auspices the peace had been made, had never been popular; and the judicious liberal spirit which had dictated the conditions of the Treaty, was considered as a mean surrender of the many important advantages which might

easily have been obtained from the decided superiority of England at the termination of the contest. The "North Briton" of John Wilkes, which, in hatred to that minister, who was a native of Scotland, revived those national distinctions which ought to have slept for ever, from the time that Great Britain became united under one Sovereign; and the satirical publications of Churchill, added fresh fuel to the ferment. Just at this critical time, a sloop of war arrived at Portsmouth from Newfoundland, with the intelligence that the French had a formidable fleet on that coast; that, in opposition to the positive stipulations of the late Treaty, they had manifested an intention to fortify the island of Saint Peter's; and that the British squadron, on that station, was by no means in a condition to prevent that measure. As soon as this intelligence became public, an immediate war with France was pronounced to be unavoidable, unless the British government were disposed to sacrifice all the advantages which had been obtained by the peace. Commodore, afterwards Sir Hugh Palliser, then Governor of Newfoundland, despatched a sloop of war to the French Governor at Saint Peter's, to inquire into the truth of these reports, and to know whether he had mounted cannon and erected works on that island. The French Governor

answered by assurances, that he had no more than one four-pounder mounted, without a platform, and with no other intention than to make signals, and to answer those which were made by the fishing-ships; that the guard had never exceeded fifty men; and that no works or buildings whatever had been erected contrary to the Treaty. A ship of fifty guns, a frigate of twenty-six guns, and another of inferior force, formed their whole strength; Captain Palliser was also assured that none of those vessels had ever attempted, or would ever attempt, to enter into any of the harbours on the coast of Newfoundland.

Thus ended an affair which had threatened both hemispheres with the renewal of the horrors of war. The origin of this mistake could never be satisfactorily traced to its source. All the information that can be obtained from historians on this subject is, that the suspicions had arisen from the haughty, reserved, or equivocal conduct of the captain of the French fifty-gun ship on that station.

The considerable increase of the British Newfoundland fishery, since the last peace, may easily be estimated from the following short statement of the number of quintals of fish carried to market, viz.

In 1763..348,294, as stated by Governor Graves, and
1764..470,118, } as stated by Governor
1765..493,654, } Palliser.
making a difference between 1763 and 1765 of 145,360 quintals.

Captain Palliser was Governor of Newfoundland from the year 1764 to the year 1768, both inclusive. When about thirty-five years of age, in the year 1756, he had received, in a desperate action in the Mediterranean, with a frigate of superior force, a severe wound in the leg, which, baffling all the skill of the faculty, subjected him ever after to ceaseless torture, and eventually occasioned his death in March, 1796. He was, notwithstanding, indefatigable in business, and acquired a considerable degree of experience and knowledge in the various concerns of the fishery. The wise and salutary laws which he afterwards caused to be enacted for the benefit of the Newfoundland trade, and the protection of the fishermen, were proofs of a sound mind and of a just and humane disposition. He had sufficient opportunities to observe the confusion which prevailed there among all classes of persons, and a corresponding degree of humanity and patience to investigate, in order to find out a remedy for the enormous abuses which existed,

at that time, in the island. He appears, likewise, to have been ably supported in his views by the captains of his squadron, whom he sent as Surrogates to the different out-harbours.

Sir Hugh Palliser was succeeded, in the year 1769, by the Honourable Captain John Byron, a son of William Lord Byron, and who has left the reputation of a brave and excellent officer. He is well known for the important share which he had in the voyage of discovery made under the command of Commodore Anson, and still more for the result of a similar voyage to the unexplored parts of the southern hemisphere, under his own command, during the years 1764, 1765, and 1766, the plan of which had been formed soon after the accession of his present Majesty to the throne. Governor Byron shewed himself in no respect inferior to his predecessor, during the time of his government of Newfoundland.

The spirit of insubordination which, since the year 1764, had been rapidly increasing in the British North American colonies, had, as it might be expected, communicated some of its baneful influence to Newfoundland. The year 1765 had been remarkable for several acts of open violence throughout the island.

In Conception-Bay, in particular, a formidable riot had taken place, in which the authority of the magistrates and constables was set at defiance, and their persons most grossly insulted in the execution of their office. Twelve of the principal offenders having been at last apprehended and brought to Saint John's, were tried and condemned to suffer corporal punishment, both in that town and at Harbour-Grace. But now, it was not only the lower classes, which, driven to desperation, disturbed the public peace; some of the principal merchants manifested the same spirit, and the custom-house became the grand object of their attacks, and the ostensible pretence of their declared opposition to the measures of government.

This custom-house had been established in Saint John's, in the year 1764, in consequence of several attempts that had been made to introduce contraband goods into the island: a building had been erected for that purpose, a Collector appointed under the Commissioners of the custom-house at Boston, and the establishment was soon after completed by the appointment of a Comptroller. This measure, as calculated to protect the fair trader, had at first been generally approved by the people concerned in the Newfoundland trade. But

the cry of "no taxation," which resounded from every part of the British Empire in America, in consequence of the well-known *Stamp-Act*, reached also Newfoundland. The custom-house there was then loudly complained of as an infringement of the rights of a *free* fishery, and its *fees* as an unjustifiable *tax* on the fishery and trade.

Petitions were presented to the government at home for removing it altogether, on the ground that the act of the 2d and 3d of Edward the Sixth had declared illegal all admiralty fees on ships employed in this fishery; that the act of the 15th of Charles the Second forbids all persons whatever from taking, levying, or collecting any duty, or toll, or causing the same to be done in Newfoundland, on any kind of fish; and that, Newfoundland being a fishery, and all ships and *goods* imported there, being for the use of that fishery, no ship there could be liable to custom-house fees.

These arguments had a great appearance of plausibility: one very important distinction was, however, overlooked in this mode of reasoning, namely, that of articles which were really and strictly necessary for the fishery, within the intent of the 10th and 11th of

William III. such as composed the lading of *banking* vessels, and the mixed cargoes which it had since been customary to import into the island for the convenience of the inhabitants in general. This last description of imports had, of course, been increasing in proportion to the number and wealth of the population, and justly subjected that part of the Newfoundland trade to the provisions of the acts of parliament, either general or special, respecting the colonial trade.

The consequence of these petitions was, that, in the year 1772, government, after having taken the opinion of the crown lawyers, directed Commodore Molineux, afterwards Lord Shuldham, then Governor of Newfoundland,* to issue circular letters to the merchants of the several harbours, with positive orders that the officers of the customs there should be paid the legal fees to which they were entitled by act of parliament, as set forth in a table with

* In the Otter sloop of war, on that station, Sir Roger Curtis was Lieutenant. It was there that his professional abilities first attracted the attention of Governor Shuldham, whose unlimited confidence he soon acquired, as he did afterwards that of Earl Howe, by his judicious, able, and gallant conduct, at a time when the troubles in the American colonies rendered that service admirably adapted to call forth and display the talents of young officers.

which those officers were then furnished for their government, on all ships and vessels which had been entered and departed the said harbours, since the appointment of Commodore Shuldham to that government, or which might hereafter enter and depart the said ports.

This measure produced, at the time, the desired effect; but, in the following year, an action having been brought against the Comptroller of the Customs for the amount of some goods, purchased by him at a public sale, of the effects of a bankrupt, occasion was taken, from some countercharges for fees of office during the three preceding years, to contest the legality, not of the counter-charges as a proper set-off in the present case, but of the *custom-house* itself; and the Judge of the Vice-Admiralty Court, before whom this cause was tried, and who had called in the assistance of two merchants of Saint John's "to give their opinions in this cause," as the record expresses it, openly and unequivocally allowed the validity of the plea, that "it was doubtful whether Newfoundland were included in the acts of parliament respecting the officers of the customs in the colonies of America."

We are now arrived at the awful epoch of that explosion, which seemed, for a time, to threaten the very existence of the British empire with

inevitable destruction, and which, by transplanting into the very countries of Europe, from which it afterwards derived its chief support, those principles of republicanism and anarchy, which had so long disturbed the peace and good government of the American Colonies, was eventually to spread the baneful ravages of revolutions, and, for the space of twenty-five years, to drench with blood the fairest fields of the Continent of Europe.

In consequence of the wise and liberal policy of England towards those colonies, they had increased in numbers, wealth, and resources, with a rapidity which surpassed all previous calculation. They had advanced nearly to the magnitude of a nation, while the greater part of Europe was almost wholly ignorant of their progress; nor do they themselves appear, while gradually rising higher in the scale of political importance, to have been sensible of their own consequence. Feeling their dependence for protection on the mother-country, so long as they saw themselves surrounded by powerful rivals; as soon as the treaty of Paris had put an end to all apprehensions from that quarter, from that moment they may be said to have obtained their independence. That restless disposition, which had hitherto manifested itself by continual con-

tentions between the legislatures of the provinces and their respective governors, soon assumed a more formidable appearance after the passing of the Stamp-act, which required, that bonds and certain other instruments of writing, in order to be valid, should be drawn on stamped paper on which a duty was laid. This act was repealed in the following year; but this measure did not allay, in a material degree, the spirit of dissatisfaction, which, four years after, broke out with irresistible violence on the passing of another act, which imposed a duty of three-pence per pound on all tea imported into the colonies. This was followed by open acts of insubordination, an avowed determination to resist by force the measures of the British Government, and, at last, a revolution, which, from Boston, flew like an electrical shock throughout a considerable extent of British America. Although Nova Scotia and Canada, as well as Newfoundland, successfully resisted all attempts to induce them to enter into the association, yet the interruption of trade, and the total deprivation of supplies from the other colonies, which this new state of things occasioned, produced, particularly in that island, a degree of distress which has, even to this day, left there the most painful recollections.

The first act of the "General Congress," which met at Philadelphia, on the 5th day of September, in the year 1774, was the publication of an address to the people of Great Britain, which, among other things, contained the information that "they had suspended their importation from the British dominions; and that, in less than a year's time, unless their grievances were redressed, they would likewise discontinue their *exports* to those countries." This resolution, in which the inhabitants of Newfoundland were peculiarly concerned, inasmuch as they had hitherto been in the habit of procuring the greatest part of their provisions from those colonies, was actually carried into effect against them by the second, or "Continental Congress," in the month of May following. This Congress having met at Philadelphia, on the 10th of that month, two memorials were presented, on the 15th, by some merchants of that town, respecting cargoes which they had purchased with the intention to send them to Newfoundland, and which had been stopped by the committee of that city;—and, on the 17th, it was "unanimously resolved, that all exportations to Quebec, Nova Scotia, the Island of Saint John, Newfoundland, Georgia, and the Floridas, should immediately cease; and that

no provisions of any kind, or other necessaries, should be furnished to the British fisheries on the American coasts, until it should be otherwise determined by the Congress," that is, until those colonies should have consented to join the association. So determined were they to enforce this measure with the utmost rigour, that, in order to prevent such supplies being clandestinely obtained by the British fishermen from or through Nantucket, an island belonging to the State of Massachusetts, and situated about eight leagues to the southward of Cape-Cod, it was further ordered by the Congress, on the 29th of the same month, that " no provisions, or other necessaries of any kind, should be exported to that island, except from the colony of Massachusetts-Bay, and that, only as much as should be necessary for its internal use, and no more." It was further stated in this order, that " the Congress, deeming it of great importance to North America that the British fishery should not be furnished with provisions from the continent through Nantucket, earnestly recommended a vigilant execution of this resolve to all committees."

This sudden suspension of the usual supplies was particularly distressing to the inhabitants and fishermen of Newfoundland; so that,

in order to prevent an absolute famine, several ships put immediately to sea in ballast for Ireland, to procure provisions.

From this time, all commerce and communication ceased between Newfoundland and the American colonies which had consented to the object and terms of the association; and from which that island is said to have hitherto annually imported produce to an amount nearly equal to that of her imports from Great Britain and Ireland, namely, upwards of three hundred and forty-five thousand pounds sterling.

These measures of the Continental Congress against Newfoundland and the British fisheries in North America, and the severity with which they were enforced, led to the passing of the act of the 15 Geo. III. cap. 10, by which the colonies that had joined the Association, were prohibited from coming to the fisheries in those seas; and this was in December followed by another, prohibiting all trade and intercourse whatever with them.

In the same year was also passed the act of the 15 Geo. III. cap. 31, commonly called "Sir Hugh Palliser's Act," which forms an important epoch in the History of Newfoundland.

The British parliament, in making regulations for the revenue on *salt*, usually granted

certain allowances on the exportation of salted fish, which operated in the nature of a *bounty*. By the 5 Geo. I. cap. 18, the collectors of the salt-duties were directed to allow five shillings per hundred of cod-fish of a certain size exported from Great Britain. The next experiment was to encourage, by *direct* bounties, the *fitting-out* for the purpose of these fisheries. This was first done in 1733, respecting the whale-fishery, and, by Sir Hugh Palliser's act, extended to the Newfoundland BANK fishery, carried on in vessels which had cleared out from the British *European* dominions, and which had complied with the conditions required in the act. The privilege of landing and drying fish on the *shores* of Newfoundland was confined to British subjects arriving there from British Europe. Ships duly qualified might occupy for the fishery any part of the island not in actual use for that purpose, and were declared not to be liable to any restraint with respect to *days* or hours *of working*.

This last clause has frequently given offence to well-meaning people in Newfoundland. It is probable that the contentions between masters and servants, of which an extreme tenderness of conscience on this point might have been either the cause or the pretence, in a concern which demands so much attention and

continual care as the fishery carried on at Newfoundland, could not have been quieted by any other method. L'Abbé Raynal seems also to throw some light on this subject, when, among the many grievances of which he pretends that the French fishermen there had, at that time, reason to complain, he says, that "the English Fishing Admirals carried the insolence of superiority so far as to forbid the French fishermen to fish for cod on a *Sunday*, upon the pretence that their own abstained from catching any on that day."

The same act made the master of any vessel that should, without the Governor's leave, carry as passengers from any place within the government of Newfoundland, any sailors or other persons employed in the fisheries, to the Continent of America, liable to a penalty of two hundred pounds. It directed all agreements between masters and servants to be made in writing; fixed the rate of deductions to be made from the servants' wages, in cases of absence without leave or of neglects of duty; and the punishment to be inflicted on them when they deserted from their employers. It provided that no more than one-half of the wages should, at any time, be advanced to them; and that the other half should be fully paid them immediately at the expiration of the

covenanted time of service, in money or in bills of exchange, payable in the country to which such servants respectively belonged, a certain sum being first deducted for their passage home. Lastly, it declared all the fish and oil taken and made by the employer liable, in the first place, to the payment of the servants' wages.

These excellent regulations were intended and well calculated, if duly observed and enforced, to put an effectual stop to the perpetual contentions and disappointments which had hitherto prevailed between the masters and the servants; and to encourage the latter to fidelity and industry, by the certainty of being paid the price of their labour at the expiration of their time of servitude, and of receiving a balance which would enable them to maintain themselves and their families at home, during the ensuing winter.

Commodore Robert Duff was, at this time, Governor of the island. From a proclamation issued by him in the month of July, 1775, it appears, that considerable salmon fisheries were then carried on in Freshwater-Bay, Gander-Bay, the Bay of Exploits, and several other places on the north-eastern part of Newfoundland, which, it was said, might be greatly extended and improved. This proclamation

established several excellent regulations, framed upon the principles and enactments of Sir Hugh Palliser's Act, and equally intended for giving an advantage and a security to the fishery carried on from the mother-country.

CHAPTER X.

1776—1793.

On the 11th of April, 1776, the American Congress issued commissions to the privateers in their service against the ships and vessels belonging to the inhabitants and subjects of Great Britain. Newfoundland, though protected by a strong naval force, could not escape the depredations of those privateers. Well acquainted with her several settlements, harbours, coves, and creeks, which they were before in the habit of frequenting, as British subjects, for the purposes of the fishery, they used to seize vessels and goods at the very wharfs of the merchants, and to carry their depredations along the coast in small fast-sailing vessels, even in sight of the larger men of war, which, from their superior size and draught of water, could not reach beyond a certain distance to the shore. Harbour-Grace, Carbonier, and other parts of Conception-Bay, were at first considerable sufferers; but small

batteries, erected on Carbonier island, and on a rising ground which commanded the bar or channel into the port of Harbour-Grace, contributed, in a considerable degree, to the security of those two harbours. A good spirit appears to have prevailed at that time in the district of Conception-Bay, to which several loyal Americans had previously retired.

This year is also remarkable in the History of Newfoundland, 1st. for affording the first instance of an officer of a higher rank than that of captain or commodore being appointed to that government, in the person of Rear-Admiral Montague; a proof of the increasing consequence of its trade and fisheries in the opinion of the British government: and 2dly. for an exertion of the humane solicitude of his Majesty in behalf of the native *Savages* of that island.

On the 6th of May, 1776, Governor Montague issued a proclamation, in which it was stated, that "it had been represented to his Majesty that his subjects residing in Newfoundland, instead of cultivating such friendly intercourse with the native Savages inhabiting the island, as might be for their mutual benefit, treated the said Savages with the greatest inhumanity, and, in some instances, had destroyed them without the least provocation;

that it was his Majesty's royal will and pleasure that he, the Governor, should express his Majesty's abhorrence of such inhuman barbarity." These representations, which, upon strict inquiry, have been found to be greatly exaggerated, originated in occurrences which were frequently the unavoidable consequence of accidental meetings in the northern parts of the island, during the winter season, between the people who were left there for the purpose of collecting furs, and the native Indians, who have ever been known to attack and pursue, with savage ferocity, all strangers, whether Europeans, or belonging to any of the tribes on the opposite Continent. This perpetual state of warfare was thought, in some instances, to have led to acts of unprovoked aggression on the part of the furriers, exceeding the exact limits of the natural principle of self-defence, which, however, of itself was a sufficient motive to abstain from such acts of unprovoked aggression. The proclamation concluded with strictly enjoining and requiring all his Majesty's subjects to live in amity with the said Savages; and all officers and magistrates to use their utmost diligence to discover and apprehend all persons who might be guilty of murdering any of the said Indians, so that such offenders might be sent over to England for trial, as

directed by the statute of the 10th and 11th of William III.

The affairs on the Continent of America had, at this time, taken such a turn as to exclude all hopes of a reconciliation. The States, by an act of the Congress, on the 4th of July, 1776, were declared free and independent; and there soon appeared, from various circumstances, strong grounds to apprehend that France, notwithstanding her strong and reiterated assurances, by her Ambassador in London, of her friendly and peaceable dispositions towards England, would, ere long, take an active part in the contest in favour of the colonies. These apprehensions were considerably increased by the sudden departure of all the French fishing-ships and vessels from the banks and coast of Newfoundland, in the beginning of the month of October, 1777; which was found to have been in consequence of an order from De Sartine, the French Minister of Marine, which had been communicated to them by the commander of a French frigate sent for that purpose. This order was dated from Versailles, August 24th, 1777.

So sudden and unprecedented a measure was considered as a strong indication of an immediate rupture with Great Britain. It

was remembered that at the commencement of the preceding war, the English ministry had taken care to seize the French vessels and sailors employed in the Newfoundland fishery; a stroke of policy which France felt severely at that time, and which, it was supposed, the French ministry were now determined to avoid. On the 6th of February following, a treaty of amity and commerce between France and the United States of America was signed, of which the Marquis de Noailles, the French Ambassador at the Court of London, gave an official notice on the 13th of March, and, on the 20th of the same month, the Marquis set off for Paris, in consequence of an order from his Court for his immediate departure.

As soon as information was received in Newfoundland that hostilities had been commenced by Count d'Estaing in North America, Governor, now Vice-Admiral Montague, issued orders for the reduction of the islands of Saint Peter and Miquelons, the inhabitants of which, to the number of 1932, were sent to France. He was succeeded in the government, in the year 1779, by Rear-Admiral Edwards, whose squadron was uncommonly successful during that summer, and, in the course of the year 1780, in the number of privateers and other vessels captured, both French and Americans.

In the year 1782, Vice-Admiral John Campbell was appointed Governor of Newfoundland, an officer of remarkable simplicity of manners, and well known in the naval history of Great Britain for his bravery, particularly in the defeat of the Marquis de Conflans, in the year 1759, by the fleet under the command of Sir Edward Hawke. Vice-Admiral Campbell was continued in that Government during the unusual term of four years. His secretary was Mr. Aaron Graham, whose name is still remembered with respect in Newfoundland, and stands high in the list of the able and active gentlemen who had before and have since filled that important office.

The Newfoundland trade and fisheries being, at this time, entirely in the hands of Great Britain, assumed a degree of importance superior to what they had enjoyed at any former period. And although, at the conclusion of the American war, France and the United States were re-admitted to a participation in these fisheries, yet the British fishery continued to maintain a decided superiority over that of the rival powers.

By the treaties of 1783, the United States were allowed the privilege of *fishing* on the same footing as previous to the war; but they

could *cure* and *dry* their fish on the British North American shores, only in the *unsettled* bays, harbours, and creeks of Nova Scotia, the Magdalen islands, and the coast of Labrador. The stipulations of the Treaty of Utrecht respecting Newfoundland were fully confirmed, with one important exception, namely, that the King of France, "in order to *prevent quarrels* which had hitherto arisen between the two nations of England and France, renounced the right of fishing from Cape Bonavista to Cape Saint John, granted him by the Treaty of Utrecht, and agreed, that henceforth the French fishery should commence at the said *Cape Saint John*, situated on the eastern coast of Newfoundland, in about *fifty* degrees of north latitude, and going round to the north, and down the western coast of Newfoundland, should have for boundary the place called *Cape Ray*, situated in *forty-seven* degrees fifteen minutes of north latitude." This new arrangement, by clearly defining the limits of the French shore of Newfoundland, put an end to the last source of contention in those distant countries, between the two kingdoms, arising from uncertainty of boundaries, and to the perpetual quarrels that had prevailed on that account among the English and French fisher-

men there, from the time of the conclusion of the Treaty of Utrecht, to the commencement of the war with France in the year 1778.

The increase of the British Newfoundland fisheries, from this time, may be estimated from a comparison of the quantity of dried cod-fish carried to *foreign* markets (in addition to the fish and oil sent to British Europe) in the two years following the peace of 1763 and that of 1783. From the official returns made by Sir Hugh Palliser and by Governor Campbell, it appears, that the number of *quintals* of dry cod-fish sent from Newfoundland to foreign markets, amounted, in the years

1764,	1784,	1765,	1785,
to 470,118	497,884	493,654	591,276.

In the year 1785, an act was passed for regulating the intercourse between Newfoundland and the United States of America, which limited the importation from the States into that island, to bread, corn, and live stock. To these Indian corn was afterwards added by another act, and such importation was directed to be made only in vessels British built and owned, and navigated according to law, which should have cleared out within seven months before such importation, from some port of the British dominions in Europe, with a license

from the Commissioners of the Customs in Great Britain, or of the Revenue in Ireland.

Early in the year 1786, the encouragement of the British fisheries, both at home and abroad, was amply considered by parliament. In the course of the debates which took place in March and April on the Newfoundland fisheries in particular, it appeared that the Right Honourable Mover, on the subject of the British fisheries in general, Mr. Jenkinson, had taken a principal share in preparing and conducting through the House, with the assistance of Admiral Sir Hugh Palliser, the Newfoundland Bill passed in the year 1775. The Right Honourable Gentleman manifested, on this occasion, the same sense of the importance, and a perfect knowledge of the nature and management, of the Newfoundland fishery, as well as of the pernicious tendency of the system on which it had hitherto been carried on, with respect to the discouragements given to adventurers from British Europe. It then appeared, from the accounts of the preceding year, that the gain upon that trade to this country amounted annually, at least, to five hundred thousand pounds sterling; and that Ireland also was a considerable gainer by this trade, as she supplied Newfoundland with all her salted

provisions. Having stated these facts, in order to manifest the great importance of the object, he then proceeded to the principles on which he thought it advisable to regulate that fishery, the most essential of which was to preserve it entirely a *British fishery*; for, no sooner was New England colonized, than the colonists took the fisheries on their coasts into their own hands, and Old England lost them.

It was also stated, that France had thought it necessary to encourage her fishing trade by a bounty of ten livres per quintal, on all fish caught by her fishermen and brought into her islands and provinces; and that she had laid a duty of only five livres per quintal, on all fish brought either into her colonies or her provinces by foreign vessels; this was considered as a proof of the debility of the state of the French fisheries, by evincing that the fish which they supplied was insufficient for their own consumption; for otherwise, it was said, France would, like Great Britain, have laid an actual prohibition on the importation of all fish into her colonies in foreign vessels.

A writer of those times observes, that there never was a ministry who so effectually manifested their sense of the importance of keeping constantly in view the interests of the British navy, than the then servants of the crown.

They not only kept in pay about four thousand seamen more than were retained after the treaty of 1763; but they exerted themselves to enlarge trade, and to give encouragement to those *inclined to adventure* in any of the seas in which the English had a right to fish; and, consequently, they took the most effectual of all steps to promote navigation, and to pave the way to success and victory in future naval operations.

A new act was then passed, the 26th Geo. III. cap. 26, which continued for a further period of ten years, the bounties granted to the fishery carried on on the *banks* of Newfoundland, by the 15th Geo. III. cap. 31, with considerable improvements on the provisions of the latter act. The hitherto unbounded jurisdiction of the Court of Vice-Admiralty was now abridged, by reserving exclusively to the Courts of Session the power of inquiring and determining all disputes between masters and servants; and hence arose a most formidable opposition to the new regulations, from the person who then held the office of Commissary and Judge of the Vice-Admiralty Court in Saint John's, and from his deputies in the out-harbours.

The difficulties which Rear-Admiral Elliot, at this time Governor of Newfoundland, had to encounter in his endeavours to establish

order and justice, were such as must have discouraged and disgusted a man of less judgment, prudence, and perseverance, than he fortunately possessed. The records of the courts there, particularly of those of Saint John's and of Harbour-Grace, during the years 1786, 1787, and 1788, develope a system of audacious and persevering resistance to the arrangements introduced by the new act, which almost exceeds credibility. But, although Governor Elliot was very far from completely succeeding in this important work, he, however, materially contributed to facilitate the more effectual improvements which were afterwards made by Chief-Justice Reeves. He was ably supported in this arduous task by his secretary, Mr. Aaron Graham, and by Captains Edward Packenham and Robert Carthew Reynolds, who were employed as his Surrogates in the principal out-harbours.

Much of the confusion which prevailed at that time in the island arose from the want of a distinct court for the trial of civil actions, and from the consequent unlimited extension of the authority of the Courts of Session. In order to remedy this deficiency, Admiral Mark Milbanke, appointed Governor in the year 1789, established, on his arrival at Newfoundland, a Court of Common Pleas. This wise in-

stitution, however, far from allaying, on the contrary, increased the spirit of opposition which had hitherto been directed against the other courts of justice. An important advantage had been gained by the removal of the former Judge of the Court of Vice-Admiralty; and now the great and decisive blow was struck, by the removal of the Registrar, or Clerk, of that Court. Thus Mr. Aaron Graham, the Governor's Secretary, had, at last, completely cut the Gordian knot. But his spirited exertions excited considerable alarm among the determined friends of the "good old customs." Representations, petitions, and complaints, poured in copious streams into the office of the Board of Trade, who, after a patient and minute investigation, made a report to his Majesty, which was afterwards printed by order of the House of Commons. They recommended that his Majesty would appoint, or expressly authorize the Governor to appoint, a Court of Civil Jurisdiction in Newfoundland, which was accordingly done in the year 1790. This Court was directed to proceed in a *summary* way, in consideration of the complaints which had been made to the Lords of the Council of "the frequent holding of courts, and of the people being continually called from their business to attend on juries."

This subject being again taken up by the Board of Trade, a bill was presented to parliament, under their direction, in 1791, for instituting there a Court of Civil Jurisdiction, consisting of a Chief-Justice, appointed by his Majesty, and two Assessors named by the Governor of the island. Being intended as an experiment, this act was made to continue for one year only. The result of this experiment occasioned another act to pass, in the year 1792, for instituting a Court of Criminal and Civil Jurisdiction, under the name of the "Supreme Court of Judicature of the Island of Newfoundland." This also was only for one year. A gentleman, eminently qualified in every respect for the important office, was then appointed Chief-Justice of Newfoundland, with directions from government to observe the state of the fisheries, to inquire into the customs and usages of the several courts there, and to make, on his return, at the close of that season, a report of the result of his observations.

CHIEF-JUSTICE REEVES, on his arrival at Saint John's, found that Mr. Aaron Graham, under the auspices of Admirals Elliot and Milbanke, had, in a great measure, cleared the way before him. His prudent, polite, and, at the same time, firm and precise manner, soon silenced all impertinence, and shamed all attempts at opposi-

tion. After having established order and confidence there, he proceeded to Conception-Bay, a part of the island which he clearly saw had not been visited by Mr. Aaron Graham, or in the least benefited by his exertions. The spirit and practices of the former Court of Vice-Admiralty; the unbounded voracity of the Court of Session, which still took in every description of causes, not even excepting such as had already been determined by some of the Floating Surrogates; the perpetual and disgraceful squabbles between the four magistrates of that district, who agreed only on one point, namely, universal uncontroled empire; all these struck him at once on the day of his arrival there. He remained a few days in this district, during which his time was fully employed; and his presence being required at Saint John's, Captain Graham Moore was sent as Surrogate, and continued in Conception-Bay, where he held Court from the 18th to the 27th of September, 1792.

The Chief-Justice, whose knowledge, activity, and penetration, were fully adequate to the arduous and complicated task which he had undertaken, collected a mass of information from the records of the several courts there, which, with his own observations and the Newfoundland entries and bundles among the

records of the late Board of Trade, and of the Committees of Council for Trade and Plantations, he digested the following winter into "A History of the Government of Newfoundland," which he published in the spring of the year 1793. This same year, in the month of June, was passed the memorable act of the 33d Geo. III. cap. 76, by which the administration of justice in Newfoundland was established upon a sure and permanent ground, and the wisest and most equitable regulations. This act, which may justly be considered as forming, with Sir Hugh Palliser's act, a complete system of jurisprudence for that island, though made, like those of 1791 and 1792, for one year only, was by experience found so very beneficial to the trade and fisheries of the island, as to be continued, from time to time,* until the year 1809, when, by the 49th Geo. III. cap. 27, the Courts of Judicature, which had been instituted under that act, were made perpetual.

The clause in the act of 1793, relating to cases of insolvency and the manner in which the ancient custom of the island, mentioned in a preceding chapter,† is there explained and

* Viz. by acts passed in 1794, 1795, 1796, 1799, 1803, and 1806.

† Page 152.

confirmed, have very justly been pointed out as deserving peculiar notice. In order to prevent the British, as well as the Newfoundland creditors, from being injured by *fraudulent bankruptcies*, the act of 1809 extended, in such cases, the jurisdiction of the Supreme and Surrogate Courts of Newfoundland, and the effects of certificates granted there to debts contracted in Great Britain and Ireland.

CHAPTER XI.

1793—1818.

THE government of England appears, from a very early period, to have entertained a just sense of the importance of the fisheries and trade of Newfoundland. But many causes conspired to prevent them from obtaining the degree of information which was requisite to enable them to derive from them all the national advantages of which they might have been the source. The insulated situation of Newfoundland, its vast distance from the mother-country, the character under which it was industriously represented, of a mere barren contemptible rockly island, where, during the greatest part of the year,

> Sad Winter reigns, with all his gloomy train,
> Vapours, and fogs, and storms.

All these circumstances furnished to a few individuals an opportunity of engrossing in their own hands the trade and the government of that island.

As soon as a new Governor arrived, he was immediately surrounded by a number of individuals, who had preconcerted the impressions with which they hastened to prepossess his mind; while those who were capable of giving useful information were studiously kept at a distance from him by every art that ingenuity could devise. If he was disposed to be flattered by an appearance of popularity, all he had to do was to remain quiet, let things go in their usual course, and refer any petition that might be presented to him to the court which was most in favour with those around him.

But, if a Governor came there with his mind prepared by previous information, and determined to do his duty, then he must have been well aware of the necessity of being on his guard against the insinuations and artifices of those who might think it their interest to impose upon his feelings, or his credulity, on his arrival there. He would persevere in doing what he judged to be right, in spite of all discouragements, of all opposition, and of all attempts to lead him astray; and he certainly would do essential good. Such had been Sir Hugh Palliser, Admiral Elliot, and Admiral Milbanke. These were eminently useful in affording to government more correct informa-

tion on the state of things in Newfoundland than they had before been able to obtain, and by that means, in essentially contributing to those important improvements in the administration of justice in that island, which have been adopted by the legislature since the time of Governor Palliser. It is, however, proper to observe, that these excellent Governors were fortunate in having in their secretaries men well-informed, active, and persevering. Sir Hugh Palliser had a most valuable assistant in Mr. John Horsenaile; and Admirals Elliot and Milbanke, in Mr. Aaron Graham, who, happily for Newfoundland, was continued in that office under both Governors, as was afterwards Mr. Joseph Trounsell, a gentleman of equal worth and ability, under Admirals Gambier and Sir Erasmus Gower.

Let us, nevertheless, acknowledge that Chief-Justice Reeves most justly holds the first place among these benefactors of the island of Newfoundland. The very great importance of the improvements in the administration of justice there introduced, on the recommendation of that gentleman, by the act of the 33d Geo. III. cap. 76, will appear evident, when we consider, in addition to the advantages which the whole population in general has derived from them in

the more complete and more distinct distribution of judicial authority among the several courts, and in the more effectual preservation of public order and peace,—that the Newfoundland fishery is, of itself, a very simple concern, requiring only a judicious and impartial administration of justice, calculated to inspire general confidence, and to secure to every one his just rights: but this is of the highest importance to its prosperity. From the vast amount of the property which is annually engaged by the merchants and planters in that fishery, on the mere probability of a successful season,—the many uncertainties to which it is liable from a variety of unavoidable accidents,—and the great fatigue, labour, care, and perseverance which it requires, it is obviously of the first consequence that the merchants, the planters, and the servants, should be equally and effectually protected against any loss or discouragement which might arise from unfair dealings, dishonesty, or wilful neglects, in any of the parties with whom they are thus connected.

The importance of those improvements was soon manifested by the unprecedented increase in the fisheries and trade of Newfoundland, which is most satisfactorily proved by a statement published in the year 1796, when some

serious apprehensions were entertained in England respecting the safety of that island.

"To give," says the writer, "a proper idea of the trade of the island of Newfoundland and its consequence to this kingdom, the following is a statement of its produce and of the property employed therein, during the last year, viz. 1795:

400 sail of shipping; 38,000 tons, at per ton, £7.

500,000 quintals of dry fish, at per quintal, 18*s*.

3700 frails of salmon, at per frail, 40*s*.

1000 barrels of herrings, at 10*s*.

3300 tons of oil, at £25 per ton.

4900 seal-skins, at £4.

2000 shallops and boats, valued, large and small, with their fishing-craft, upon an average, each at £30.

"Sundry merchandize, at that time in store, amounting in value to about three hundred thousand pounds.

"Making an aggregate of nearly one million two hundred thousand pounds."

It is very remarkable that, at one of the most awful periods of the history of Europe, when France, every where victorious, was spreading all around the terrors of invasion and of revolution; when sedition was disturbing the tran-

quillity and threatening the very existence of the British Empire; when Ireland was torn by rebellion; and Prussia and Spain had been driven to seek their safety in a separate peace; still the dangers to which Newfoundland was understood to be exposed, at that time, engrossed a considerable portion of the public attention and anxiety in England.

This alarm was occasioned by the information that a French squadron, commanded by Admiral Richery, had escaped the vigilance of Admiral Mann out of Cadiz, and had proceeded to the coast of Newfoundland. Captain Taylor, in the Andromeda, of thirty-two guns, had parted from Sir James Wallace, the 17th of August, on the banks, with orders to cruise there for the protection of the trade. On the 3d of September he spoke with a schooner, the master of which informed him that he had seen on the coast an enemy's fleet, consisting of nine sail of line-of-battle ships and several frigates. The master of an American ship soon after confirmed this report, stating, that he had seen that fleet on the 29th of August, about forty leagues to the eastward of Newfoundland, steering north-west. Several other accounts were received by Captain Taylor, from which it appeared that that fleet, on the 1st of September, was standing between Cape

Spear and the Sugar-loaf, and, on the 5th, had been seen off the stream of Ferryland-Harbour. Captain Taylor hastened to England with this intelligence, and arrived on the last day of September. The alarm was still farther increased by information received at Lloyd's Coffee-house, that the French had actually landed fifteen hundred men at Bay-Bulls, and two thousand at Portugal-Cove, in Conception-Bay, from which they were on their march against Saint John's.

The public anxiety was, however, completely relieved by an account brought to Poole, on the 17th of October, that the French squadron had left the coast on the 29th of September, without doing any other damage than the destruction of the houses, stores, and shipping, at Bay-Bulls; whilst the Patriots of France were, at the same time, amused with the *authentic* information that Admiral Richery "had summoned Saint John's, the capital of Newfoundland, to surrender, had captured a considerable number of ships and fishing vessels, and above one thousand sailors, whom he had sent to *Saint Domingo*."

In the year 1797, Sir James Wallace was succeeded in the government of Newfoundland by Vice-Admiral Waldegrave, afterwards Lord Radstock, who went there in the Agincourt.

His principles and manners were perfectly suited to the dignity to which he was raised soon after; but his attention to the interests of religion, and to the due administration of justice, was an insurmountable obstacle to his acquiring any popularity in Saint John's, where Paine's Age of Reason and Rights of Man had poisoned the public mind, and had more weight than either the Bible or the acts of parliament. The distribution of two hundred and fifty copies of the popular Refutation of that man's impious sophistry by the Bishop of Landaff, the building of a new church in Saint John's, in lieu of the old one which had long been in a very bad state, an increase of the annual salary of the clergyman of that place, and two large stoves for the use of the new church given afterwards by Lord Radstock, are some of the obligations for which the friends of religion in Newfoundland are indebted to his Lordship.

In the fall of the year 1798, a plan was formed in Saint John's to institute there an establishment of education for the children of both sexes on a liberal scale. Certain resolutions were entered into and signed by about twenty-five of the principal merchants and inhabitants of that town, who annexed to their names the respective sums which each agreed

to contribute, so as to make up an annual salary of three hundred pounds for three years certain. These resolutions specified distinctly the various branches of education which were to be taught in both schools; the description and duties of the person under whose superintendence the establishment was to be placed, namely, a clergyman of the Church of England, who was to provide a proper person to direct the female department, and an *assistant* for the boys' school; and the description of the children whom he should admit, namely, such only as should be sent to him by the subscribers. The then Chief-Justice of Newfoundland was authorized to engage and agree with such a person in England.

Anxious to promote an object which promised to be so highly beneficial to the rising population of Newfoundland, considering himself, as he expressly declared, as acting for gentlemen of nice honour and integrity, and concluding, from the nature of the proposed institution, that much greater advantages would accrue to the person who should undertake the office, than those which were stipulated in the resolutions, Chief-Justice Routh, himself a gentleman of integrity and nice honour, on his arrival in England, applied to, and at last prevailed on, a clergyman to accept the situation.

An agreement, grounded on the resolutions of the subscribers, was accordingly made in June, 1799, which, some days afterwards, was, at the express desire of the late very Reverend Doctor Vincent and of Admiral Waldegrave, drawn up by an attorney on stamped paper.

After a long and boisterous navigation, the clergyman and his family arrived at Saint John's, on the 13th of October, 1799. They were received with very great kindness by the Governor, the officers of the squadron, and the principal gentlemen belonging to the garrison, for which they expressed a just sense of gratitude. This was, however, as it proved afterwards, a most unfortunate beginning; for it had been expected that the stranger should attach himself exclusively to *the other party*. The Governor, who was to sail from Newfoundland on the 25th of the same month, signified to the clergyman of the place his wish to hear the stranger on the Sunday following. This was complied with, and, from that day, the clergyman of Saint John's, a clever man, but as artful as he was apparently indolent, conceived a most inveterate hatred for the poor stranger, which continued to his death, in 1810.

Admiral Waldegrave took his final leave of Saint John's, and of Newfoundland, on the

25th of October. Soon after, a meeting of the subscribers took place, in which a material alteration was made in the original plan, by resolving, that each subscriber should contribute towards the new establishment according to the *number of children* that he had engaged to send for instruction. The parson and several others, who had large families, finding that their proportion of the expense would amount to much more than they had originally agreed to contribute, became as hostile to the institution as they had before been anxious to see its formation. From this time, the great object in view was to cancel the legal instrument, to which the stranger would not consent. Every measure, that the deepest and most exercised cunning could contrive, was employed to harass, frighten, and discourage the stranger; such as, on the most frivolous pretences, withdrawing the children, and threatening those who did not do the same with being compelled to pay the whole amount of the expenses; so that, for several weeks, no children were sent to either school. The stranger, and those under him, continued, nevertheless, at their post, during the usual times: he still kept his ground with a resolution and constancy which could hardly be expected from a young man insulated as he was, with a family under his

charge, at the distance of two thousand miles from his nearest friends, unused to such treatment, and so cruelly disappointed in the expectations, on the faith of which he had been prevailed upon to engage in this undertaking. One person only in Saint John's could have afforded him some assistance. This was a gentleman who had for several years practised there as an attorney, or notary public, and who, soon after, was made magistrate, and afterwards Chief-Justice of Newfoundland. An attempt was made by the subscribers to purchase his co-operation, which he rejected with indignation; all that they could obtain of him, and the nature of his situation could hardly allow him to do otherwise, was to remain *neutral.*

At last it was openly confessed, that the great cause of these divisions was the *legal instrument;* the stranger, who had now repeatedly, but in vain, solicited to be enabled to return to his friends in England, was told that, if he consented to give up that instrument, another agreement, much more favourable to his interests, would be made, and thus harmony would be completely restored. He would not believe it. An examination of the assistant was then insisted upon; it was readily granted, and the verdict of the examiners went to prove that he was unfit to be head-master; but, on the ques-

tion being asked by the stranger, whether the young man was properly qualified to *assist* the reply was in the affirmative. On the 24th of October, 1800, the stranger was congratulated by the Chief-Justice on the complete termination of all misunderstandings, with an assurance that, as soon as the Governor had left the island, which was to take place the next day, the establishment should be allowed to proceed without any farther interruption. After the Governor's departure, the private meetings of the committee resumed their former activity, when, at last, it was agreed, that some of the subscribers should refuse to pay their part of the contributions towards the first year's salary; writs would in consequence be taken out against them; the stranger should then be paid, and they might, in their turn, use the same weapon against him. This was accordingly done; three of them were sued and cast before the Supreme Court; and, on the evening of the 15th of December, 1800, the High-Sheriff of Newfoundland waited upon the stranger with a writ for fifty pounds damages, returnable the next day at twelve o'clock, at the suit of one of them whom they justly considered as the fittest person for such a proceeding; for he certainly was eminent for self-importance and conceit, as well as for a wonderful facility and

plausibility of expressions. It is to be remembered, that by the Judicature-Act an appeal lies at home, from the Supreme Court, only on judgments for any sum exceeding *one hundred* pounds.

The following morning, the stranger attended at the school as usual, resolved to appear before the court at the time appointed. About a quarter of an hour before twelve o'clock, he was waited upon by the principal officer of the Court, with a request from the Chief-Justice for his immediate attendance. He accordingly went, with a full confidence in the justice of his cause, and with still more *elevated* and satisfactory feelings. He found a considerable assemblage of people, among whom he observed with pleasure the captains of the Pluto, Concord, and Camilla ships of war, and several officers of the garrison.

His opponents, strong in number, and insolently confident in looks, opened all their batteries with a most tremendous and continued fire, relieving one another in succession, pouring in affidavits, which are very cheap in that country, and exhausting all their joint stock of malignity and eloquence.

When they had done, and were already enjoying the satisfactions of their expected triumph, the stranger was called upon for his

defence. He had sat up the whole night with his assistant to look over his notes; he had, during six years' residence in England, made a particular study of Blackstone's Commentaries, and frequently attended the Courts in Westminster, and at the assizes in the country. He was *prepared*. The sight of his folio brief, which he then deliberately drew out of his inside pocket, operated upon his opponents like a thunderbolt. Surprise and confusion were conspicuous in the countenance of every one of them. He began, and twice an attempt was made to interrupt and disconcert him; till, at last, he appealed to the court for protection, and was then permitted to proceed without any farther interruption. He gave a detailed, and rather amusing history of the several transactions that had taken place from the time of his arrival to that very day; as he went on, spontaneous marks of approbation and disgust burst out from various parts of the room, the crowd gradually withdrawing on his side, until, at last, the party were left by themselves on the opposite side of the bench. After he had concluded, not a word of what he had advanced was contradicted, and judgment was given in his favour in terms most honourable and most gratifying to his feelings.—"Well," said the eloquent orator, at whose suit the writ had

been issued, "well, we will pay the three "hundred a year; but, at the end of the three "years, Mr: ——— *will leave this country with* "*as much disgrace*"..... "As he came to it," rejoined the stranger: and not a word more was said.

"They have treated us both in the most unhandsome manner," very justly observed the Chief-Justice to the stranger, on the evening of the same day. Such were the men who wanted to command and legislate for the island of Newfoundland, in opposition to every superior authority.

From this time every thing went on peaceably, and, at the expiration of the three years, the stranger repaired to the vacant mission of Conception-Bay, to which he had been appointed in the spring of the year 1802, by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, with the additional office of a magistrate of the island, conferred on him by Admiral Gambier, then Governor of Newfoundland, from which he gradually rose to be Deputy-Governor and Judge of the Civil Court of Judicature, in the most populous and important district of the island.

The appointment of Admiral Gambier to the government of Newfoundland, in 1802, was the epoch of a highly beneficial change in the

police and general state of the inhabitants. Mr. Joseph Trounsell, who came out with him as his secretary, was equally zealous and able to second the benevolent views of the new Governor for the moral improvement of the people. The gentleman who has been mentioned before as acting in Saint John's, in the capacity of an attorney, or notary public, was appointed a magistrate, and soon after Chief-Justice of the island, for which office he was well qualified by his extensive legal acquirements, and intimate knowledge of the trade and business of that country, as well as by his enlarged views, firmness of character, and steadiness of conduct.

In Conception-Bay, the administration of justice was in the hands of two old magistrates, who had ever been at variance, so that it might be said with truth, that the whole government of that district was centred in one single magistrate of the old school. For, equally destitute of inclination and of ability to alter his old ways, and to suit his plan of conduct to the regulations made by parliament, he still persevered in every respect in the system of the late Court of Vice-Admiralty. The Sheriff of the district was his nephew, and the Clerk of the Court his son-in-law, both clever men,

in a certain sense, but with very little education or knowledge. These three great men thought themselves sufficiently strong to set at defiance all regulations made either by the legislature or by Governors. The other magistrate had hardly any authority; and it must be acknowledged, that neither his abilities nor his natural dispositions were calculated to promote a cordial co-operation and harmony between him and any other magistrate.

The confusion and anarchy which resulted from such a sort of government can hardly be conceived. Not only common breaches of the peace were extremely frequent, but also pitched battles and alarming riots; the wild sons of Erin, who had of late arrived there in considerable numbers from their distracted native island, used to indulge themselves without any molestation in their favourite pastime of fighting with bludgeons, counties against counties. The Commander-in-chief, or Surrogate, secure in his castle, which was situated in a retired part of the harbour, near a point of land at a considerable distance from all other habitations, and completely out of the way of either mischief or noise, took very little concern in disorders which could not reach him; though he generally carried with him a sword in a cane,

and has even been known to come from the place of his residence to the Court-House, in a boat, for greater safety.

A third magistrate was put in the commission for that district in the fall of 1802; and the consequent *introduction* of the mode, usual in England, of opening and holding regular quarter-sessions, and of proceeding in the trial of every kind of criminal offences, within the limits of the commission, with all the solemnity of the forms observed at the assizes, was attended with the most beneficial effects. Every breach of the peace was immediately brought to trial; and though the punishment never exceeded a trifling fine, and binding over to the peace or the good behaviour, still the forms of trial struck both those who had gone through them, and those who were present, with a dread that induced them to avoid being brought before a court which they plainly saw it was no longer safe to trifle with. Thus the public tranquillity was completely established, even in the most distant parts of a district where there was no military force, and which includes an extent of coast of twenty-eight leagues.

The next point of importance was to enforce the regulations relating to the payment of wages. This was at first attended with some difficulty, but yet soon settled on a proper and

permanent footing. Thus was confidence restored, industry encouraged, and, in less than a twelvemonth after his arrival there, the clergyman of the Established Church, not only could go in the greatest security through any part of the district, but his visits were received with evident marks of satisfaction, his call for refreshment at any house was acknowledged as an honour, and that dwelling was considered as still more highly honoured, where he condescended to fix himself for the night, in the course of his clerical and judicial visitations. His comforts were attended to with the most cordial and anxious care, even by the wildest Irishman, or the most bigoted Roman Catholics.

The great advantages resulting from this new order of things in the courts of Newfoundland were soon manifested by the rapid increase of the trade and fisheries, which may easily be ascertained by referring to the returns of the Newfoundland Custom-House.

The mission in Conception-Bay had been vacant during nearly four years. The regular public service and ordinances of the church, which had been suspended during that time, were now re-established; and the new Missionary, besides the immediate adoption of catechetical lectures every Sunday afternoon in the church of Harbour-Grace, directed his attention to

the means of instituting schools in the most populous parts of that district. A society for improving the condition of the poor was formed in the month of June, 1803, at a public meeting; the resolutions then agreed to were afterwards transmitted to Governor Gambier, who expressed his sense of the importance of the measure in very high terms. As the children there are employed during the week as soon as they can make themselves useful in the fishery, Sunday-schools were considered as being of most immediate utility, and one was at once established at Harbour-Grace.

In the year 1804 a similar society was instituted in Saint John's, on a scale suited to the superior means of the inhabitants. A considerable supply of Bibles, Testaments, Common Prayer Books, and other books, for the use of the school at Harbour-Grace, was also this year brought from England by Admiral Gambier, which proved the most valuable gift that could be bestowed on this hitherto neglected part of the world; and an addition was made by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts to the salary of their diligent schoolmaster, at Harbour-Grace, for his trouble in superintending the Sunday-school there.

The public gaol and Court-House for the district of Conception-Bay, which had been suffered to remain for several years in a ruinous state, were rebuilt and enlarged; the church and parsonage-house of Harbour-Grace were repaired, and a new school-house erected on a larger and more commodious plan than the old one, with the liberal assistance of the Government and of the Society at home. Other improvements were also made for the security and convenience of the inhabitants, and the greater facility of communicating between the several settlements, as well as for the preservation of the buildings from accidents by fire.

The most essential clauses of the acts of parliament, relating to the trade and fisheries, were notified in proclamations issued by the Governor, and distributed through every district in the island, so as to exclude all pretences of ignorance on the part of the magistrates or of the persons concerned.

By the fifteenth article of the Treaty of Amiens, concluded in March, 1802, it was stipulated, that the fisheries on the coast of Newfoundland, and the adjacent islands, and in the Gulf of Saint Lawrence, should be placed on the same footing as they were before the last war, according to the stipulations of

the Treaty of 1783. It was also agreed that the French fishermen, and inhabitants of the islands of Saint Pierre and Miquelons, should have the privilege of cutting such wood as they might stand in need of in the Bays of Fortune and Despair, for the space of one year from the 26th day of April then last past.

It was, however, impossible that this new order of things should be of long duration. The clergyman, who, at that time, officiated in Saint John's as Missionary and chaplain to the garrison, in the absence of the resident Missionary then on a visit to his friends in England, having, according to custom, met the General on the parade, to proceed thence to the church with the regiment, the following conversation took place:—"Well, Mr. ——— "I suppose you will give us a thanksgiving "sermon on this occasion?"—"Most certain- "ly, General, if you order me to do it; but I "do not feel very sanguine."—"Why so?"— "Because this peace cannot last."—How?"— "Buonaparte will not suffer it to last long." This was received by the General and the surrounding officers with a look of astonishment; and, after a short pause:—"Well, "then," said the General, "you may do as "you please." The Newfoundland regiment

was soon after disbanded; and not many months elapsed before the General received orders to raise another of one thousand men, when the island was thrown into a state of painful anxiety from the dread of an attack, as it would require a considerable time before a force could be raised sufficient to defend the place, and as some late importations had considerably increased the number of the disaffected among the lower classes.

The result of the measures taken, on the renewal of hostilities, to dispossess the French of those parts of the island which they then occupied, placed in the clearest light the value which they set upon the privilege which they had obtained by the Treaty of Amiens, and their determination to make the most of it without any loss of time. For the quantity of dry fish captured by the English, and the number of prisoners, among whom were a Commissary, and several merchants, were very considerable. The ships of war on the Newfoundland station were uncommonly successful in their cruises. A vast number of prizes, some of great value, from the French West Indian Islands, were brought into St. John's, together with several passengers of respectability of both sexes.

Another remarkable occurrence assisted likewise in giving employment to the public curiosity and attention. It was the arrival of a female native Indian of Newfoundland, brought in by the master of a vessel, who had seized her by surprise in the neighbourhood of the Bay of Exploits. She appeared to be about fifty years of age, very docile, and evidently different from all the tribes of Indians or savages of which we have any knowledge. She was of a copper colour, with black eyes, and hair much like the hair of an European. She showed a passionate fondness for children. Being introduced into a large assembly by Governor Gambier, never were astonishment and pleasure more strongly depicted in a human countenance than her's exhibited. After having walked through the room between the Governor and the General, whose gold ornaments and feathers seemed to attract her attention in a particular manner, she squatted on the floor, holding fast a bundle, in which were her fur clothes, which she would not suffer to be taken away from her. She was then placed in a situation from which she had a full view of the whole room, and in the instant lost her usual serious or melancholy deportment. She looked at the musicians as

if she wished to be near them. A gentleman took her by the hand, pointing to them at the same time; she perfectly understood his meaning, went through the crowd, sat with them for a short time, and then expressed, in her way, a wish for retiring. She could not be prevailed upon to dance, although she seemed inclined to do so. She was every where treated with the greatest kindness, and appeared to be sensible of it. Being allowed to take in the shops whatever struck her fancy, she showed a decided preference for bright colours, accepted what was given her, but still would not for a moment leave hold of her bundle, keenly resenting any attempt to take it from her. She was afterwards sent back to the spot from whence she had been taken, with several presents; and a handsome remuneration was given to the master of the vessel who had brought her, with a strict charge to take every possible care for her safety.

About the same time, a schooner, belonging to Island Cove, on the northern side, and near the entrance of Conception Bay, brought in twenty-nine persons, whose appearance showed the very last stage of human wretchedness, occasioned by the dangers of the sea. The

Lady Hobart Packet, on her voyage from Halifax, in Nova Scotia, for England, had struck against an island of ice, on the morning of the 28th of June, and foundered, at the distance of about three hundred and fifty leagues from Newfoundland. Captain Fellowes, with his passengers and crew, had just time to save themselves in the cutter and jolly-boat, before she went down. The captain, three ladies, Captain Thomas of the Royal Navy, and fourteen others, were in the cutter, bringing her gunwale to within six or seven inches of the water; in the jolly-boat were the Master of the packet, Lieutenant-Colonel Cooke of the guards, and nine other persons. After having undergone, during six days and five nights, every kind of suffering that can be inflicted by wet and extreme cold, in foggy and stormy weather, the spray freezing as it flew over the boats; at last, on the morning of the seventh day, they saw the sun rise for the second time only since they had quitted the ship; and, as the fog dispersed, they discovered land, and a schooner in shore standing off towards them, which took both the boats in tow, and landed the whole of them in the evening at Island Cove. Here they were treated with every mark of atten-

tion and kindness by Mr. John Lilly and his family, and other inhabitants of that place, who anxiously exerted themselves to render their situation as comfortable as their limited means could permit. Having thus, by a Providential deliverance, for which they all joined with great devotion in thanks to Heaven, escaped with the loss of only one person, a French captain, who having, on the fifth day, drank salt water, in a fit of delirium jumped over-board and sunk instantly, they were conveyed to St. John's, whence they proceeded to England.

In the year 1807, a printing-office was established in Saint John's, and a weekly paper was, for the first time, published on the 27th of August in the same year, under the title of "The Royal Gazette, and Newfoundland "Advertiser."

In the month of February, in the year 1808, a meeting of the magistrates and inhabitants of St. John's was held at the Court-House, for the purpose of embodying an additional defensive force for the protection of the island; and such was the spirit which prevailed there at that time, that a respectable volunteer militia was immediately formed.

The year 1809 was remarkable on account

of the establishment of a regular post-office in Saint John's and the other principal districts, under the usual regulations respecting ship-letters; an establishment which was become highly necessary, in consequence of the great increase of population, and of the importance of preventing, in the distribution of letters, uncertainties or delays which might frequently prove the source of considerable prejudice to persons in trade. The Courts of Judicature, established by the act passed in the year 1793, were now made perpetual; and the Coast of Labrador with the islands adjacent were re-annexed to the government of Newfoundland.

His Majesty, by his proclamation of the 7th of October, 1763, had placed the Coast of Labrador, from the River Saint John, the north-east boundary of the Province of Quebec, north-west of the island of Anticosti, to Hudson's Streights, with the islands of Anticosti and Madelaine, and all other smaller islands lying on the said coast, under the care and inspection of the Governor of Newfoundland. By an act, passed in the year 1774, for making more effectual provision for the government of the province of Quebec in North America, those parts were detached from the

government of Newfoundland, and annexed, during his Majesty's pleasure, to the province of Quebec; and when, in the year 1791, that province was divided into Upper and Lower Canada, those parts continued annexed to the latter. And now it was enacted, that the said Coast of Labrador and the adjacent islands, (except the islands of Madelaine,) from the River Saint John to Hudson's Streights, the island of Anticosti, and all other parts which had been so annexed to the government of Newfoundland in the year 1763, should be re-annexed to the said government, and placed within the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court of Newfoundland.

In the same year Lieutenant Spratt was ordered by Governor Holloway to proceed in an armed schooner to the Bay of Exploits and neighbouring parts, in order to attempt a communication with the native savages of the island. He carried with him several articles which were intended as presents for them, and a large painting, which represented an Officer of the Royal Navy in full dress shaking hands with an Indian Chief, and pointing to a party of seamen behind him, who were laying some bales of goods at the feet of the Chief. Behind the latter were some male

and female Indians presenting furs to the Officer. Further to the left were seen an European and an Indian mother looking with delight at their respective children of the same size, who were embracing one another. In the opposite corner a British Tar was courting, in his way, an Indian beauty.

The importance of the attempt, and the promise of promotion, were sufficient inducements to Mr. Spratt to use every possible exertion in order to bring the enterprise to a successful issue. He was, however, disappointed. Notwithstanding his zeal and activity, he could not meet with any of that tribe; and, after having remained the appointed time on that station, he returned to Saint John's.

In consequence of a prohibition existing at Halifax, Prince Edward's Island, and Quebec, against the exportation of cattle from those places, and of the very limited intercourse, at that time, with the United States, so great a scarcity of cattle prevailed in Newfoundland, that even the inhabitants of Saint John's had, for several weeks, been deprived of the use of fresh meat; and the contractors for supplying his Majesty's ships with fresh beef were unable to fulfil their engagements. A representation having been made by the merchants

and principal inhabitants of that place to Governor Holloway, he accordingly issued, on the 24th of July, a proclamation, signifying his intention to grant licenses for the purpose of importing cattle, corn, and fruit, from the Azores, to any owners or masters of vessels who might apply for the same.

In the year 1810, Sir John Thomas Duckworth, K.B. then Vice-Admiral of the Red, came out in the Antelope as Governor of Newfoundland. Soon after his arrival he visited Harbour-Grace and Trinity-Bay. He afterwards re-published the proclamation issued by Governor Robert Duff, in July, 1775, for the protection of the native Indians of Newfoundland, and sent an armed schooner to renew the attempt to open a communication with them, which had been unsuccessfully made the year before by Lieutenant Spratt.

The schooner proceeded with a considerable quantity of such articles as were supposed to be acceptable to the Indians, to the Bay of Exploits, and a camp, or collection of Wigwams, was actually found there scattered along the banks of the river. The officer who commanded the schooner gradually prevailed upon some of these people to wait until he

came up to them, and succeeded in inspiring them with some degree of confidence, until, at last, there appeared to reign between both parties such a good understanding as, encouraged the most sanguine hopes of complete success. They advanced together to a certain distance into the country, conversing in the best manner that could be practicable under such circumstances; and then proceeded on their return to the place of their meeting, where the first object that presented itself to their view were the lifeless corpses of two marines, who had been left there to wait for the return of their officer. At this sight, all the Indians who were with him took to flight; every endeavour to prevail upon them to remain was vain, and from that moment not one of the tribe could, at any time after, be met with or seen. Equally grieved at the loss of those two men, in whose tried courage and prudence he had great confidence, and at the unexpected check which this unfortunate event gave to his well-grounded expectations of merited success, the officer continued on that station during the time that had been appointed him, and, on quitting it, he very judiciously left on the spot the articles which had been intended as presents

for the natives. This measure tended to convince them that, whatever might have been the cause of the death of the two marines, still no feeling of resentment or revenge was entertained by their visitors; if, at least, reflections like these could enter into the comprehension of wild savages, whose general disposition has invariably been found, in all countries of North America, even to the present time, to be distinguished by cunning, perfidy, and cruelty.

In the year 1811, an act of parliament was passed for instituting Surrogate Courts on the coast of Labrador and islands adjacent; and also for taking away the public use of certain ships' rooms in the town of Saint John's. These fishing ships' rooms, which, for a considerable number of years, were become useless, and rather public nuisances, as well as the source of endless disputes and contentions among the inhabitants, were, by this measure, converted into a real benefit to the town. They were divided into a certain number of lots, and put up to public auction, on leases for thirty years, renewable at the expiration of that term, upon payment, in way of a fine, of a sum equal to *three* years rent of the lot so purchased, if built with timber; and of a sum equal to *one* year's rent, if

built with stone or brick. The purchaser of a lot might, at his option, take the next lot adjoining backward, at the same price as he paid for the first. Party-walls between adjoining lots were to be built of brick or stone, of twenty inches thick, to stand equally on each lot. The buildings were to be of the height of two stories, or not less than eighteen feet from sill to wall-plate; and no encroachments were to be made on the space allotted for the streets by bow-windows, porches, or other erections. On the Admiral's ship's room, a common-sewer was to be made at the joint expense of the holders of lots on that room, and a sufficient drain to communicate therewith by each individual; in all other situations, proper drains were also to be provided by the lessees.

Thus an opening was made to improvements which would most effectually contribute to introduce cleanliness, salubrity, and even elegance, into a town hitherto remarkable for a confined and unwholesome atmosphere, where the slightest infection assumed at once the character of the most inveterate and obstinate pestilence; and where the habitations, made of timber, without any order, regularity, or regard to the public safety, conveyed to the mind the idea of universal and unavoidable

destruction in the event of a fire. Under this new regulation, grounds which no one could apply to his own use, because no one was qualified to do it in the manner prescribed by the act of King William, at the same time that, being public property, they could not be applied to other purposes without the sanction of public authority, being now legally disposed of, were to be used for the erection of buildings which it was intended should be arranged in such order as to facilitate the free circulation of air, to allow a proper width to the streets, and to diminish the dangers arising from accidents by fire.

The terms of this intended sale were clearly described in hand-bills, published and distributed for that purpose. A sufficient time was allowed for consideration: the public were, in fact, the sole agents in this transaction; and the lots were all disposed of in a short time, and on very favourable terms.

The attempt to open a communication with the native Indians was again made this year by the same officer who had been employed on this service the year before, and who remained in the Bay of Exploits, during the months of August and September, without seeing any traces of them. A proclamation was also is-

sued, offering a reward of one hundred pounds to any person who should effectually contribute to this object.

A spirit of infatuation appears to have seized, at this time, a considerable portion of the principal inhabitants of the British colonies on the other side of the Atlantic. Considered at a distance, these acts of insubordination appear like mere children's play, in which men who are capable of becoming wiser as they advance in years and experience, must feel ashamed of having taken a part. They were, nevertheless, at the time, attended with very serious consequences on the peace and essential interests of those colonies. The magistrates were compelled to act with increased energy, to preserve order and tranquillity against the attempts of that class of men, every where so numerous, who are always ready to seize the first opportunity or pretence, to set at defiance the laws which protect the peace of the community and the property of individuals; whilst the people at large, distracted by violent passions, and taught to be dissatisfied with the existing order of things, could not be expected to give a proper degree of attention to their business.

In the latter end of June, 1812, papers, received in Saint John's, from Halifax, announced

that every thing done at the seat of government in the United States wore the appearance of a decided intention soon to declare war against Great Britain; and, on the 6th of July, a government schooner arrived express from the same place, with the intelligence that war had actually been declared, on the 17th of June.

It was soon after reported that the Americans had a squadron at sea; and, on the 24th of July, a vessel arrived in Saint John's from Trinity, and brought the information that fifteen sail of the line, supposed to be French, had been seen in longitude 27° and latitude 42°.

It happened, at this time, as it had happened in the year 1796, when Admiral Richery was on that coast, that the summer was uncommonly hot, and an infectious disorder raged in the town of Saint John's. The small-pox, as universally dreaded as it was always fatal in its consequences, on account of the deeply rooted prejudice of the inhabitants of the island against any mode of inoculation, created a considerable alarm in Conception-Bay, where the fishery was then entering into its full activity. Means of prevention were, therefore, employed by the inhabitants, under the sanction of the magistrates, which were fortunately attended with the desired success. In Saint John's the

infection daily increased in malignity, and swept off a considerable number of persons of all ages.

Whilst the inhabitants of the whole district of Conception-Bay were distracted by the dread of this infection, a fire, either accidentally or designedly kindled in the woods, was, by the direction of the wind, making rapid approaches towards the town of Harbour-Grace, which it soon threatened with complete destruction. The inhabitants, collected together by the ringing of the church-bell, proceeded to the place, under the direction of the Chief Magistrate, and, by cutting and carefully clearing a semicircular space, between the town and the part of the woods on fire, put a complete stop to the ravages of that destructive element, and saved the town. The awful grandeur of the spectacle which this fire presented at a distance, during the preceding night, and on the spot, during the efforts made to arrest its ravages; the flames advancing by sudden and rapid strides, firing at once a large grove of trees, emitting into the sky immense volumes of fire and ignited firebrands, with the violence and report of heavy pieces of artillery; then in front, on the right, and on the left, rising with a loud and hissing noise, which gradually increased and decreased

as the flames reached the top of each tree; here and there, excavated recesses formed by the standing burning trunks and thicker branches, around the blazing ruins of the consumed smaller trees and underwood; all these horrid, though awful and grand scenes, produced, at the time, feelings which no pen can describe. The weather was extremely hot, whilst in the mouth of the bay and along the coast were stationed several large islands of ice, which had remained aground since the spring.

At the time of the declaration of war by America, Great Britain had on the Newfoundland, Halifax, and West-Indian stations, three sail of the line, twenty-one frigates, nineteen sloops of war, and eighteen brigs and schooners, making a total of sixty-one armed vessels. With such a force, little could be apprehended, in those seas, from the United States. No attempt was made on Newfoundland, where Saint John's was then in the most respectable state of defence; nor did its trade suffer any material loss by the cruisers of America or of France; while, on the other hand, it was most essentially benefited by the exclusion of all competitors in the fisheries, from those seas, and from the foreign markets. The increased circulation produced by the enlarged naval and

military establishments, the numerous captures brought in by the several ships on that station, and the general practice of merchant vessels, freighted in the out-harbours, coming round to Saint John's for the purpose of joining convoy, gave to that town an unusual degree of prosperity and of consequence.

By the ever-memorable Treaty, signed at Paris, on the 30th of May, and ratified on the 17th of June, 1814, the French right of fishery upon the great bank of Newfoundland, upon the coast of the said island, and in the adjacent islands in the gulf of Saint Lawrence, was replaced upon the footing on which it stood in the year 1792. But the lateness of the season, and the escape of Bonaparte from Elba, in the following spring, did not permit the French to derive any advantage from this cession before the year 1816, when the French Commandant there, in the latter end of June, was formally put in possession of the island of Saint Peter and of the Miquelons.

Early in the same year, on the night of Monday, the 12th of February, the town of Saint John's was nearly destroyed by a fire, which broke out between the hours of eight and nine, whilst a tremendous gale was blowing from the south-east. The conduct of the seamen from the King's ships, and of the

troops from the garrisons, under their respective officers, as well as of the respectable parts of the inhabitants, is represented, on this critical occasion, as beyond praise, while the bulk of the lower orders stood, with their arms folded, surveying this disastrous scene with an apathy disgraceful to the human character, and appearing to have no object but pillage. The aggregate pecuniary loss occasioned by this conflagration was estimated at upwards of one hundred thousand pounds sterling; and about fifteen hundred persons were driven to seek new abodes in February, the most inclement month of a Newfoundland winter. The distresses of these unfortunate sufferers were considerably aggravated by the depredations committed by the populace upon the property snatched from the flames.

The rapidity with which the houses were consumed is almost inconceivable. Many of their inmates had barely time to escape without any covering except blankets, standing shivering in the storm and snow, while all they had in the world was perishing before their eyes, having no where to rest their heads and to shelter themselves from the rigorous inclemencies of the weather, and happy to find a refuge on board the shipping in the harbour. When every circumstance of that calamity is consi-

dered;—the season of the year when the inhabitants, hemmed in by vast barriers of ice and snow, had no interior to fly to but a frozen trackless wild;—the materials of which their houses were constructed, namely, wood, no brick but in their chimneys; and all irregularly built and huddled together, as suited the conveniency of their various owners, without any regard to order or safety:—every thing tended to complete the horrors of that night. And yet all this sinks in the scale of comparison when we carry our thoughts to the very narrow escape of the magazines and stores, the destruction of which must have reduced a population of twelve thousand souls to a complete state of starvation. It very providentially happened that these stores and magazines were saved, and that only one life was lost, that of a man who was in bed at the time, and was supposed to have perished in the flames.

The humane exertions of the principal officers of the army, of the navy, of the public departments, and of the mercantile houses and other respectable inhabitants of Saint John's, were not confined to their own efforts to stop the progress of the flames, and to afford to the unfortunate sufferers such immediate assistance as the nature of their circumstances would permit; but a most liberal subscription was

immediately entered upon and raised by them for their relief.

On the 20th, a meeting of the magistrates and principal inhabitants of Saint John's was held at the Court-House, where several resolutions were adopted to provide against the recurrence of such a calamity. Among other things it was resolved, that the Chief Magistrate should be requested to prevent the erection of any buildings which might endanger the public safety, until the arrival of his Excellency the Governor. Thus was acknowledged the utility of a regulation by which, previous to the year 1811, no building could be erected without leave from the Governor; a regulation, the sole object of which had been the convenience of the trade and fisheries, and the safety of the settlements in Newfoundland, and which had ever been complained of as an intolerable hardship and stretch of power.

The calamitous visitation of the 12th of February was only the prelude of other severe trials. The distress which was universally felt by almost every class of people in the commercial world, in consequence of the sudden and violent return of general commerce to a state of peace, and of the subsequent failure of the harvest, fell with peculiar weight upon the inhabitants of Newfoundland. Accustomed

by long possession to be the sole suppliers of every market in Europe, in the West Indies, and in South America, the merchants now beheld the termination of the vast profits which they had annually derived from this trade, and naturally reduced to a proportionable scale the extent of their speculations in the amount of their imports, particularly in provisions, which, at that time, were scarce and at a high price in the mother-country, as well as in the number of planters whom they undertook to supply.*

* When the Newfoundland trade was first established, the merchants and their immediate servants were the only classes of people engaged in it. To these a third class was some time afterwards added, under the denomination of bye-boat-keepers, who were supplied by the merchants to whom they sold the produce of their voyage; these bye-boat-keepers kept also a certain number of servants; and, in process of time, became resident *planters*, whilst each mercantile house kept there an agent and a certain number of clerks to transact their business during the winter. A new division of labour took place in consequence. The merchants attended only to those parts of the business which were considered to be strictly commercial, whilst the planters were solely occupied in carrying on the fishery. The class of servants, already extremely numerous, became still more considerable by the numbers who were annually imported from Ireland and other parts, as well as by the natural increase of population among the resident inhabitants of the island. Strictly speaking, the great supplies could be procured through the medium of the planters only. These last pur-

During the last war, the island had exported in one year one million two hundred thousand quintals of fish; and, in 1817, the exportation did not amount to more than half that quantity. As the people depend there entirely on the fruits of their labour for support, and on external supplies for subsistence and every article of first necessity, extreme distress could not fail to be the consequence of this new state of things. The starving population became a lawless banditti: they broke open the merchants' stores, carried off their property by wholesale, seized the vessels which arrived with provisions, and set the police altogether at defiance. On some occasions, where subsistence could not otherwise be had, they even proceeded with arms in their hands, demanding and enforcing a supply of provisions from the sitting magistrates. So early as the middle of April, the greatest possible distress existed in that island, from want of the common necessaries of life; and how dreadful must, under such circumstances, have been the prospect of a Newfoundland winter, when, the island being again surrounded with an impenetrable barrier

chased the whole of their necessary supplies from their respective merchants, on the credit of the produce of the ensuing voyage, and kept separate accounts with each of their servants.

of ice, the population would be placed beyond the reach of human succour, and left to their inevitable fate!

A statement of these facts was laid before his Majesty's ministers. The attention of parliament was also directed to this subject in the month of June, 1817; and, upon the report of a Committee of the House, appointed to inquire into the situation of Newfoundland, a debate took place on the 8th of July, in the course of which it was stated, that Newfoundland employed yearly eight hundred vessels, and produced a revenue of two millions in returns of various kinds; that the population of the island amounted to eighty thousand inhabitants; and that the sufferings experienced by the great majority of that population, which had already involved in its consequences the violation of private property, and the destruction of civilized order, would, unless speedily provided against, amount to the certainty of absolute famine. Mention was made of a mercantile house in Conception-Bay, who had sixty thousand pounds in the trade, and who had lost twenty thousand pounds the preceding year, having resolved henceforth to send out only supplies sufficient to maintain their own servants. It was then stated by ministers, that government had extended re-

lief on account of the fire at Saint John's; and, as soon as they could ascertain the circumstances of that country, from local information, they would be disposed to pursue a similar course on the present occasion. A discretionary power would be sent to such effect to the Governor of Newfoundland. This liberal and judicious mode of administering relief to the distressed inhabitants of Newfoundland proved, as might be expected, the most effectual to compose the public mind and to supply the wants of the needy; nor could such a power have been placed in the hands of a gentleman better qualified to give full effect to the humane views of government than Vice-Admiral Pickmore, then Governor of Newfoundland.

Late in the fall of the year 1816, the parish church of Harbour-Grace, in Conception-Bay, which had been repaired and enlarged at a considerable expense, and was nearly completed, was seen on fire, at twelve o'clock at night, and in one hour reduced to a heap of ashes. The inhabitants lost no time in preparing to erect another; the building was nearly finished, when it was likewise destroyed by fire. As the spot on which the church was originally built stands upon an eminence, in the centre of the church-yard, and at some distance

from the town of Harbour-Grace, the fire could not fortunately affect any other building. But, on the 18th of June following, between eleven and twelve o'clock at noon, a most destructive fire broke out at Carbonier, about three miles from Harbour-Grace church. The wind blowing a heavy gale from the westward, scattered the flaming fragments like a shower over the town: the Methodist chapel, though nearly half a mile from the place where the fire commenced, and at a distance from other buildings, was in a very short time totally consumed, from some of the burning matter alighting among shavings in the surrounding burying-ground: from this spot the fire was carried half a mile farther, as far as Crocker's Cove, where it was at last stopped, after having totally destroyed fifteen houses, besides the above-mentioned chapel.

The ill-fated town of Saint John's was doomed to experience again this year the calamity which, the year before, had threatened it with absolute destruction, with additional circumstances of wretchedness and horror.

On Friday night, the 7th of November, 1817, about half after ten o'clock, some flames were discovered issuing from an uninhabited house nearly in the centre of the town, and in ten minutes they communicated to the surrounding

buildings, spreading in every direction with the rapidity of lightning, until about six o'clock on the following morning, when the exertions of the more respectable part of the community, aided by the officers and men of the army and navy, succeeded, at last, in arresting its progress westward. The flames, however, continued to rage in the opposite direction with unabated fury until seven o'clock, when they reached an open space, and there the fire stopped, after having reduced to ashes all the buildings that covered a space extending nearly a quarter of a mile in length, and three hundred yards in breadth, including the warehouses and wharfs, and with them the greater part of a very large stock of provisions, which had been stored in them. As soon as the direction which the fire was likely to take had been ascertained, every effort was made to remove the property from the stores, by rolling it into the water, or shipping it off in boats and other craft. On the premises of one of the principal mercantile houses, when the flames reached their stores, they had a considerable lot of cordage sunk between their wharfs: but owing to a large quantity of pitch and tar, which they had likewise thrown over the wharfs, and the water being low at that time, the whole became exposed to the flames and was com-

pletely consumed, together with the greatest part of the provisions, which had been attempted to be preserved by that means. That part of the harbour, on the margin of the north side, was in one general blaze; and what increased the horror of such a scene was the savage conduct of the lower orders of the community, who, instead of assisting in arresting the ravages of the fire, actually retired to a short distance from it, exulting openly at the destruction of the property of the inhabitants: they obstinately refused their assistance, notwithstanding repeated remonstrances, entreaties, and offers of reward, which were made to them; and extensive depredations were committed, during the horror and confusion of that dreadful night. Most of those who had suffered so severely in the fire of the year 1816, were involved in the present distressing calamity; many respectable individuals had now lost all their property, and found themselves again reduced to a similar situation, without covering or shelter at this advanced season of the year, with a long dreary Newfoundland winter before them, and dreading a repetition of the scenes of violence and outrages which they had witnessed not many months before. Thirteen mercantile establishments, and near one hundred and

forty dwelling-houses, occupied by not less than one thousand one hundred persons, had been consumed, and the amount of the property destroyed was estimated at from four to five hundred thousand pounds sterling.

Vice-Admiral Pickmore issued a proclamation, by which a temporary embargo was laid on all the vessels and boats in the harbour of Saint John's, in order that the extent of the evil, and the quantity of provisions in the town might be ascertained, so that every possible measure might be taken to secure to the community whatever should be yet remaining. That itself, with the addition of what was expected from abroad, would not, it was apprehended, be near sufficient to supply the wants of the inhabitants of Saint John's, till the opening of the navigation in the spring of the following year. They, however, solaced themselves, under the severe pressure of their distress, with the consideration that they had still one half of the town left, in which they should find shelter from the inclemency of the season. A fortnight had not elapsed before another fire threatened that remaining half with total destruction.

About half an hour after three o'clock, on the morning of the 21st of the same month of

November, a fire was observed issuing from the premises of a mercantile house in Water-street, which soon extended its ravages to the westward and eastward, until about half-past nine o'clock, when the active and indefatigable exertions of some of the inhabitants, favoured by a calm, fortunately succeeded in stopping its progress. Fifty-six houses, besides the stores and wharfs of several principal mercantile establishments, were laid in ashes; and the depredations committed on the property of the inhabitants were most extensive and dreadful.

It cannot appear surprising, that strong suspicions should have been generally entertained that these fires were the work of incendiaries. The Governor and the Magistrates adopted every possible means that could lead to a discovery; and, upon the strictest inquiries, there was sufficient reason to believe that they had been the effects of accidents.

A considerable number of the inhabitants of Saint John's retired to Nova Scotia, or to the out-harbours of Newfoundland; others came over to Great Britain or Ireland. Every measure that could alleviate the distress, and provide for the wants of those that remained in Saint John's, was anxiously taken by the Governor, the principal officers of all the public

departments, and the merchants, both that fall and as early in the spring as the state of the weather would permit.

The beginning of the year 1818 was remarkable for an intense frost, which lasted, with very little intermission, during the months of January, February, and March, with a severity exceeding that of any winter within the recollection of the oldest inhabitants. On the 10th of February, the harbour of Saint John's was frozen over below Chain-Rock to a considerable thickness. A great quantity of snow had fallen, and the weather wore the appearance of the rigid climate of Greenland. It was particularly fortunate, that abundant supplies of provisions had arrived previous to the setting in of the frost, so as to prevent a recurrence of the melancholy scene with which that town had been afflicted the preceding winter, when every effort to relieve the wants of the distressed inhabitants was rendered abortive by the extensive barrier of ice which surrounded the coast. They had, however, to lament the death of their excellent Governor, Vice-Admiral Pickmore; in consequence of which Captain Bowker, of his Majesty's ship Sir Francis Drake, the senior officer on that station, took the oaths on the 10th of March, as Governor

and Commander-in-chief of the island, *pro tempore*. On the evening of the same day, the remains of the late Governor were taken from the vault in the church where they had been deposited, and conveyed on board his Majesty's sloop Fly, with every mark of respect from the merchants and other inhabitants that feeling and gratitude could inspire. But, although several hundred men were employed in cutting a passage through the ice for the Fly, and other vessels which were ready for sea and anxious to leave the harbour, it was not till after a laborious exertion of nearly three weeks that this object could be effected. The ice was found to be from three to five feet thick, and the distance to cut the channel was about one mile. The Fly reached England after a passage of twenty-eight days, and Sir Charles Hamilton was soon after appointed to succeed the late Governor.

The seal and cod fisheries proved unusually successful, as they have always been found to be after a severe winter; the favourable change which had taken place in the commercial world began to be felt at Newfoundland; and Saint John's, phœnix like, rose from its ashes with new and improved splendour. The increased breadth of the streets, the solidity of

the materials used for the new buildings, particularly the party-walls, and many other improvements of a precautionary nature, promised to render fires less frequent and destructive; and it was expected, that by the ensuing fall the rebuilding of that town would be completely effected.

CHAPTER XII.

DESCRIPTION OF THE BANKS AND OF THE ISLAND OF NEWFOUNDLAND, AND THE COAST OF LABRADOR.

Of the various theories which have been formed to account for the manner in which America was originally peopled, the theory of the Abbé Clavigero, a native of that Continent, has generally been considered as the most plausible and the best supported. He supposes that there was anciently, since the flood, an union between the equinoctial regions of America with those of Africa, and of the northern parts of America with Europe on the east, and with Asia on the west; so as to allow a passage from the hot and cold countries in Europe, Africa, and Asia, to the corresponding latitudes in America. From various reasons he is induced to believe, that there was formerly a tract of land uniting the easternmost part of Brazil to the westernmost part of Africa, which may have been sunk by some violent agitation of nature, leaving only a few traces

of it in that chain of islands, of which Cape de Verd, Fernandez, Ascension, and Saint Matthew islands make a part: nor is it necessary to ascribe to a single shock this stupendous revolution, which is supposed to have sunk a tract of land more than fifteen hundred miles in length, as it may have been effected by a succession of earthquakes at various periods.

Diodorus Siculus and Plato make mention of an island, called Atalantis, at the distance of several days' sail from the Continent of Africa; and some learned men have considered Madeira, which was discovered in the year 1419, as the poor remains of that island. Diodorus Siculus, who enlarges upon the population, manners, laws, fertility, and remarkable things of Atalantis, says that it had been discovered by some Phœnicians, who, having passed the pillars of Hercules,* were overtaken by a violent storm, which carried them out into the main ocean, and who arrived there after having experienced several days of bad weather; and that, on their return, they published an account of their voyage and discoveries. In Plato's Dialogue, intituled Timœus, Critias says that Solon, when in Egypt, was informed, by one of the priests, that the

* The Straits of Gibraltar.

Athenians had, in ancient times, subdued a formidable power, that had overrun Europe and Asia by a sudden irruption of warriors issuing from the midst of the Atlantic ocean, from a region more extensive than Asia and Lybia taken together. A short time after these invaders had been driven back to their own country by the Athenian fleets, the whole island sunk and disappeared in an instant. A circumstance, which is considered by many writers as corroborating the assertion of the existence of such an island is, that the ocean, which at this day bears the name of Atlantic, is not of any considerable depth; and that, at a great distance from its shores, marine substances are found which indicate the existence of an ancient continent.

The history of the world, for the last four hundred years, affords numerous and well authenticated instances of revolutions produced on the surface of our globe by volcanoes and earthquakes, those formidable instruments of nature, by which she converts mountains into plains and plains into mountains, changes the beds of rivers, turns dry land into stagnant pools, and raises islands in the midst and from the depths of the ocean. These changes are evidently the consequence of the tremendous convulsion which was produced by the univer-

sal deluge in the structure of the earth, of which an examination of its internal and external state affords ocular demonstration. As the causes to which philosophers ascribe volcanoes and earthquakes have had a tendency to produce the same effects ever since the deluge, what changes may we not suppose to have taken place in the course of upwards of four thousand years, in countries discovered only about three hundred years ago, and of which our knowledge is still so very imperfect?

Earthquakes have been known from time immemorial to be frequent in Jamaica, Saint Christopher's, the whole extent of Peru, Cumana, &c. Although these formidable concussions may generally be attributed, in those parts, to the agency of the numerous volcanoes which are found there, it is well known that earthquakes have not been confined to such countries as, from the influence of climate, their vicinity to volcanic mountains, or any other causes of a similar tendency, have been considered as particularly subject to them: but they have also been felt, though not in any degree so extensive and calamitous, even in London,* in Oxfordshire, the counties of Dorset, Lincoln, Northampton, Nottingham, and

* Particularly in the year 1750.

several other parts of Great Britain. If they are much more frequent and destructive in warm countries, the northern latitudes have not been altogether exempt from such visitations. Not only Scotland and Norway, but even Canada and the more northern regions of America have been affected by earthquakes. The Abbé Clavigero informs us that in Canada, in the year 1663, an earthquake, which began on the 5th of February, and continued at intervals for the space of six months, caused the most dreadful agitation in the earth, the rivers, and the coasts of the ocean, over the extent of nine hundred miles from east to west, and four hundred and fifty from south to north, and actually overwhelmed a chain of mountains of free-stone, more than three hundred miles long, changing this immense tract into a plain. It reached even as far as New England and New York, which were violently shaken: the River Saint Lawrence underwent remarkable changes with respect to its banks and some parts of its course; so that new islands were formed, and others were considerably enlarged. This river affords now evident marks of its waters having, at some period, separated at Cape Rouge, flowed to the eastward through the level country, and re-united at the promon-

tory of Quebec, insulating the lofty ground from Cape Rouge to the latter place.

According to Doctor Morse, Boston, in the State of Massachusetts, was considerably damaged by an earthquake, on the 29th of October, 1727; and there are undoubted proofs of the powerful operation of such convulsions at Saint Paul's Bay, Mal-Bay, and at Camomaska, which are still subject to partial earthquakes. It may not be unreasonable to conclude, that the earth in those regions contains a permanent source of convulsions of this kind, which at some former period may have produced those changes which the external structure of the island and of the banks of Newfoundland seems to indicate. The same writer also informs us, that the peninsula known by the name of Gay-Head, in Martha's Vineyard, contains evident marks of there having formerly been volcanoes in that part of the State of Massachusetts. He says, that the remains of five crateras are plainly to be seen. One of them, now called the Devil's Den, is at least twenty rods over at the top, fourteen and a half at the bottom, and full one hundred and thirty feet at the sides, except that next to the sea, which is open. He farther states, that a man then alive, viz. in 1797, related, that his mother

could remember when it was common to see a light upon Gay-Head in the night-time; others said, that they had been told by their fathers that the whale-men used, in their time, to guide themselves in the night by the lights which were seen there.

If we take a survey of the island of Newfoundland and parts adjacent, as far as the eastern edge of the Outer, or False Bank, we shall behold an extent of sixteen degrees of longitude, and ten degrees of latitude, where the depth of the sea, on an average, is from sixty to thirty, and sometimes even only ten fathoms, in places lying at a considerable distance from the nearest coasts either of Newfoundland, or of the North American Continent. We shall be inclined to conclude, from this survey, that these are the remains and ruins of a vast island, which, at some former period, experienced a convulsion similar to that which shook Canada and the neighbouring parts, as far as New York, in the year 1663; and which, weakening and loosening the arches, or foundations, on which that island rested, excepting what now constitutes the island of Newfoundland, precipitated all the other parts into the depths of the sea and of the earth, in proportion to their original altitude, and to the various degrees of solidity of the surfaces which they met in their

fall. Or, perhaps, the whole was originally a part of the North American Continent; for the Straits of Bell-Isle, which separate Newfoundland from the coast of Labrador, are very little more than four leagues in width, throughout an extent of near fifteen marine leagues.

The Outer, or False Bank, extends from the forty-sixth degree and ten minutes to the forty-seventh degree and a half north latitude, and from the forty-fourth degree and fifteen minutes to the forty-fifth degree twenty-five minutes, west longitude; giving soundings over its surface at from one hundred and fifty-eight to one hundred fathoms. Thence to the Great Bank, over a space of two degrees and forty-five minutes, the soundings vary from two hundred and eighteen to one hundred and twenty fathoms.

The Great Bank is five degrees wide in its broadest part, from east to west, including Jaquet-Bank, the southern extremity of which forms its outer edge, and upwards of nine degrees in length from north to south. Jaquet-Bank, rising with a steep edge, and giving from eighty to seventy fathoms, is connected with Great Bank by a bottom where soundings are found at seventy and at sixty fathoms, from east to west and south-west; and from east to north-west, from one hundred and twenty to

one hundred and twelve fathoms, until it breaks off, leaving a very steep edge on the corresponding side of Great Bank. The ground in many parts of the eastern edge of the latter bank is so extremely steep as to fall off suddenly from twenty-five to ninety, and from thirty-five to one hundred and sixty fathoms, and even to no ground at that depth, close to a spot which gives between thirty-five and fifty fathoms. The surface of Great Bank varies from ten to fifty, seldom exceeding forty-five fathoms in its southern half, and increasing towards the northern extremity generally from forty-five to sixty fathoms. In the forty-sixth degree and a half of latitude is an elevated space giving from ten to twenty-five fathoms, which is designated by the appellation of Rough Fishing-ground; and farther on the western edge of the bank, in the same latitude, are rocks, called Cape Race Rocks, or the Virgins: a similar rock has likewise been discovered at the distance of about two degrees and twelve minutes west from the extremity of the bank's tail.

From the western edge of Great Bank to the coast of Newfoundland the soundings are generally from ninety to twenty fathoms, whilst, around the southern parts of that island, the ground is occupied by a continuation of banks

and shoals as far as Cape Breton and Sable Island, where soundings vary from eighty to twenty-four fathoms, including Whale-Bank, Green-Bank, Saint Peter's Bank, Banquerean, Middle-Bank, and Sable Island. To these must be added Porpoise-Bank, which lies to the south-east of Sable Island. The northern extremity of Great Bank seems to have a communication with the coast of Newfoundland, at fifty degrees of north latitude, by the Funk islands, and by various shallows, ledges, and rocks, Wadham and other islands, as far as Cape Saint John; whilst, from the fiftieth to the fifty-first degree, soundings are obtained in various places at from seventy-four to one hundred and sixty fathoms, giving muddy ground, brown sand, large stones, or rocky ground, and forming within that space, from the fifty-second to the fifty-fourth degree of longitude, an extent of ground generally of no greater depth than what has been observed of the Outer, or False Bank.

The Abbé Raynal, in his description of the Great Bank, says, that it is one of those mountains that are formed under water by the earth, which the sea is continually washing from the Continent. Doctor Morse, the American Geographer, thinks that it is highly probable, that the sand carried down by great rivers into bays,

and the current out of these bays meeting with the gulf-stream, have formed, by their eddies, Nantucket Shoals, Cape Cod, George's Bank, the island of Sable, &c. Many reasons might be adduced, which seem to ascribe to the Banks of Newfoundland a more solid foundation and permanent consistency.

Ever since the year 1500, these Banks have been frequented by Europeans, for the purposes of the cod-fishery, in the same manner as they are at present. In the relation of a voyage to Canada, made in the year 1606, inserted in Churchill's Collection of Voyages, the author says: "Before we come to the Great Bank, where the fishing of green cod is made, the seafaring men have warnings when they come near it by certain birds, the most common of which are godes, fouquets, and happe-foyes, or liver-catchers, because of their greediness to devour the livers of the cod-fish that are cast into the sea after their bellies are opened. These banks are mountains grounded in the depth of the waters, which are raised up to thirty, thirty-six, and forty fathoms, near to the upper face of the sea. The Great Bank is holden to be two hundred leagues in length; and eighteen, twenty, and twenty-four leagues broad; which being passed, there is no more bottom found until one come to the land."

This account agrees exactly with our most modern charts, if we suppose the soundings to have been taken about the forty-fifth degree of latitude, and not beyond fifty fathoms. The longitude and latitude of the inner and outer edges of the Great Bank and of the False Bank, observed by Chabert, in 1750, and by Fleurien, in 1769, were found correct, and adopted in a chart of the Banks of Newfoundland published in the beginning of the year 1803, and stated to have been "drawn from a great number of hydrographical surveys, and from the recent observations of Francis Owen.*

Governor Pownall, in his observations on the Currents in the Atlantic, and Doctor Franklin, in his notes annexed to that work, account for the variations in the direction of the Gulf-Stream, by saying, that where it meets with lands, islands, or rocky ground that oppose and divert its course, or where it runs through channels which draw it into other directions, the general effect must partake of the operation of these several causes. When, therefore, we consider that these supposed masses of sand, scattered in a stormy ocean,

* Mr. Francis Owen was at Newfoundland in the year 1799, as Master of the Agincourt, and was afterwards officially employed for the purpose of taking a survey of the Banks.

are at a considerable distance from any coast or land which might give them sufficient support and consistency, and that they are constantly acted upon by strong currents; it is not easy to conceive how these banks, if mere masses of sand, should, notwithstanding, have remained stationary; should have preserved that constant uniformity of longitude, latitude, and soundings; should not either have been carried away, or have been increasing in extent, so as to fill up the spaces which separate them from each other, and from the island of Newfoundland. The extraordinary steepness of nearly the whole of the eastern edge, and of a great part of the south-western borders of the Great Bank, seems likewise to indicate a solid mass of rock on which the violence of the northern ocean, or of the currents, cannot make any impression.

The remarkable phenomenon known by the name of the Gulf-Stream is a current in the ocean, which runs along the coast, at unequal distances, from Cape-Florida to the Isle of Sables and the Banks of Newfoundland, to about forty-one degrees and a half of north latitude; thence it proceeds south-easterly towards the coast of Africa, running along that coast in a southern direction, until, falling into the course of the intratropical trade-winds, it

supplies the place of the waters carried by those winds from that coast to the Caribbee and Bahama Islands, runs down to the bottom of the Gulf of Mexico, and being there obstructed by the main land, the waters are piled up, as Governor Pownall expresses it, to a *very elevated level.* These aggregated waters run off laterally, and as if descending an inclined plane, along the coasts of Mexico, Louisiana, and Florida, and thence along the coast of North America, thus producing a continual circulating current round the Atlantic ocean.

Governor Pownall observes also, that this Gulf-Stream branches out into other currents, according to the variations of winds and seasons, and that, to the northward of its highest boundary, another general current takes place, running in an east-southerly direction across the Atlantic towards the coasts of Europe, and setting continually through the Straits into the Mediterranean Sea. Other currents have likewise been observed, according to the same author, running along the Esquimaux shores and the coasts of Greenland. Sir Martin Frobisher, in the year 1577, at the distance of six days sail from the Orkneys, met with a great quantity of *drift wood* which was continually driven forwards with a current setting from the

south-west to the north-east. This fact, says Doctor Forster, has since been frequently confirmed: for it is by this current that so many West Indian woods and fruits are cast on the shores of Ireland, Scotland, the Faro and Western Islands, the Orkneys, the Shetlands, and Norway: in the same manner the Icelanders are furnished from North America, as well as from the West Indies, with wood for firing in great quantities; the same has been found to be the case in Nova Zembla, Spitzbergen, and Greenland. He supposes that those currents which, he says, are also found from the coast of Brazil round the Cape of Good Hope into the Indian ocean, and from the Siberian sea round the North Cape into the Atlantic ocean, occasion similar currents in the air; and this is assigned as the reason that, in the temperate zones the westerly winds predominate, whilst, in the frigid zones the easterly winds occur more frequently than any other winds: hence voyages from North America to Europe are generally much shorter, at least one-third, according to Governor Pownall, than those from Europe to North America, it having been observed that the winds are westerly for three quarters of the year. Seafaring people coming from North America to Europe call it *going down hill*, and *vice versâ*. The common course of navigators, bound to the west-

ward, is to pass the banks of Newfoundland in about forty-four or forty-five degrees of north latitude; to sail thence between the northern edge of the Gulf-Stream and the shoals and banks of Sable Island, George's Bank, and Nantucket, by which means they make better and quicker voyages.

This precaution is so important that, according to Doctor Franklin, a vessel on her voyage from Europe, getting into this stream, may be retarded at the rate of sixty or seventy miles a day.

The breadth of the Gulf-Stream varies in its course; when it comes out of the Gulf of Florida, it is about eight leagues broad; and at its other extremity on the coast of Africa, between 27 and 20° north latitude, its breadth is about a hundred and fifty leagues. It is easily distinguished from the other parts of the ocean by its superior warmth, which is eight or ten degrees greater: it is of an indigo blue; never sparkles in the night; and, in cool latitudes, it produces thick fogs. It is, therefore, to the superior warmth of this stream that those fogs are attributed which generally cover the banks of Newfoundland, and which a certain degree of cold in the surrounding atmosphere converts into sleet and snow.

The Great Bank is almost constantly co-

vered with such fogs, extremely thick and cold. A great swell marks the place where it lies; the waves are always in a state of agitation, and the winds high about this bank. The cause of this is said to be, that the sea being irregularly driven forward by currents bearing sometimes on one side sometimes on the other, strikes with impetuosity against the borders of this bank, and is repelled from them with equal violence: whilst, on the bank itself, at a little distance from the borders, the situation is as tranquil as in a harbour, except in cases of heavy gales coming from a greater distance.

The island of Newfoundland, like its banks, presents features of the most eccentric character, as if nature in disorder seemed pleased to exhibit stupendous monuments of her power. It bears visible marks, both along its coasts and within its wide and extensive bays, of a great convulsion which, at some former period, changed its original form and extent. Lying to the eastward of the River and Gulf of Saint Lawrence, it is separated from the coast of Labrador by a narrow channel, about four marine leagues wide, called the Strait of Bell-Isle. This strait, in width, is nearly the same as that which separates North America from the corresponding parts of Asia, and which Doctor Robertson is inclined to suppose to have been opened by some violent convulsion from vol-

canoes and earthquakes, which broke the isthmus that formerly united America to Asia in those parts.

Newfoundland is of a triangular form, and is supposed to contain thirty-five thousand five hundred square miles. Little can be said of its inland parts, in consequence of the difficulty of penetrating into them, and of the apparent inutility of succeeding in the attempt. What is known of it consists of a rocky and barren soil, steep hills covered with bad wood, some narrow and sandy valleys, and extensive plains covered either with heath, or with rocky surfaces, more or less extensive, where not a tree or shrub is to be seen, and which are from thence usually called *Barrens*. The number of fresh water lakes is very considerable, and springs of most excellent water abound in every part. The ground is frequently so boggy and marshy as to make riding impracticable, and even travelling on foot dangerous. Those places which have been penetrated within the distance of thirty miles from the coast, by walking over the ice and snow during the winter season, abound with deer and an uncommon variety of furred animals.

The coasts are in general rude and rocky, either covered with hanging woods sloping to the water edge, or broke into short precipices. The south-west coast presents some high head-

lands. The whole, however, abounds with creeks, roads, and very fine harbours; also with beaches, or large spaces covered with pebbles, which seem as if they had been placed by design, for the purpose of drying the fish caught in the neighbourhood. Vast bays, of several leagues in breadth and depth, are also very numerous on these coasts. Vessels lie in the smaller bays and harbours in perfect security, being well sheltered inside by the mountains. Thus, round the island and in the large bays, a multitude of basins are formed, of from one to two leagues in length, and near half a league in breadth, into which several rivers and brooks of excellent water come from the adjacent mountains.

The south-east part of this island is formed into a peninsula of twenty-six marine leagues in length, and from five to twenty in breadth, by two extensive bays, the heads of which are separated by an isthmus, or beach, not exceeding four miles in width, where it is not unusual to see fishermen pass from one of these bays to the other drawing their skiffs over it with ropes. This peninsula has five bays of considerable extent, and several smaller bays, excellent harbours, and capes. This is the part of Newfoundland which Sir George Calvert had erected into a province, under the name of AVALON.

Trinity-Bay, on the north of Avalon, and on

the eastern side of the island of Newfoundland, lies between forty-seven degrees fifty-three minutes and a half, and forty-eight degrees thirty-seven minutes of north latitude. It has several considerable settlements, and contributes largely to the amount of the exports from the island, both from the seal and the cod fisheries. Separated on the north from the bay of Bonavista by a neck of land, which, in some places, is little more than two miles wide, it has on the north side Trinity-Harbour, Ireland's Eve, formed by a branch of the bay which receives Random-River, Long-Harbour to the south-west, Bulls-Bay and Bulls Islands, Tickle-Harbour, and to the south Chapel-Bay. Thence, turning to the eastward and north-east, we find such places as *Heart's Delight*, *Heart's Content*. Proceeding from hence through the harbours of new Pelican and old Pelican, we find the less pleasing names of *Scurvy Island* and *Break-Heart-Point*, which lead us to the Point of Grates.

Round this last point of land, at the distance of about three miles from the north-eastern extremity of Conception-Bay, lies a small island, called Baccalao, the name which anciently belonged to the island of Newfoundland and the islands adjacent. This small island, or insulated rock, is remarkable for the extraordinary number of sea-fowls which nest and

lay their eggs on its rugged sides and surface. These are generally called Baccalao birds, and have ever been considered as of sufficient importance to mariners, particularly in foggy weather, by giving them notice of their approach to the coast even as far as the banks, as to deserve the special protection of government against the attempts of birds and eggs hunters. Notwithstanding the proclamations issued, from time to time, by the Governors of Newfoundland, for that particular object, it has not unfrequently happened that, tempted by the vast profit produced by the sale of those birds, of their eggs, and of their feathers, and regardless of the extreme dangers which attended the attempt, some daring individuals contrived, by means of ropes, poles, and wires, to make a general sweep of the eggs, as well as of the birds themselves. This last operation is performed by striking the birds with long poles, or by covering with nets the chasms in the rock where the birds are nesting; these, frightened by the firing of muskets, or by very loud hallooing, fly up and are caught in the net.

Conception-Bay is undoubtedly the first district in the island of Newfoundland, on account not only of the number of commodious bays, harbours, and coves, which it contains, but also

of the general ease and independence of the greatest proportion of its numerous planters, of the industry and intrepidity of the masters and crews which it sends yearly to the seal and cod fisheries, and of the very superior degree in which it contributes to the importance and value of Newfoundland. It is said by some French writers to have received its name from Gaspar de Cortereal, in the year 1501. It also appears to have been frequented, at some former period, by people of various nations, if we may draw such a conclusion from the character of the names which many of its bays and coves bear at this day. But the first settlements made here were in the year 1610, by about forty planters, with Governor John Guy, under a grant from King James the First. This bay had likewise been visited, in the year 1583, by Sir Humphrey Gilbert, previous to his discovering and taking possession of Saint John's Harbour. He was soon after unfortunately lost, and the settlements which he intended to make in these parts were thus prevented.

Conception-Bay is twenty-eight leagues deep from Point of Grates to Holy Rood, about eighteen from the latter place to Cape Saint Francis, and between six and seven leagues wide; it nearly traverses one half of the pro-

vince of Avalon, branching out on one side into arms and bays, which are sheltered by lofty hills and capes, presenting a scenery particularly striking by the bold and broken outline of mountains, promontories, bays, and islands; while its general aspect on the opposite side is one of asperity and ruggedness. Harbour-Grace is the principal town of this district; it has several steep and barren rocks in its entrance, a bar which renders it dangerous at particular seasons to large ships, and an extensive beach, round which there is a capacious harbour, where ships ride in the greatest safety. Carbonier, formerly Carboniero, or Collier's Harbour, the next town in importance, has likewise a spacious harbour, but by no means so safe, on account of its greater exposure to the easterly winds. Between these two places is a deep and commodious cove, called Mosquitto-Cove, where it is supposed that Governor Guy formed his settlement, in the year 1610. From Carbonier to Point of Grates, the space is commonly called the North Shore; it contains a numerous population, and is the seat of a considerable fishery, notwithstanding the natural wildness of the coast in this part, and the losses which the inhabitants experience at every fall by the gales of wind or heavy seas injuring and sometimes

destroying their stages and fishing-craft. This circumstance obliges them to terminate their fishery much earlier than is done in the other parts of the bay. On the 12th of September, in the year 1775, this coast was visited by a most terrible gale of wind. In Harbour-Grace and Carbonier all the vessels in the harbours were driven from their anchors; but the inhabitants of the north shore suffered with still greater severity. They even now, with evident signs of dread and horror, show a cove where upwards of two hundred fishing-boats perished, with all their crews. Farther up from Harbour-Grace, as far as Holy-Rood, are several considerable settlements, formed on the borders of deep bays, which are separated by high perpendicular rocks of two or three leagues in length, and scarcely more than a mile in breadth. The scenery here surpasses any thing that can be conceived of wildness and confusion, through an extent of several leagues. Opposite to Port-de-grave, and at the southern extremity of the land, the rock is pierced with two natural arches, which lead to a wide circular space open to the very top of the rock, through which the sea flows. Each of these arches is sufficiently high to admit a boat to pass freely to the basin, where both passages form an angle from east to south.

On the eastern side of this bay lie several

islands of various sizes, the most remarkable of which is Bell-Isle, so called from a very remarkable rock, called the Bell, high, perpendicular, and cylindrical, standing almost close to its western side. This island, distant about four leagues from Harbour-Grace and four miles from Portugal-Cove, is remarkable for the particular quality of its soil, which consists entirely, and without any mixture of stones, pebbles, or gravel, of a loose blackish earth very deep, and so extremely fertile as hardly ever to require the assistance of manure. Portugal-Cove, the only settlement of any consequence on the eastern side of Conception-Bay, and about eighteen miles by land from Saint John's Harbour, is a small open creek, or cove, without roadstead or shelter even for the smallest fishing-craft, lying exposed to the wind from north by west to north-west by north, which heaves in a very heavy sea; so that the boat-keepers there are obliged to haul up their craft not only at the fall, but also whenever it blows high from those quarters.

At the distance of seven leagues and a half from Portugal-Cove lies the Cape of Saint Francis, the eastern boundary of Conception-Bay, distant seven leagues from the entrance of Saint John's Harbour. Four leagues lower is Torbay, called in old books Thorne-Bay, a

wide cove fit only for the fishery; and three leagues farther is the town of SAINT JOHN'S, lying on the bay of the same name. Its harbour is one of the best in the island, being formed between two mountains, at a small distance from each other, the eastern points of which leave an entrance very appropriately called the Narrows. It is rather difficult of access, on account of rocks and shoals. It extends about two miles inland, having from ten to seventeen fathoms in the first mile, and in the second from fourteen to four fathoms of water, up to the mouth of Little Castor's River. The south side is formed by high hills almost perpendicular; and on the north side a steep ascent leads to a long rocky space, known by the name of the Barrens, which forms the communication between Fort William and Fort Townsend. To the north, behind the former, or old garrison, is a very fine lake, called Quidy-Vidy-Pond, communicating with the sea by a cove of the same name. This cove, once the seat of military operations for the taking and retaking of Saint John's, has since been rendered inaccessible from the sea, and is now no more than a small fishing-place. To the south of Quidy-Vidy are very high hills, with extensive ponds at a considerable elevation, which abound with very fine trout. How

the spawn has been conveyed thither is a problem difficult to solve. Saint John's, however, is not in this respect without a parallel; for we are informed that, in the Orkney-Islands, Hoy-Head, which forms a part of Pentland-Firth, and is a promontory particularly remarkable for its extreme height, has at its summit a very extensive lake of fresh water, likewise abounding with trout.

On the top of a lofty hill, close and nearly perpendicular to the sea, is a tower, from which, by appropriate signals, the inhabitants of the town are informed of the approach of vessels, and of their particular description. On the vessels nearing Fort Amherst, situated on a low ground at the eastern extremity of the south side, they are asked through a speaking-trumpet where they come from, and the answer is signified by certain signals, which are immediately repeated on the tower of Signal-Hill.

Saint John's is the seat of the Government and of the Supreme and Vice-Admiralty Courts of Newfoundland. In time of war it is a place of considerable importance. The greatest part of the property in the island is deposited there for greater security. All the vessels of the different out-harbours, except those bound for Liverpool, Scotland, and other parts to which they may safely venture to run north about, are

obliged to rendezvous in the port of Saint John's, in order to join convoy; and the naval and military forces occasion an increase of circulation, of consumption, and of amusements, which add considerably to the wealth and gaiety of that place.

The natural difficulty of access to this harbour, the commanding position of the hills on each side of its entrance, and the numerous forts and batteries which have been erected for its protection on every point, make it a place of such strength as to defy all attempts of an enemy. Only one ship can enter the harbour at a time, and the Narrows are so guarded that a hostile ship cannot venture into them without being instantly sunk: Saint John's is not more assailable from any other quarter.

On the south side of Signal-Hill are a few scattered spots not so steep as the rest. On one of these an officer of the regiment then stationed in Saint John's had erected a small grotto, fitted up and ornamented with considerable ingenuity and taste, provided with a table in the centre, and seats around. Above the entrance, low and narrow, was the following inscription: "*Pro amico;*" and in another place, "*Ne vile fano.*" A brother officer complimented him on his invention and taste in the following lines, which were inserted

in the Newfoundland Gazette, in January, 1812.

" Near the Metropolis of that drear isle,
Where sickly nature strives in vain to smile:
Whilst o'er its rugged rocks and barren plains,
Silent and sad, fell desolation reigns:
Stupendous mass, see SIGNAL-HILL arise,
And brave the shock of hyperborean skies:
Its rifted side no pleasing verdure yields,
Unlike the soil of Albion's fertile fields.
On its bleak summit to command our praise,
See forceful art its proudest trophy raise:
A height so vast, a spot so wild and waste,
Has COURT'NAY chosen to display his taste.
There, whilst its beauty all aloud proclaim,
His grotto stands t' immortalize his name:
To Friendship sacred, there no cares annoy
Our chast'ned pleasure and our temp'rate joy:
No Bacchanalians there, a frantic rout,
Their midnight orgies tell with horrid shout:
But in that happy spot we ever find
The social joys that elevate the mind.
" *Ne vile fano*" hints to thoughtless boys,
That wit consists not in obstreperous noise;
Whilst " *pro amico*" gives the welcome meet,
To all who visit this perspective seat."

The south-east limit of Saint John's Bay is Cape Spear, written in some old books Cape Espere, or Hope-Cape, about four miles from the Narrows. Petty-Harbour is a fishing settlement of some note. Bay-Bulls, anciently

Baboul-Bay, is about seven leagues from the mouth of Saint John's Harbour; its entrance, rendered hazardous to mariners who are not well acquainted with that part of the coast, by two rocks, one of which has frequently less than nine feet of water, is broad and spacious, running up to the town of that name one mile and three quarters. Here vessels ride in safety, being land-locked, and having nothing to fear, except a strong wind from south-south-east to south-east, to which the mid-channel of the harbour lies open. Bay-Bulls is distant from Saint John's, by land, twenty-seven miles; the path, or foot-way, which forms the communication between those two places, is through the woods, and small, uneven, and irregular barrens along the sides of stupendous hills and rocks bordering on the sea-coast; in many places, the fordable parts of strong and rapid rivers, running from the ponds of the interior country into the sea, are so narrow that not more than a single person can with convenience pass at a time. Bay-Bulls, notwithstanding these difficulties of communication with Saint John's for the march of a body of troops, has been the point from which hostile forces have directed their attacks against that place. This happened in particular in the year 1762, when Saint John's was actually taken. But it should

be remembered that the enemy's artillery was then landed at Quidy-Vidy, which has since been rendered altogether inaccessible from the sea. Besides, Saint John's, at that time, was by no means in a state to make any effectual resistance. We have also seen that, in the year 1796, Admiral Richery landed some troops at Bay-Bulls; but this attempt ended merely in the destruction of the wooden houses and stores near the water-side: its population then did not exceed two hundred inhabitants; their number has considerably increased since that period, and several respectable houses carry on there a considerable business. Cape-Broyle-Harbour lies in a small bay, bounded to the south-east by a cape of the same name, and is said to be about thirty miles from Saint John's. Ferryland, called in old books Ferulham, has some respectable establishments, and is remarkable for having been, in former times, the place of residence of the Lords of Avalon and of their Deputies, and the seat of the muses. Near this settlement is the Isle of Boys, which, in the year 1762, was fortified and received a small garrison, several inhabitants of that part of the coast having retired thither for protection and relief whilst the French were in possession of Saint John's. Aquafort and Fermowes, anciently Formose, or Formosa, a name which

seems to give a favourable idea of the appearance of the land in that quarter, together with Renowes, or Reneau's Harbour, well calculated for the fishery, and much frequented for that purpose during the season, are the only settlements of any consequence on this part of the coast as far as Trepassey-Bay.

Cape-Race is the south-east point of Newfoundland, four leagues south of Cape-Ballard, and in forty-six degrees forty-three minutes of north latitude, and fifty-two degrees forty-nine minutes of west longitude. At about twenty leagues to the south-east of this Cape, on the western edge of Great Bank, the Virgins, or Cape-Race rocks, much dreaded by mariners, seem to form a connexion between that bank and the south-eastern coast of Newfoundland, from Cape-Broyle to Cape-Race, by a bottom which gives from ninety to thirty fathoms of water, and a rock or bank of two leagues and a half in length at twenty fathoms, two leagues east from Cape-Race. At the same distance from this cape, to the westward, are two *points*, frequently *mistaken* for Cape-Race by mariners, when they first make the land from the southward.

From Mistaken-Points westward to Cape-Ray, the coast is indented into a considerable number of bays, harbours, and coves, where

the fishery is carried on to a very great extent. This coast is also lined with an incredible number of islands and rocks of various sizes, the soundings never exceeding one hundred fathoms at the distance of forty leagues from the shore, from Cape-Freels to the southern extremity of Whale-Bank; seldom above sixty fathoms within upwards of ninety leagues from Cape-Pine to the southern extremity of Great Bank; and never exceeding one hundred fathoms within the distance of near seventy-five leagues from Cape-Rouge, in Placentia-Bay, to the south-west extremity of Banquereau.

Trepassey-Bay, formerly Abram Trepassé, about seven leagues north-west of Cape-Race, is a wide bay with a harbour large, well secured, and having excellent anchorage, Biscay-Bay lying to the north-east, and Sailing-Bay to the north-west. Six miles from this last bay is Cape-Pine, and farther to the west and north-west Cape-Freels and Black-head, which lead into Saint Mary's Bay. This bay contains some harbours and coves where a considerable fishery is carried on, and receives Salmon-River, the use of which is sufficiently described by its name. Colinet-Harbour, at the head of the bay, is separated from Conception-Bay at

Holy-Rood, by a neck of land between four and five leagues broad.

Placentia-Bay opens between Cape Saint Mary and Cape-Rouge on the west, fifteen leagues and a half distant from one another. It is very spacious, has several islands towards its head, and forms a good harbour for ships. The port and town of Placentia are on the eastern side. The harbour is so capacious that one hundred and fifty sail of ships may lie in security, and can fish as quietly as in any river. The entrance into it is by a narrow channel, which admits but one ship at a time. Sixty sail of ships can conveniently dry their fish on the Great Strand, which lies between two steep hills, and is about three miles long. One of these hills is separated from the strand by a small brook, which runs out of the channel and forms a sort of lake, called the Little Bay, in which are caught great quantities of salmon. The French had formerly here a fort, called Saint Louis, situated on a ridge of dangerous rocks which contracts the entrance into the harbour. On taking possession of that place, in the year 1713, the English changed the name of the fort into that of Fort-Frederick, and erected additional fortifications on Castle-Hill.

Placentia has the honour of having given birth to one of the most extraordinary characters that the last century has produced; a man who, for some years, excited the public curiosity and astonishment to an amazing degree, was taken notice of, nay, openly patronized, by people of the first consequence, both as to character and fortune, and more particularly by one no less distinguished for his talents and erudition than for his holding a place among the legislators of the country, whose writings in defence of this man and his opinions contributed not a little to give celebrity to the native of Placentia. This once great and admired personage was doomed to be a lamentable instance of the vanity of all sublunary glory; for how few are there, at this time, who think, or even perhaps recollect the name of RICHARD BROTHERS, who was at last confined, and ended his days, in a mad-house.

North-Harbour, at the upper extremity of Placentia-Bay, is the northern boundary of Avalon, being separated from Chapel-Bay, in Trinity-Bay, by a neck of land, or beach, of only three or four miles in width. The western side contains a great variety of bays and harbours, among which are Paradise-Sound, Boat-Harbour, Mortier's Bay, and Burin; and a vast number of islands and rocks of various sizes, the principal of which are Merasheen

Island, Ragged Islands, a name very appropriate not only to this part but also to the whole of this side of the bay, and Mortier's Rocks.

May-Point terminates the peninsula which separates Placentia-Bay from Fortune-Bay, having to the west the island of Great Miquelon on Saint Peter's Bank, distant about eight miles. From May-Point to Cape La Hune, the distance is seventeen leagues, which may be considered as the mouth of Fortune-Bay. The latter is interspersed with several bays of considerable extent and depth: on the eastern side lies Fortune-Harbour, and at the north-eastern extremity is a river running from a pond or lake of fresh water distant two leagues north. Farther to the west is a long narrow bay, called Long-Harbour, which receives likewise the waters of another river; Bell-Bay, which well deserves that name, with *Salmon*-River, in a north-east direction. From this part the ground is intersected by a multitude of bays of various extent, communicating by the means of their respective rivers with large ponds, in a series which loses itself in the unexplored parts of the island, together with ridges of lofty hills beginning at no great distance from the shore.

Along the south shore, from Cape La Hune, there are several bays and islands, most of

them called by names which are descriptive of some striking incident or circumstance. Thus, to the eastward of that cape we find Bay of Despair, Bay of Facheux, Devil's Bay, Bay of Rencounter, where it is known that in former times the native and neighbouring Indians were extremely troublesome to the Europeans who frequented these parts; in the same manner we have here Cape La Hune, or Mast's Head-Cape, signifying a good look-out; Pigeon Island; Penguin Islands, from the multitude of birds of that name which used formerly to nest there; White Bear-Bay and Bear Island, near which are Ramea and Burgeo Islands, noticed in the earliest accounts of voyages to the Gulf of Saint Lawrence. Great Burgeo Island is also called Eclipse Island, and its latitude and longitude were exactly ascertained by Captain James Cook, who, on the 5th of August, in the year 1765, observed from that island an eclipse of the sun. To the north of Burgeo Islands lies Wolf-Bay: farther to the westward we have Bay of Cinq-Cerfs, or five-stags; Grand Bruit, great noise; La Poile-Bay, from its supposed resemblance to a frying-pan; Rose Blanche, or White Rose Island; Burnt Island; Pointe Blanche; and last of all Pointe Enragée, which, from its wild and exposed situation on the south-west point

of the island directly facing the Gulf of Saint Lawrence, and from the number of rocks which surround it, seems fully to answer the description conveyed by this appellation, particularly in a heavy gale of wind from the south or south-west.

Cape-Ray forms the entrance of the River Saint Lawrence on the north-east, with the North Cape of the island of Cape Breton on the south-west, from which it is about twenty leagues distant. It is also the southern boundary of the western, or French shore, so called on account of the exclusive privilege reserved to the French by the Treaty of Versailles, in the year 1783, and confirmed by the late Treaty of Paris, to catch fish and to dry them on land on that part of Newfoundland which stretches from this cape up north and round south, as far as Cape Saint John on the eastern side of the island.

From Cape-Ray to Anguille, or Eel-Cape, the coast is wild, and has only Petit-Port, or Little-Harbour, about five miles and a half from Cape-Ray, and a considerable river, called Great Cod-Roy River. Round Cape-Anguille the coast is even and straight as far as Saint George's Harbour. This last lies in a large and deep bay of the same name, into which several rivers, communicating with a variety of

ponds and lakes, empty themselves. To the north-west of this harbour is a narrow isthmus, which forms the southern boundary of Port-a-Port, divided into East and West Bay by a slip of land which lies nearly at right angles upon the isthmus. The interior of Newfoundland, from Saint George's Harbour to Bonne, or Good-Bay, appears to have been explored to a greater distance from the coast than any other part of the island, to be very mountainous, and to abound in rivers, marshes, ponds, and extensive lakes.

The Bay of Islands has three arms by which several rivers empty themselves into it, among others the Humber, the most considerable river known in the island, running through an extent of thirty-eight leagues from the north, where it issues out of a lake of near ten leagues in length. Bay of Islands contains, as its name indicates, several islands, the principal of which are called Harbour, Pearl, and Tweed.

Bonne-Bay has likewise two long arms communicating with ponds or lakes at some distance from the coast by means of their respective rivers. Thence to Point-Rich the coast has no bay or harbour of any note, except Ingornachoix-Bay, bounded by that point to the north, and divided into two arms, in

which are Hawke's Harbour and Port-Saunders.

Farther north round Point-Rich is Saint John's Bay, containing three islands, the principal of which is Saint John's Island. This bay receives the waters of Castor's River, the size of which is considerable for fifteen miles inland. Here is also a range of lofty hills, called the High-Lands of Saint John's. Beyond Point-Ferolle, the northern boundary of Saint John's Bay, are a few inconsiderable bays, islands, and coves. Along the Straits of Bell-Isle the coast is uniformly straight, and in some places not much more than three leagues distant from the eastern side of the island. Cape-Norman, twenty leagues from Cape-Ferolle, is the north-west point of Newfoundland, having on the east a large bay, called Pistolet-Bay, bounded by Burnt-Cape, three leagues distant from Cape-Norman. Quirpon-Harbour and Island, the northern point of Newfoundland, Griguet-Bay, and Saint Anthony's Harbour, were much frequented, during the war, by the people of Conception-Bay in the fishing-season. Hare-Bay is a wide and deep gulf, which reaches up more than two-thirds of the whole breadth of this part of the island, branching out into arms and bays which are sheltered by

lofty hills. Saint Julian's Harbour is noticed in the most ancient charts. From this harbour to the river head of White-Bay and thence to Cape Saint John, the coast is indented by a considerable number of bays, harbours, and coves, very commodious and much frequented. Packet-Harbour is the most southerly station on the eastern coast where the French are allowed to catch and dry their fish.

The Bay of Exploits, probably so called from successful rencounters with the native Indians who are said to frequent it during the summer season, is also remarkable for its river, which extends to a considerable distance towards the western coast, as far as it has been traced, receiving in its course several smaller streams. It contains a vast number of islands and rocks of various sizes, of which the New World Island is the largest, and Twilingate is a populous and thriving settlement. The same description is applicable to Gander-Bay; its river, as far as it is known, runs almost parallel to the River of Exploits, and has to the north-east a considerable number of islands and rocks. Fogo Island is described in the old maps by the name of Aves, or Birds' Island; and, until the middle of the last century, was called Penguins' Island. It was formerly much frequented by the native Indians. Some

writers assert that it was first discovered by James Cartier, in the year 1534. It is a settlement of comparatively modern origin, populous and flourishing.

From Cape Saint John, distant about forty-seven leagues from Funk Island, to Cape Freels, the whole of this coast and sea is connected with that island by an almost uninterrupted continuation of islands, rocks, ledges, and shallows.

Bonavista Cape and Bay, so called by John and Sebastian Cabot, and the first land that they made on their arrival near this coast, contains several islands, the most remarkable of which are Green's Pond Islands, in consideration of their usefulness as a fishing station. Here are also several rocks of various sizes and extent, called Outer and Inner Gooseberry Islands. It contains likewise Indian-Bay, Loggerhead-Bay, and Bloody-Bay; also Barrow-Harbour, an extensive bay divided by Keel's Head on the east from the port of Bonavista, and on the west from Bloody-Bay, by a large peninsula joined to the island by a narrow isthmus, which forms Newman's Sound.

To the southward of Cape Bonavista is Catalina-Harbour, or Bay, which contains Ragged-Harbour, so called from the craggy rocks which lie about the entrance of it, both without

and within. And thus are we returned to Trinity-Bay, from which we first set out.

The islands of Saint Pierre, or Saint Peter's, and Miquelon, are thus described by Monsieur Cassini, who, about the year 1778, visited them and ascertained the latitude of the town of Saint Peter's.

"Saint Peter is a very small island; its utmost length may be two leagues. Miquelon is somewhat larger, and may be about five leagues long. Saint Peter, however, is the chief part of the colony: the safety of its harbour draws a great number of ships, and probably this is the only reason that has induced the French Governor to fix his residence there; for I am told that Miquelon is a much pleasanter spot. I have sometimes strolled about into the interior to observe the place and its productions: all I found was mountains not to be ascended without danger: the little valleys between them were no better; some are full of water and form so many lakes; others are encumbered with sorry fir-trees and some few birch, the only trees that grow in this country as far as I could find; nor did I see one more than twelve feet high in all that part of the island where I have been. Miquelon is a little better stored with wood. The most pleasant plant I met with at Saint Peter's is a kind of

tea, at least it is so called by the inhabitants. Its leaf is woolly underneath, and it greatly resembles our rosemary, both in the leaf and the stalk. There is another plant which they call annise: I have tasted of both infused in boiling water, and think the annise the more agreeable of the two. Hence, it appears, how destitute the inhabitants must be of the necessaries of life in a country where no corn will grow, and where even the smallest article must be procured from France. They have fixed their dwellings in a little plain along the sea-coast, and have small gardens, where, with much trouble, they grow a few lettuces that never come to perfection, but which they eat greedily when they are yet quite green. The want of pasture will not admit of breeding much cattle; fowls are the only resource as to fresh meat. Their soups are commonly made with cod's heads; but I cannot commend them. Our arrival at Saint Peter's was celebrated by the death of a bullock, the noblest reception the people could bestow. From this account one would be inclined to conclude, that the island of Saint Peter can be considered only as a shelter for fishermen driven thither by stress of weather: yet we have made a settlement there.

"Towards the latter end of June," continues

the same writer, " the capelan flocked from the main to deposit their eggs along the coast of that and the adjacent islands; to which they were followed by multitudes of cod-fish. This is the critical time for the fishermen of Saint Peter's. This island is adjoining to a sand-bank, where the cod is very plentiful. What is caught there is brought to Saint Peter's, where it is cured and dried. This is what is sold in France by the name of *morue séche*, or more properly *merluche*. Some ships likewise bring the fish which they have caught at the Great Bank to dry at Saint Peter's; but these are few: most of the cod that is fished at the Bank is brought home to Europe, and sold for *morue verte*, or barrel-cod."

These islands, situated on the north-east borders of Saint Peter's Bank, consist of Saint Peter's, Langley or Little Miquelon, and Great Miquelon. Saint Peter's Island lies in forty-six degrees forty-six minutes of north latitude, and fifty-six degrees four minutes and a half of west longitude, south-south-west of the south-east point of Fortune-Bay. Great Miquelon, which is separated from Langley by a stream called Langley-Gut, is not more than three-fourths of a league in length, and is distant eight miles south-west from Cape-May in Newfoundland. It is sometimes called Maguelon.

Saint Peter's Bank, a large fishing-ground off the southern end of Newfoundland, has from fifteen to fifty-five fathoms of water, being connected with Great Bank by Green Bank and Whale Bank, with soundings generally from twenty to eighty fathoms. To the south and south-west of Saint Peter's Bank are Mizen-Bank, Banquereau, and Porpoise-Bank.

The island of Anticosti, the south-western boundary of the territories included within the government of Newfoundland, lies in the mouth of the River Saint Lawrence: it is covered with wood, and excellent cod is found on its shores; but it has no harbour; and had no inhabitant until the year 1810, when, in consequence of a shipwreck which had happened there, and had reduced the crew to the most dreadful distress, Admiral Sir John Thomas Duckworth, then Governor of Newfoundland, granted stated rations and other advantages to a person who was willing to settle there with his family, to enable him to afford in such cases every assistance that circumstances would require or admit. This island was, it is said, first discovered by James Cartier, in the year 1535, who gave it the name of the island of Assumption. From the Indian name Natiscotee the English have made Anticosti. It contains wild goats of a particular kind, which

Doctor Forster believes to be of Portuguese origin. On the coast opposite to the north-westerly point of Anticosti Island is the River Saint John, the north-east boundary of the province of Lower Canada, and the south-east limit of the coast of Labrador.

The coast of Labrador, although discovered by Cabot, was very little known until the latter end of the last century, when the progressive increase of the Newfoundland fisheries induced the British government to extend them to this coast, by annexing it to the government of that island, in the year 1763. The native inhabitants of those parts were included in the regulations which were, at the same time, forwarded to the Governors of the colonies, to prevent the different tribes of Indians from being in any wise molested or disturbed in the possession of such territories as, not having been ceded to or purchased by the crown of England, were reserved to them as their hunting grounds. All settlements, formed either wilfully or inadvertently upon such lands, were to be immediately given up; nor were any such lands for the future to be purchased from any of the said Indians, but in the name of his Britannic Majesty, at some public meeting or assembly of the said Indians, to be held for that purpose by the Governor or Commander-in-chief of such

colony within or near which they should lie. The trade with the said Indians was declared free and open to all British subjects who should take out proper licenses for that purpose.

This union of the coast of Labrador with Newfoundland, by placing the former under a jurisdiction which could, from local circumstances, more effectually than any other provide for the maintenance of order and the due administration of justice in those parts, tended materially to increase its importance as a fishery without any injury to the fur-trade, both being perfectly compatible. When this arrangement was altered in the year 1774, and the jurisdiction of the Governor of Newfoundland was reduced to its former limits, a superintendent of trade, appointed by the Governor-General of the four British provinces, and responsible to him, used to reside at Labrador. This measure, which appears to have had for its principal object to encourage the fur-trade, must have proved very prejudicial to the fishery, and the source of much disorder and irregularity. The re-annexation of the coast of Labrador and adjacent islands to the government of Newfoundland, in the year 1809, was consequently a measure extremely favourable to the interests of the trade and fisheries.

It appears from the earliest accounts that

this coast has always been remarkable for the multitude of fish of various kinds, and particularly cod and salmon, found on its shores and in its rivers. Like Newfoundland, it seems to have been naturally intended for an extensive fishery. It exhibits a most barren and iron-bound appearance, the rocky mountains rising suddenly from the sea with spots of black peat earth producing stunted plants. Rivers, brooks, lakes, pools, and ponds, are abundant, rich in fish, and frequented by innumerable birds. The islands are covered with flocks of sea-fowl, particularly eider ducks; and the larger isles plentifully stocked with deer, foxes, hares, beavers, and a variety of other furred animals. Five kinds of seals frequent these shores, namely, the common, the great, the rough, the hooded, the harp, and an obscure species, called by the Laplanders, fatuc vindac, with a round head and a long snout bending like the proboscis of an elephant. The dogs, very much like those of Greenland, resemble wolves in figure, size, and nature. Left to themselves, they hunt in packs the animals of the country for the sake of prey. The rein-deer, weasel, red-fox, beaver, and marten, are likewise in great abundance throughout the whole of these inhospitable countries.

In our coasting voyage round the island of

Newfoundland we have had frequent opportunities of observing a copious mixture of English and French names, most of which may be traced either to the particular day on which those places were first discovered, or to some other striking incident or local circumstance. But now we shall find it frequently difficult to indulge in such etymological speculations from the want of an Indian dictionary; for it does not appear probable that our researches should lead us here to the same fortunate result as was once the case when, at a loss to find out the meaning of the word *Washeltoraw*, it was, at last, after much study, discovered to mean "La Vache et le Taureau," the French name of some dangerous rocks near Cape Saint Mary, on the south-east coast of Newfoundland, now more usually called "Cow and Bull Rocks."

About ten leagues distant north from the island of Anticosti are Mingun Islands; farther up, Wapuwagan, *alias* Ouapitougan, south-west of Wataguaki; and Waskemashin, *alias* Washemisker Islands; next, in a broad bay, are Saint Mary's and Nottegamew Islands.

From Grand-Point of Mecatina to Shecatica-Bay, including a space of near seventeen leagues, the coast contains several small bays and a multitude of islands and rocks of various sizes, the most remarkable of which are Great

Mecatina Island, Haha-Bay, Goose, Fox, Outer, Sandy, and Large Islands; the three last being the largest of a clustre or chain of islands, called Saint Augustine's Square, lying opposite to Saint John's Bay on the western coast of Newfoundland. The outermost of this chain of islands is a remarkably smooth rock, about twenty-five miles from Great Mecatina Island. Shecatica is a bay of very irregular shape and breadth, having an island of the same name at its mouth. Esquimeaux is a large bay which receives a considerable river, has to the south a smaller bay called Old Fort, and Esquimeaux Islands across its mouth. To the westward of Esquimeaux River is another, called Nasquirou.

At Grand-Point, south-east of Bradore-Harbour, the Straits of Bell-Isle begin, and run up on the Labrador side along a coast more indented than the opposite part of Newfoundland, containing names of places of obvious meaning, such as Wood Island, Red Cliffs, Black-Bay, Red-Bay, Green-Bay, and Wreck-Cove. These straits are so called from an island lying on the eastern coast of New Britain, and forming the northern entrance of the River Saint Lawrence from the sea. This passage is, however, very unsafe, and consequently seldom frequented in the usual course

of navigation. Bell-Isle is about seven leagues in circumference, and sixteen miles distant from the nearest land on the coast of Labrador: on the north-west side it has Lark-Harbour, convenient for fishing-vessels or small craft; and on the eastern point a cove which will admit shallops. It lies in near fifty-two degrees north latitude, and fifty-five and a half west longitude. To the west of Bell-Isle is Temple-Bay, a settlement where part of the fleet of Admiral Richery, in the year 1796, did considerable mischief. From this bay to Cape-Charles are some bays and islands, much frequented for the purposes of the fishery. Near this cape is a considerable river of the same name. The Bay of Saint Lewis has many islands, the largest of which is Battle Island.

From Cape-Charles to Cape-Chidley, the south-east point of Hudson's Strait, also called Frobisher's Mistaken Strait, the coast contains some inlets and islands, which are remarkable only for the singularity of their names, such as Jorucktoke, Ockchowet, Canyketoke, Calutie-weet, Ogbucktoke, Owlitchievie, Grimington, Nowyockshuockshook, &c. It is a country of fruitless valleys and frightful mountains which have here and there a blighted shrub or a little moss: the valleys are full of crooked stinted pines, fir, birch, and a species of the juniper.

In latitude sixty, vegetation ceases on this coast, which has Greenland to the north-east, from which it is separated by Davis's Strait.

On taking a general view of this part of the world, the names which we find here recorded naturally convey to the mind a lively feeling of admiration for the courage and perseverance displayed, and of some degree of participation in the severe disappointments suffered by the navigators who first discovered and explored these dreary regions, whilst in search of a north-west passage to the rich and beautiful countries of the east. Cabot was the first who formed such a project and attempted its execution; though he failed in the original object of his voyages, his labours were amply repaid by the discovery of the whole of the North American coast; and, more fortunate than any of those who followed him in the same career, he as well as his sons lived to enjoy the well-earned fame and rewards of their labours. But very different are the recollections attached to the names of Frobisher, of Davis, and of Hudson.

An expedition had been sent to these parts, in the year 1527, at the instigation of a merchant of Bristol, Robert Thorne, whose enlarged ideas and enterprising spirit have been

noticed in the History of Newfoundland. One of the ships employed on this expedition was lost in the gulf between Newfoundland and Greenland, and the other escaped with great difficulty. In the year 1576, Martin Frobisher, sent out by Queen Elizabeth for the same purpose, made the coast of Labrador on the 28th of July; and thence proceeded to Newfoundland, where he had some communication with the natives, to whom he made presents, and who, in return, destroyed his ship's boat and five sailors who had gone on shore contrary to his orders. The next year he again visited those high latitudes, and discovered West or New Greenland, which received from Queen Elizabeth the name of Meta Incognita, and to which he was again sent, in the year 1578, for the purpose of erecting there a fort and settling a colony. He had with him one hundred men for the garrison, and a considerable number of gold refiners, carpenters, bakers, and other persons of various trades proper for such an undertaking. An immense accumulation of ice prevented their reaching Frobisher's Straits; one of the ships, laden with a great part of the timber intended for the new settlement, was sunk on this coast by a shock from an island of ice, and it was with the greatest difficulty that the rest of his fleet escaped from the most

imminent dangers, brought on by a terrible storm from the south-east, and by the repeated and tremendous shocks and pressure of the vast masses of ice which surrounded his ships. At length, a north-north-west wind dispersed all this ice, and permitted them to approach again towards the land; but the appearance of the coast was so much changed by the snow and thick fogs, that they could not in the least distinguish whereabouts they were. And thus this third voyage of Frobisher terminated like the two preceding ones, without having effected any thing. So many successive disappointments and miscarriages did not, however, discourage other adventurers from engaging in similar enterprises.

John Davis having sailed from Falmouth with two ships, on the 13th of June, in the year 1585, was, on the 19th of July, alarmed by a tremendous noise in the sea, during a thick fog, though he could not find ground at three hundred fathoms. He soon after observed that this noise proceeded from the waves dashing against immense masses of ice, through which he got off with considerable difficulty and danger; and the next day his eyes were struck with the view of summits of mountains in the shape of sugar-loaves reaching above the clouds, and entirely covered

with ice and snow, to which he gave the appropriate name of the Land of Desolation. Undaunted by the rude and forbidding aspect of these coasts and seas, and by the dangers of this navigation, he proceeded in his course to the strait which now bears his name, penetrated into the vast sea now called Hudson's Bay, explored the eastern main within that bay; and having sailed back along the northern and north-eastern coast of Labrador, he thence proceeded on his return, and on the 30th of September, in the same year, arrived safely at Dartmouth.

Henry Hudson had made, in the years 1607 and 1608, two voyages to these coasts, still in search of a north-west passage to India, during which he had penetrated to eighty degrees and a half into the frozen zone. In a third voyage, in the year 1610, rising superior to the extreme hardships and dangers which stared him in the face, he determined to pass there the winter, in order to pursue his discoveries as early in the ensuing spring as the season would permit. He was making the necessary preparations for that purpose in the beginning of 1611; when his crew, grown desperate by sufferings and by the dread of continuing longer in those seas, mutinied, seized upon him and seven of his most faithful adherents, threw them adrift in an open

boat, and set sail for England. Hudson and his equally unfortunate companions are supposed to have either perished in the waves, or to have been destroyed by the savages.

Doctor Morse observes, that though these adventurers failed in the original purpose for which they navigated these parts, yet the project, even in its failure, has been of considerable advantage to England. These countries abound with animals whose fur and skins are excellent. The Hudson's Bay Company, established by charter in the year 1670, have erected there several forts, and found a very advantageous trade. According to the statement of that writer, in the year 1798, the exports of this Company from England then amounted annually to the value of sixteen thousand pounds; and the returns to twenty-nine thousand three hundred and forty pounds; yielding to the revenue three thousand seven hundred and thirty-four pounds sterling; whilst the annual produce of the fishery on that part of New Britain, called Labrador, amounted to upwards of forty-nine thousand pounds.

CHAPTER XIII.

OF THE CLIMATE OF NEWFOUNDLAND AND OF THE COAST OF LABRADOR.

ONE of the peculiarities which distinguish North America from the other parts of the world is the temperature of its climate. On the general principle that the heat of this globe is derived from the sun, it is natural to expect that this heat should be in a ratio compounded of his vicinity, the direct impulse of his rays, and the time of his continuance above the horizon; and that both the new and the old Continents should be equally affected under similar latitudes, in the distribution and character of their several seasons. So various, however, are the degrees of heat in both Continents, under the same latitudes, near the North Pole, and under the equator, that philosophers have almost despaired of ever approaching towards a system that would give us *à priori* any rules for ascertaining or accounting for these varieties.

It is very remarkable that we find, at some periods, a considerable degree of heat near

the North Pole, and perpetual frost in the vicinity of the equator. But, upon the whole, cold predominates in North America. The rigour of the freezing zone extends itself over half those regions which, by their positions, should be temperate. Even in the parts lying in the same parallel as the provinces of Asia and Africa, which uniformly enjoy such genial warmth as is most friendly to vegetation, the dominion of cold still continues to be felt, and winter reigns with extreme severity, though during a shorter period. It extends itself even to the torrid zone, where it mitigates the excess of the ardours of the sun; so that, while the negro, on the coast of Africa, is scorched with unremitting heat, the inhabitant of Peru breathes an air equally mild and temperate.

Newfoundland, part of Nova Scotia, and Canada, lie in the same parallel as the kingdom of France; and in every part of these the water of the rivers is frozen during winter to the thickness of several feet; the earth is covered with snow equally deep; and almost all the birds migrate during that season. The Labrador and the countries on the south of Hudson's Bay are in the same parallel as Great Britain: and yet, in all these, the cold is so intense, that even the industry of Europeans has not attempted cultivation. In the vicinity

of Hudson's Bay, Fahrenheit's thermometer has been known in January to sink to forty-five degrees below the freezing point; mercury frequently congeals at forty degrees, while spirits of wine will show forty-six. With respect to the southern parts of North America, several of the plants and fruits peculiar to the countries within the tropics, which are cultivated with success at the Cape of Good Hope, could never be brought to thrive with equal certainty in South Carolina or Florida. This defect is generally imputed to the natural coldness of the climate in America, as the vast number and enormous size of the trees there seem to indicate the extraordinary vigour of the soil in its natural state. Doctor Mitchell, from observations carried on during thirty years, supposes this difference in temperature to be equal to fourteen or fifteen degrees of latitude; so that a place lying in the fortieth degree of north latitude in America, will have the temperature of a place lying in about the fifty-fifth degree in the old Continent.

It is farther remarkable that, as the cold of winter is more severe, so likewise the heat of summer is more intense in North America than in most of the corresponding parts of the ancient Continent. It has already been said, that in the vicinity of Hudson's Bay, Fahren-

heit's thermometer has sunk, in the month of January, to forty-five degrees below the freezing point; it has also been seen there to rise in July as high as eighty-five degrees. All navigators who have visited those regions between the seventieth and the eightieth degrees of north latitude, frequently speak of a heat powerful enough to melt the pitch of the ships; which Doctor Forster, who accompanied Captain Cook in his voyages of discovery, observes is not the case in the south of America, because, he says, " the globe contains a much greater quantity of land elevated above the surface of the sea, in the northern part, than in the opposite polar regions of the south, which, to those who have explored them, have constantly exhibited nothing but a wide extensive sea; this sea absorbs the solar rays, while the land, on the contrary, reflects them in every direction, and thus a considerable degree of heat is generated."

Various causes have been assigned for this difference of climates under the same latitudes in the new and in the old Continents. Mr. Kirwan, having established for first principles that, after the sun, the earth is the chief source of heat in the atmosphere, and that, consequently, distance from the earth is a source of cold: that the vicissitudes of winds

are chiefly occasioned by the change of temperature, which they influence in their turns, and both together form the state of the atmosphere: he enumerates, among others, the following circumstances as governing the temperature of land:

1. Elevation above the level of the sea.

2. Vicinity or distance of large tracts of water.

3. Vicinity or distance of other tracts of land which, by their elevation or the circumstances of their surface, have a temperature peculiar to themselves, as stony, sandy, and woody countries.

4. The bearing of neighbouring seas, mountains, forests, deserts, &c.

America extends farther to the Pole than any other part of the world, and spreads out immensely to the west: its northern extremity is one entire groupe of high mountains, covered with ice and snow throughout the whole year. These mountains rise in those parts of the Continent that have been discovered in Baffin's Bay, and spread all over to New England. Hence the coast of Labrador is the highest of any in the world, and may be descried at the distance of forty leagues; whilst, in the western parts, discovered by the Russians, we are informed, that the country has terrible mountains

covered with snow in the month of July, in the latitude of fifty-eight degrees. The wind, in passing over such an extent of high and frozen land, becomes so impregnated with cold, that it acquires a piercing keenness which it retains in its progress through warmer climates, and is not entirely mitigated until it reaches the Gulf of Mexico. It is evident, that a *cold* wind blowing over *land*, will, at first, lose some part of its temperature, because in its passage it robs the surface of some of its heat. But, if this cold wind continues to blow in the same direction as it passes over a surface already cooled, it will, at last, suffer no farther abatement of its own keenness; and, as it advances over a large tract of land, it will bring on with it all the severity of intense frost. Over all the Continent of North America, a north-westerly wind and excessive cold are synonimous terms: even in the most sultry weather, the moment that the wind veers to that quarter, its penetrating influence is felt in a transition from heat to cold no less violent than sudden. These north-westerly winds are the most predominant there, and blow with a fury which no wind exceeds. The great lakes of Canada, which are inland seas extending north-west for twelve or thirteen hundred miles, give force and direction to these winds which blow from

the northern frozen regions, and bring the climate of Hudson's Bay to the most southern parts of that Continent, whenever they blow for any length of time. On the other hand, when a *cold* wind blows over an extensive and deep *sea*, the superficial water will be immediately cooled to a certain degree, and the wind will be proportionably warmed; this superficial and colder water, becoming specifically heavier than the warmer water below it, will descend, and its place will be supplied by what is warmer, and so on successively, producing a proportionable abatement of coldness in the air, until the whole water will be so far cooled that the surface is no longer removed from the action of the wind fast enough to hinder it from being arrested by frost. Whenever the surface freezes, the wind is no longer warmed by the water from below, and it blows on with undiminished cold. Let us now suppose a *warm* wind blowing over *water*; it will agitate it and bring up the colder water from below, and thus it will be continually losing somewhat of its own heat. Besides, on account of the transparency of water, its surface cannot be heated to a great degree by the sun's rays; so that during its passage over an extensive collection of water this wind is gradually cooled; whilst the same wind, blowing over *land*, calculated

by cultivation or otherwise for the absorption of heat, will warm the surface of that ground, and will itself acquire an increasing degree of heat. It is a general observation in England, and in other parts similarly situated, that the greatest heat in the day is about two o'clock in the afternoon, the summer warmest about the middle of July, and the winter coldest about the middle of January. This is considered as the effect of the continued operation of the rays of the sun during the long days, and *vice versâ*. For the same reason the forests which cover America hinder the sun-beams from heating the ground, which, not being heated, cannot heat the air; at the same time that they are a great cause of the temperate climate in the equatorial parts. Doctor Wynne, in his History of America, in opposition to the opinion of those who imagine that the severity of the climate of the north of America is to be attributed to the woods, says, that they do not distinguish between wet and cold, or the damps of wood-lands and frosts, which are very different things: that these colds are so far from being occasioned by the woods, that one-half of that Continent which is the coldest, and from which they proceed, has not a wood in it, and is so barren that it does not bear a tree or a bush. He affirms that it is from this want of

woods in the northern parts, and from the great lakes, that these furious north-westerly winds proceed, which, he says, are very much abated by the woods. In the open plains these cold winds are insufferable both to man and beast, and that even in the southern colonies, whilst in the woods they may be endured. This is particularly applicable to the climate of Newfoundland. On the barrens the cold is intolerable; and in the most intense winters there is a considerable degree of heat in the woods, even so as to produce lassitude and perspiration in travelling. In summer, while the sun is above the horizon, the heat is very great on the barrens, and the woods are extremely cool. These various effects may be accounted for on the principle above laid down by Doctor Wynne, as to the temperature of the barrens in winter; and with respect to the difference of temperature in the woods, the heat in winter may be attributed to the obstructions which impede the communication between the atmosphere and the surface of the ground, which is thus allowed to retain its natural heat, while, in summer, the effect of the interception of the rays of the sun is increased by the cooling exhalations of the earth and the continual perspiration of the plants. For it is well known, that the vegetative power of a plant occasions

a perspiration from the leaves in proportion to the heat to which they are exposed; and from the nature of evaporation, this perspiration produces a proportionable degree of cold.

In Newfoundland, in the same manner as in Switzerland, and in Siberia, where the cold is known to be extremely intense in winter, the snow is observed to melt first at the bottom: as soon as the temperature of the air has undergone a change sufficient to produce an impression on the surface of the frozen snow, this immense solid mass, four or five feet deep, and composed of several layers formed by different falls of snow on so many hard frozen surfaces, appears to be worked upon by two powers acting in different directions until they meet, when the mass breaks and dissolves in torrents. The effects of such a *sudden thaw* in Newfoundland is almost inconceivable. The snow which rests on a *rocky* surface, on the contrary, converted into a solid mass of ice, remains until the rays of the sun have completely melted it, and in some parts of the woods continues in that state even until the middle of summer. Immediately after the melting of the snow, the earth is found unfrozen not only at the surface, but also at any depth, except in those places where the ground is rocky at a small distance from the surface. The melting of the

snow is much more rapid in its lower parts, which, in the most severe winters, are found, by digging, to consist of a soft substance, called in Newfoundland *rotten* snow.

From the principles of the effects produced by a cold and a warm wind blowing over land and over water, may be explained the severity of winter and frosts, and the intensity of heat, in extensive continents; the comparatively mild climates of islands in the same latitudes, as is the case with Newfoundland in comparison with Canada, which, in fact, lies more to the southward; the superior rigour of winter in those parts of North America with which we are best acquainted, and the superior warmth in summer of large continents, situated in the temperate or colder zones of the earth, when compared with those of islands. This explains likewise a fact, which otherwise would appear unaccountable, that the same westerly winds which spread the rigours of winter in America as far as the equator, mitigate its severity in the north-west parts of Europe, whilst in India these *north-westers* are welcome visitors.

In Canada the extremes of heat and cold are astonishing. In July and August the thermometer is often as high as ninety-six degrees, while mercury freezes in the depth of winter. The snow begins generally in November; and,

in January, the frost is so intense, that it is hardly possible to be long out of doors without risk of serious injury to the extremities. Most houses have very large stoves placed in the centre, whence flues pass to the other apartments. Various other precautions are taken against the weather, such as double doors and double windows in the houses, and furs or other very warm coverings for the body. In May, the thaw generally comes suddenly, the ice on the river bursting with the noise of cannon, and its passage to the sea truly terrific, especially when it crashes against a rock. The heat of summer speedily succeeds the frost, and vegetation is instantaneous. July and August are exceedingly hot, with frequent violent thunder-storms. September is generally the most pleasant month in the year.

In Newfoundland, the seasons partake of the general character of the climate in those latitudes, but in a milder degree; for although this island lies in a higher latitude than Canada, the winters are by no means of such intense and continued severity as to require the extraordinary precautions which are used there against the cold. Winter generally sets in about the middle of November, and terminates about the middle or latter end of April. The extreme frosts are from Christmas to the middle

of March. Summer sets in about the beginning of June, and the greatest heats are generally from the beginning of July to the end of August. Early winters are commonly severe and long: a mild winter produces a wet summer, and a proper Newfoundland winter occasions a dry summer. There is some variation in the time when the winter sets in, but there is none in its termination, on account of the regular periodical arrival, on these coasts, of the islands and fields of ice from the northern regions, the effect of which is to protract the severity of winter, or rather to bring on a second winter, which lasts until the ice has been driven away by a westerly or north-westerly wind, sufficiently strong to detach and move those immense masses.

The sky, towards the northern and western parts of the island, is generally clear and serene, whilst the eastern and southern parts, on the shore and in soundings, are more subject to rains and fogs, on account of their proximity to the banks. These heavy wet fogs are most frequent in the spring and in the fall, when they render the navigation near that coast extremely dangerous. To obviate, in some degree, those dangers, guns are fired from one of the forts in Saint John's every half-hour, or every quarter of an hour, according to circumstances, to in-

form the vessels which may then happen to be on the coast of their proximity to the land.

In winter, the cold from the west and north-west is severe, but dry and bracing. The wind from the north and north-east produces a raw penetrating cold, accompanied with drifts of snow or sleet, which cover the ground sometimes to the depth of four or five feet, and even six or seven in certain situations. Sudden tempests frequently arise; the winds seem to blow at once from all quarters, and drive about the snow with such fury that the roads and the ground are in a moment rendered invisible; the whole extent is one smooth surface, interspersed with hills and valleys of snow; the lower part of the houses is buried to the depth of several feet, and their entrance completely blocked up. During these storms the houses crack and shake, the sea water is scattered about on the land like snow-dust, and the woods, at any other time much warmer than the open ground during the winter, afford no shelter to the traveller, when surprised by a sudden gale of wind accompanied with drifts of snow. Unable to see his way or to proceed, he is tempted to sit down or lie still under the trees. Extreme cold, especially when joined with fatigue, is well known to produce a sleepiness which is almost irresistible; its torpid in-

fluence renders all motion unpleasant, and is gently carrying the sleep of death from the extremities to the heart. To be then preserved from certain destruction, the traveller must be shaken and dragged by force from his fatal bed of slumber; for, according to Doctor Solander's observation, "Whosoever, in such a case, sits down, will sleep; and whoever sleeps, will wake no more." Or, if he is fortunate enough to escape with his life, he runs great danger of coming out with some of his extremities bit by the frost, an accident which sometimes happens in Newfoundland, under various circumstances, during the winter; though not so common as in Russia. There, as we are informed by travellers, numbers of persons frequently lose their nose, ears, fingers, and toes by it: it is not unusual for people, in passing each other, to call out *to take care of their nose;* for those who have been bit by the frost are not sensible of it themselves, whereas, it is easily perceived by others, from the white appearance of the part affected: a mortification unavoidably ensues, unless it is prevented in time by rubbing the part with snow till the person recovers his feeling; otherwise the part affected will be completely lost; and this effect may be accelerated by using warm applications, or by entering into a warm room. Among

the many instances of this kind which have passed under my observation, one was of a remarkably stout and strong mariner, whose feet happened to be bit by the frost, in consequence of wet from sea water, on his passage from Saint John's to Harbour-Grace. He unhappily fell into the hands of one of the experimental sons of Esculapius, who attempted to cure his feet by the application of *warm water*; the consequence of this new mode of treatment was, that the mortification gained upon his limbs with the most alarming rapidity, and his life could not have been preserved but by the amputation of both legs above the knees.

A change of wind sometimes brings on a sudden partial thaw, which is soon succeeded by a frost; and then the surface presents a smooth level of ice.

In Europe, the dry freezing winds proceed from north to east: in North America they are from north to west. When these prevail, the sky is clear and of a dark blue, and the nights transcendently beautiful. The moon displays far greater radiance than in Europe; and, in her absence, her function is not ill supplied by the uncommon and fiery brightness of the stars. The *aurora borealis* frequently tinges the sky with coloured rays of such brilliancy, that their splendour, not effaced even by that of the full

moon, is of the utmost magnificence, if the moon does not shine. Sometimes it begins in the form of a scarf of bright light with its extremities resting upon the horizon, which, with a motion resembling that of a fishing-net, and a noise similar to the rustling of silk, glides softly up the sky, when the lights frequently unite in the zenith and form the top of a crown; at other times, the motion is like that of a pair of colours waving in the air, and the different tints of light present the appearance of so many vast streamers of changeable silk: or spreading into vast columns and altering slowly; or by rapid motions into an immense variety of shapes, varying its colours from all the tints of yellow to the most obscure russet; and, after having briskly skimmed along the heavens, or majestically spread itself from the horizon to the zenith, on a sudden it disappears, leaving behind a uniform dusky tract: this is again illuminated, and in the same manner suddenly extinguished. Sometimes it begins with some insulated rays from the north and the north-east, which increase by degrees until they fill the whole sky, forming the most splendid sight that can be conceived, crackling, sparkling, hissing, and making a noise similar to that of artificial fireworks.

These phenomena, which are generally considered as the effects of electricity, are looked

upon as the forerunners of storms; and when these arise from the north-east they spread the most horrid gloom over the island. Immense islands and fields of ice, brought down from the northern regions, fill up and freeze every bay and harbour, and block up the coast to the distance of several leagues into the ocean. The wind, blowing over this immense surface, is full of frozen fogs or frost-smoke, arising from the ice, in the shape of an infinite number of icy spiculæ, visible to the naked eye, penetrating into every pore and into the smallest apertures of the wooden houses, and rendering the exposure to the open air very disagreeable and even painful.

The stated period for the seal-fishery, so as not to injure the cod-fishery, does not admit of any delay; otherwise the voyage would be lost, and it is this very ice that brings the seals near these coasts. The 17th of March is generally the time when vessels are ready to proceed on this fishery. The crews collected together, with as many assistants as can be obtained from the shore, are distributed into two rows, some with hatchets or large saws, and others with strong poles in their hands. Having fixed upon two lines separated by a space of sufficient breadth to allow the ships or vessels to pass through freely, each party cuts along the

solid mass into squares, which are afterwards divided across from one line to the other, and shoved with poles under the firm ice, or else pushed along to the opening, if this happens to be at a small distance. This operation, which is extremely laborious, is continued until a way has been worked into the open sea. Where the harbour is divided by a beach, or by projecting rocks, the space thus cut off to those points, if the wind is in the right quarter, will generally shake and loosen the whole mass, which is easily removed by means of poles, and the harbours will be completely cleared in a very short time. But when the ice is of considerable thickness, after a long and steady frost, the task is harder in proportion; the operation must be continued to the mouth of the harbour, and forms in the middle a beautiful channel, to which the contrast of the white colour of the surrounding ice gives a very dark tint. I saw, in the spring of the year 1801, that operation performed in Saint John's Harbour, to open a passage to the Pluto sloop of war, commanded by Captain Edgell, a gentleman whose name will be long remembered there with pleasure. The winter had been unusually severe; the ice in the harbour, of considerable thickness, had the consistency of a rocky surface, whilst its uniform smoothness

gave it the appearance of an even plain. The cold was intense and the day of the greatest beauty. An immense concourse of people had collected on the ice, where there were likewise several officers and other gentlemen on horseback. The operation was long and extremely laborious, performed with very large and heavy saws, the hatchets being used only to cut the pieces of ice across from line to line. After the passage had been completely opened through the whole middle channel of the harbour, the ice still continuing firm on both sides, the appearance of the Pluto, with most of her sails set and filled by a gentle breeze from the westward, proceeding majestically through the channel, was truly grand and exceedingly beautiful.

When the ice has completely left the bays and harbours, which frequently happens in the course of one night, the change in the temperature of the weather is great and indescribably rapid; but should the wind turn to the eastward, all that ice returns instantly and restores things to the same state in which they were before; winter then resumes his empire, and sometimes seems to revenge the temporary interruption of his reign by additional severity and rigour. The south-east storms are the most violent, but the north-east are of the

longest continuance, and attended with every circumstance that can complete the asperity of that dreary season.

The spring is generally attended by fogs and rains. About the beginning of June the change of climate is sensible, and from the middle of July, and frequently sooner, to the latter end of August, the heats are so considerable as to require a change to what is called summer-dress. Not a cloud is to be perceived, and for some hours, commonly between ten in the morning and four in the afternoon, the warmth of the weather is frequently such as, according to the observations of competent judges, not to be exceeded in any part of the West Indies. It is, however, generally not only tolerable but extremely pleasant. The nights are transcendently beautiful: the clearness of the heavens, the serenity of the air, the bright radiance of the moon, the uncommon beauty of the stars, each of which, particularly near the horizon, strongly resembles a ship's light at a distance; all these produce the most exquisitely delightful scene that can be imagined.

It is impossible to conceive, much more to describe, the splendid appearance of Conception-Bay and its harbours on such a night, at the time of what is there called the Cape-

lin-skull. Then its vast surface is completely covered with myriads of fishes of various kinds and sizes, all actively engaged either in pursuing or in avoiding each other; the whales alternately rising and plunging, throwing into the air spouts of water; the cod-fish bounding above the waves, and reflecting the light of the moon from their silvery surface; the capelins hurrying away in immense shoals to seek a refuge on the shore, where each retiring wave leaves countless multitudes skipping upon the sand, an easy prey to the women and children who stand there with barrows and buckets ready to seize upon the precious and plentiful booty; while the fishermen in their skiffs, with nets made for that purpose, are industriously employed in securing a sufficient quantity of this valuable bait for their fishery.

September is the most uniformly temperate month. Towards the middle of October the weather grows cool and variable, and, at the end of that month, the rains and fogs have already begun to alter the state of the atmosphere, and continue, without any considerable interruption, until about the middle of December, when snow, frost and cold piercing winds, announce the approach of winter. The coast is then beaten by a rough and heavy sea, which has assumed a darker hue, roaring with incessant

noise, shaking and even tearing down the stages and other wooden erections for the fishery, which lie in exposed situations, and which have been spared by the equinoctial gales. The wind varies from the south-east round to the north-east and north, driving before it on the shore storms of snow and sleet, till, at last, the north-west having acquired the superiority, the atmosphere is cleared, the frost intense, and the weather salutary, though occasionally disturbed by violent storms of snow from the west and north, and of cutting sleet from the north-east and east.

From this state of the climate of Newfoundland and the adjacent parts of North America, it appears evident, that this island is not calculated to produce any thing sufficient for the support of its inhabitants.

It has, indeed, been justly observed, that most parts of Europe, particularly about the central and northern regions, are now much less cold than they were in the time of Augustus: this change is attributed to the improvement in the agriculture of those countries, the removal of superabundant forests, and the draining of marshes. But let us take a view of the map of Newfoundland; let us observe those deep bays which, intersecting it into peninsulas, carry into its very centre the frosts and ice of the

arctic regions, from which proceed the winds that are most prevalent in these latitudes during the winter; and it will appear a very probable conclusion, that no internal improvement can produce a material effect on its climate; that any attempt of this kind must be fruitless, and lead only to a waste of labour and expense; and that, consequently, Newfoundland can never be truly valuable but as a fishery, unless Greenland should be restored to the state from which it is supposed to have originally derived its name.

CHAPTER XIV.

NATURAL PRODUCTIONS OF THE ISLAND OF NEWFOUNDLAND AND OF THE COAST OF LABRADOR.

ALTHOUGH the character of the climate, and the appearance of the land in the island of Newfoundland, as far as it has been explored, are by no means calculated to encourage any well-grounded hopes of success in agricultural improvements, various circumstances have, nevertheless, led to attempts of this kind from the earliest period, even since the year 1615, when Ferryland became the seat of the Government of Ayalon. Necessity naturally induced the inhabitants to avail themselves of every advantage of their situation; at full liberty to select those grounds which were most favourable to their views, the coasts, beaches, and coves, afforded them an abundant and never-failing supply of kelp and other sea-weeds fit for manure; and the ashes of bushes and trees in the neighbouring woods consumed by fires, the effects either of accident or of

design, must have made no small addition to the natural fertility of the lands so cleared, if they had any. These facilities were appreciated and considerably improved by the several patentees, with a view to make the most of the lands allotted them; by the opulent merchants, in order to increase their own comforts; and by several officers of the army, who could more easily devote their time and attention to such pursuits, and procure labourers without interfering with the fishery. From the operation of all these causes and facilities, it would be natural to expect most extensive improvements in the space of two hundred years. And yet the best cultivated grounds, at this day,* scarcely bring even oats to perfect maturity. Potatoes, and cabbage, both green and red, are the most valuable productions of the island, growing in plots more or less extensive attached to most houses and fishermen's huts.

The mode of planting potatoes is the same as in Ireland. The root is cut into several pieces, each of which has an eye: these are spread on ridges with the hand, or on the back of the spade, after it has been driven to some depth into the ground. These ridges, four or

* Viz. to the year 1812.

five feet wide, without any other preparation than a thin bed of kelp, or other manure, over which the seed is laid, are then covered with earth and stones dug out from furrows, on each side, of somewhat less than half the breadth of the ridge. This operation is repeated at two several times, as the plant is rising above the surface, to give it strength, and is then called *trenching*. Late in the fall the potatoes are dug out and secured in cellars under ground. This valuable root is frequently injured by the early frosts before it has been housed, as well as in the cellars, during the winter, if the least damp or cold air reaches them. Even in the most favourable seasons the stock of potatoes raised in the island is so far from adequate to the consumption of the inhabitants, that early arrivals of vessels in the spring are expected with great anxiety for fresh supplies of that commodity.

Turnips, parsnips, peas, beans, radishes, common small salad, lettuce of various kinds, and sorrel, succeed very well in the gardens, and form an important part of the "luxuries" of that country. Even the common dandelion is most eagerly sought after in the spring, as a substitute for the greater delicacies of the fine season. Melons have been attempted with

some success in hot-houses: cucumbers are raised with less difficulty; and fine hops with the greatest facility.

Red, black, and white currants, gooseberries, and strawberries, grow there in the greatest perfection; a smaller kind of the latter fruit grows spontaneously among the rocks and in the woods; raspberries grow any where. The cherries are excellent, but only of one kind, usually known by the name of Kentish cherries. Damascenes, or damsons, grow in abundance on handsome low trees, but seldom come to complete maturity.

The plains throughout the whole island are almost covered with low bushes which bear a variety of wild berries. The snake-root, the capilaire, or maidenhair, and the *wisha capucoa*, well known in most parts of the north of America, under the name of American, or *Indian tea*, are likewise extremely common in Newfoundland and the neighbouring islands. When in blossom this latter plant is most beautiful: its leaves green on the upper, and woolly on the under surface, of a very thick texture, are used like tea. M. Cassini, who observed this plant in the island of Saint Peter, says, that it greatly resembles their rosemary, both in the stalk and in the leaf. The common mode of using it is to boil it over night, to let it steep till the morn-

ing, and then to warm the liquor. It is not only a pleasant beverage, but is also considered by the oldest inhabitants as particularly wholesome in the spring.

Another still more remarkable plant, found in the woods of Newfoundland, is the *Saracenia*, commonly called side-saddle flower, or pitcher-plant. Its flowers, shaped like a lady's saddle, are surrounded with a vast number of pitchers along with the leaves, to receive the rain-water. The lids expand or shut according to the necessities of the plant; and they are of so strong a texture that, being laid on a fire, they will bear for some minutes a heat sufficient to make the water in them boil. This plant is accurately described in the twentieth number of Doctor Thornton's Temple of Flora.

The swamps abound with a pleasing variety of reeds and flowers of various sizes and colours; and the woods with mosses and ferns: some of them have a most beautiful and uncommon appearance and texture, particularly those found on the bark of trees which have lain for some time on the ground. On the road from Portugal-Cove to the town of Saint John's is an extensive marsh, covered with various kinds of grasses, among which are seen thinly spread about thick cylindrical black stalks, about two feet in height, surmounted at top with a thick

circular tuft of fine white cotton-like filaments. Wild roses, both red and white, violets, and marygolds, are likewise common in the woods, whilst the sun-flower, the various kinds of lilies, roses, and other superior flowers, succeed very well in cultivated grounds, displaying in August and September all the beauties of an European spring. It is in fact, at that time of the year, that nature distributes all her most valuable productions: the various bushes and the cherry-trees then yield their berries arrived at maturity; whilst the merchant vessels bring the pine-apple and other delicious fruits from the West Indies, and beautiful grapes, oranges, and lemons, from Portugal and Spain. But this abundance and variety of good things last but a very short time. They all come at once, and, after a few weeks, vanish all together; so true is the common saying in Newfoundland: "A short feast, and a long famine." Red currants may be an exception to this rule, as they have been seen to remain on the bushes in a perfect state until the middle, and sometimes even to the end of October.

With respect to the general character of the woods in Newfoundland, M. Cassini, in his account of the Islands of Saint Pierre and the Miquelons, describes them as consisting of sorry fir-trees and some few birch, the only trees that grew in that country, so far as he

could find; adding, that he did not see a single tree more than twelve feet high in all that part of the island where he went. On the other hand, we find that several respectable writers, on the authority and in the very words of a History of North and South America, published in the year 1776, have held out the delusive hope, that "the island of Newfoundland, whenever the Continent shall come to fail of timber convenient to navigation, which, perhaps," they say, "is no very remote prospect, will afford a copious supply for masts, yards, and all sorts of lumber for the West India trade." This substitution of *lumber* in the last period, to *timber* in the first part of this sentence, is extremely judicious, taking the former word in the sense given by Doctor Johnson: "any thing useless or cum-"bersome; any thing of more bulk than value:" nay, it may be said here, that the value and bulk are generally pretty nearly equal. The few attempts that have hitherto* been made to build in that island ships or brigs, intended for long voyages, have ended in the production of vessels that might perhaps live *seven* years at the most, and which were designated there by the ominous appellation of Newfoundland coffins. The inhabitants themselves, notwithstanding

* Viz. to the year 1812.

the strong inducement of the great difference which it would make in the price of their materials, will scarcely ever trust to the Newfoundland growth for the principal pieces of timber used in their schooners or smaller craft. In all cases, where strength and durability are required, recourse is had to timber imported from Miramichi, in New Brunswick, and other parts of North America. The only uses to which the Newfoundland lumber is generally applied, are as lungers, posts, and other parts of their fishing stages; staves for oil and fish casks, and even of these a considerable proportion is annually imported from abroad; clapboard and firewood. The severity of the Newfoundland winters, the violent storms and extensive floods to which this island is subject, and the very small depth of the mould, which is scarcely sufficient to cover the roots of the trees, must necessarily prevent these from attaining to their natural size, solidity, and compactedness.

The family of firs and evergreens compose, perhaps, the largest proportion of the trees found in the forests of Newfoundland. The spruce, or true fir, grows straight and tapering; its twigs with the leaves boiled, and mixed with molasses, make a beverage, or beer, which is esteemed particularly wholesome. Here are also the white spruce-fir, which grows

in swamps or marshes, several kinds of pine-trees, small alder, asp, ash, beech, and elm. I have seen some beautiful specimens of the silver-leaved fir on the late Stephen Knight's farm, near Quidy-Vidy-Pond. White and black birch are very common, particularly in those parts of the woods which have been wasted by fire. Cherry-trees are also sometimes seen in those parts of the woods which border on the sea-coast.

Kelp and several other kinds of large sea-weeds are extremely abundant in the different bays and harbours, and profitably used as manure. Here also are found some of those extraordinary productions of nature which compose the order of zoophyta, or animal flowers, forming the link between the vegetable and the animal kingdoms. The specimen which I had an opportunity of observing, in the year 1811, in Bay-Bulls, resembled a collection of long thick leaves, issuing from the surface of a small insulated rock not far from the shore, and always under water. These seeming leaves were of a bright straw colour, with streaks and spots of green distributed in some parts in a regular and in others in an irregular manner. On the near approach of a stick or other similar substance they immediately contracted towards the centre, and closed toge-

ther, having then the appearance of a plant in the form of a truncated cone: but, if left undisturbed for a few minutes, they gradually expanded, though at first very cautiously, till they appeared in all their former bloom, waving sometimes together and sometimes separately in different directions. The rock itself exhibited on its surface a thick bed of the weed called water-bottles, very much resembling scattered clusters of unripe grape. Every attempt to lay hold of any of those seeming leaves was fruitless. I was informed that this rock had been more than once most carefully bored and drilled with a sharp iron instrument, so as to destroy every vestige of vegetation on its surface, and to lay it completely bare; and in the course of a few days the plant was seen again on the very same spot, displaying the same appearances as before, of bloom, sensation, and voluntary motion of its parts.

To the mineralogist Newfoundland may probably present an interesting and abundant field, treasures hitherto unexplored, if credit is given to the only source of information which can be had on this subject, namely, the traditionary reports which are repeated with confidence by the oldest inhabitants of the island. From these it would appear, 1st. that Conception-Bay has always been understood to con-

tain mines of several sorts; that, at Chapel-Cove, at the head of that bay, there is a coal-mine. A lime-kiln was some years ago erected in that neighbourhood, and for some time worked with tolerable success. 2d. That there is an iron-mine at Back-Cove, on the northern side of Bell-Isle, near Portugal-Cove; another on a high hill, called the Look-Out, on the back of the town of Harbour-Grace. In this latter place there are two remarkable springs, which are considered as of a mineral nature; the one on the easterly boundaries of what is called there Stretton's farm, or plantation, and the other about half way on the road from the church to the river-head of Harbour-Grace. It has also been positively asserted, by several respectable ancient inhabitants, that Shoal-Bay, lying between Petty-Harbour and Bay-Bulls, to the south of the town of Saint John's, contains a mine of copper ore; that, about the year 1775, some Cornish miners were brought over from England, at the invitation of the then Collector of the Customs in Saint John's, for the express purpose of working this supposed mine; that an attempt was actually made, but soon after relinquished, on account of the expense, and the tardiness of returns adequate to the farther prosecution of the new undertaking.

Doctor Forster affirms that there are in Newfoundland, as well as in Cape-Breton, such rich coal-mines, that, if they were worked, their produce would be sufficient to supply all Europe and America abundantly with this commodity; and that some even are so advantageously situated, that the coals might be thrown directly from the coal-works themselves into the ships as they lie close to the shore. This piece of intelligence, he says, he had from his late friend Captain Cook, who, for several years successively had explored the shores of this island, taken their bearings and respective distances, and laid them down on charts.

But a less doubtful mineral production, remarkable for the unfortunate mistakes which it has occasioned from the earliest period since the discovery of this island, is to be found near Catalina-Harbour, between Cape-Bonavista and Trinity-Harbour. It is a cliff almost entirely composed of gold marcasite, which goes there by the name of *Catalina-stone;* a heavy, shining, yellowish substance, which, like flint, emits fire when struck with steel; and, when exposed in an iron spoon to the action of fire, yields a blue sulphureous flame, and afterwards calcines into a purple powder.

Sir Martin Frobisher seems to be the first on

record who was deceived by the external appearance of this substance into a confidence that he had, at last, found the precious metal so ardently sought after in those times. In the voyage which he performed, in the year 1576, to attempt a north-west passage to India, we are informed, that having met with a vast quantity of ice, he at last saw land on the 28th of July, and again on the 1st of August: on the 11th, he entered into a *strait*, where he had some communication with the natives, lost five of his men, and then left that coast, carrying with him, among other things, a shining and very heavy stone which was afterwards found to be gold marcasite, or pyrites aureus. This last circumstance seems to fix accurately the place, otherwise doubtful in the relation of the voyage, where those transactions took place: for, in three different charts of "Ortelio's Theatro del Orbe de la Tierra," each of which bears the date of the year 1587, Trinity-Bay is represented as a strait leaving Avalon to the south-east as a distinct island.

Seven years afterwards, Sir Humphrey Gilbert was deceived in the same manner, though accompanied by an "expert Saxon miner." It must appear surprising that an experienced miner and assayist, as Hackluyt represents this

Daniel to have been, should have fallen into such an error; or was it an artifice to induce the Admiral to hasten his return to England?

This mineral, known by the names of marcasite, coppera-stone, and horse-gold, is frequently found mixed with copper, iron, arsenic, silver, and gold. It likewise abounds in coal-pits so much that it is found necessary to separate it carefully from the coal. The pieces so separated and laid in heaps have been known, in several instances, to take fire and to burn like red-hot coals, to the great alarm and annoyance of the neighbourhood, on account of the sulphureous and fœtid exhalations which they emitted to a considerable distance. The master of a copperas-work, at Whitstable, in Kent, had laid pyrites, to the quantity of about three hundred tons, in a heap, and built over it a shed to keep off the rain. In the space of a few months, the heap was seen to emit a strong sulphureous smoke, soon after took fire, and continued to burn for a whole week, until the inhabitants of the place and neighbourhood, for their own sake, united their endeavours to extinguish it. The same accident has been observed at Whitehaven, at Halifax, and at Ealand. It is to this property of taking fire spontaneously, when affected by a certain degree of moisture, as well as to that of striking fire, like flint, with

steel, that this mineral owes its scientific name of *pyrites*, from the Greek word for *fire*. For the same reason, pyrites have been considered by the Reverend Mr. Michell, and several other writers in the middle of the eighteenth century, as the principal cause of earthquakes, which were represented as proceeding from the admission of water to subterraneous fires, and from the elastic vapour which was produced in consequence of such admission. The ground of this theory was, that a little rivulet passing over a bed of pyrites will first produce heat, then smoke, and at last a clear flame. The same effect has also been observed in coal-pits: for though the coals, of themselves, do not, strictly speaking, enter into combustion, yet, when contaminated with pyrites beyond the usual proportion, and moistened by rain or other means, their accumulations will easily take fire, as it happened above a hundred years ago at Puddle-Wharf, in London. Even their native strata have been known to burn for a long series of years from the same cause. The cliffs near Charmouth, in Dorsetshire, took fire, in August, 1751, in consequence of a heavy fall of rain after a hot and dry season, and continued at intervals to emit flame for several years. These cliffs are said to consist of a dark-coloured bituminous loam, in which are imbedded

large quantities of different kinds of pyrites. In the same manner, and from the same causes, the cliff above mentioned, near Catalina-Harbour, in Newfoundland, frequently takes fire and continues to emit flame for a longer or shorter time, according to circumstances of wind and weather.

The only article of any interest that the coast of Labrador presents to the mineralogist, is known by the name of the *Labrador-stone*, or " spatum rutilum versicolor." This beautiful stone was first discovered about the year 1778 by the Moravians. Its colour is sometimes of a light, sometimes of a deep, and mostly of a blackish grey; but when held in certain positions to the light, it discovers different varieties of beautiful shining colours, as lazuly-blue, grass-green, apple-green, pea-green, and not seldom a citron-yellow: some have an intermediate colour between red-copper and tomback-grey, some between grey and violet; these colours are seen sometimes in stripes, but generally in spots, on the same piece. The Labrador-stones are found in pretty large pieces of an angular form: their fracture appears foliated, and the broken parts are rhomboidal; they are semi-transparent, and in other respects agree with the felt-spar.

Of the animals to be found in Newfound-

land, some are of European extraction; others are natives, and, except the proper Newfoundland dog, common to the northern regions of British America.

Of the first class are the few horses and black cattle which are kept there. These are generally left, during the summer, to range in the woods and valleys, where they find sufficient pasture; and when, towards the fall, this support fails them, they repair, as by instinct, to their owners' dwellings, sometimes with the addition of a foal or a calf; but, if the cow has a calf at home, she will never absent herself for a longer time than until the dusk of the evening. Goats are numerous, easily kept, and very useful on account of their kids, and also of their milk, which is generally used in the island, and by many preferred to cow's milk. Swine are likewise extremely common, to the frequent annoyance of the gardens and potatoe-grounds: they are liable to acquire a fishy taste, which they will communicate to their litter, if they are not confined for some time previous to their farrowing; the same precaution is likewise necessary previous to their being killed for use. Rabbits have of late years been introduced into some small islands in Conception-Bay, where they have considerably increased, notwithstanding the absurd method some-

times used of shooting them; the consequence of which must be that the rabbit, if only wounded, will crawl into a hole and there die. Among the common domestic animals, the cat is one of the most useful, on account of the vast number of rats and mice which infest the stores and dwelling-houses. The rats there are of an amazing size and uncommonly bold, having frequently been seen to cross the streets in the day-time in their way to the provision-stores, to maintain their ground against a dog, and to show little dread at the approach of man.

Among the wild inhabitants of the woods, the deer hold the first rank, on account of their size, numbers, and utility. These multiply in the interior of the island with the greater ease, as they are less disturbed and more secure. Bears, beavers, otters, the common or red fox, hares, and martens, are likewise found there in vast numbers, and furnish an abundant and very profitable employment to the furriers, during the winter season, both in Newfoundland and in the other parts of those latitudes. The winter is the usual season for *hunting*. At that time the snow, deep and hardened by the frost, presents every where a surface uniformly level, dry, and convenient for those pursuits. The hunter's head is sheltered by a north-wester, or

hood, which covers his head and shoulders, and is fastened by pinovers, or pieces of flannel tacked to one side of the north-wester and pinned to the other, the one covering the nose, and the other the chin; his hands are concealed in warm cuffs, in shape like those used in England by hedgers; and his feet are armed with light broad rackets. Thus prepared, he fearlessly ranges about, or, according to the technical term, *rummages* in search of his game. Another important consideration, which makes winter the best season for these purposes, is that, at this time, the fur is in its greatest perfection; for every thing animate and inanimate bears then the livery of winter. The variety of colours which before decked these animals is changed into one uniform white; and all, even the dogs and cats which may have been but very lately carried there from a warmer climate, acquire a much softer and thicker coat than they had originally: this coat is covered with long white glossy hairs, known there by the name of king-hairs, and in the spring fall off in large flocks, which the animals eagerly tear off with their teeth, as if anxious to be free from them. This remarkable change is likewise observed in birds, some of which, as the partridge, become entirely white, and all assume a thicker coat of down, which they change in

the spring for their usual summer-covering. The skins of deer in particular are, at that time, uncommonly beautiful.

The usual mode of hunting for fur is with traps, generally called *death-falls*, made of logs, which may be proportioned in their construction to the size of any animal. These consist of a *bridge*, or piece of board placed within, one end of which is hung to a small stake by a piece of twine, and the other end is supported in an horizontal position by a *tongue*. This tongue is a peg tied to the end of the line which supports another piece, called the cat-killer; the butt end of which is placed under a fork or notch in a stake, and the point is inserted in a hole in the end of the bridge. The *cat-killer* has one end turning upon a nail driven into a long stake, whilst the other is supported high up by a line which passes over a crutch on the top of a stake, and then comes down to another at the bottom, where one end of the tongue is fixed. Upon the ground, across the front of the death-fall, lies a third piece, called the *ground-killer*. When an animal treads on the bridge, the peg is drawn out; thus the cat-killer is set at liberty, and *falls upon* the back of the animal; whilst the *main-killer*, one end of which rests upon the ground, and the other upon the elevated end of

the cat-killer, falls with it and serves to keep it down. Over the whole is a *cat-house*, or hut of boughs, to defend the trap from the snow. Another sort of trap or snare used chiefly for catching deer, bear, or other large animals, is the *slip*, which is composed of different materials, according to the circumstances of the hunter, but mostly of iron. Here the *tongue* is a small bar of iron, placed on one side of the bed of the trap and turning upon a pin: it passes over one of the *jaws*, and the end is fixed under the heel of the bridge which it supports until pressed upon, when, being set at liberty, the jaws *fly up*, and kill the animal. The common expression for fixing properly this engine of destruction is, *to tail a trap*. Fire-arms are likewise used by hunters, but seldom when rummaging, as the fur might be injured by the shot or ball.

This fur-hunting employs a great number of persons, not only within the limits of the Hudson's Bay Company, but also on the coast of Labrador and in the northern parts of Newfoundland. These people live there in the midst of plenty, even to satiety, of what is considered as one of the greatest delicacies in other countries, where the value of a haunch of venison is duly appreciated: even the flesh of the beaver is esteemed very good, and said to have a

strong resemblance to mutton: the tail, shaped like a soal-fish, is also represented as the best and most delicate part of that animal.

The last quadruped that we shall mention under this head, though very far from being the least in worth, is the Newfoundland dog, a valuable and faithful friend to man, and an implacable enemy to sheep. When born or reared from an early age under the roof of man, this dog is the most useful animal in the island as a domestic. He answers some of the essential purposes of a horse; is docile, capable of strong attachment, and easy to please in the quality of his food; he will live upon scraps of boiled fish, whether salted or fresh, and on boiled potatoes and cabbage; but, if hungry, he will not scruple to steal a salmon, or a piece of raw salt pork from the tub in which they have been left to steep; he is likewise fond of poultry of the larger kind; but, as a beverage, nothing is equal in his estimation to the blood of sheep. The Author had purchased a puppy of the true breed, which had been brought from the northward of the island to Harbour-Grace. This puppy grew up to the size of a small donkey, as strong and fit for hard work, as he was tractable and gentle, even with the children of the family, of whom he seemed to be particularly fond; nor was he ever known, in any one

instance, to disagree with the cats of the house, whom he treated rather with a kind of dignified condescension. But the *dog*, unless closely watched, would run after sheep wherever he could trace them, even drive them from high cliffs into the water, and jump in after them; not, however, without first considering the elevation of the cliff; for, if he thought it too great, he would run down and take the nearest more convenient place to continue his pursuit. The owner of that dog had, at one time, some domesticated wild geese, one of which would frequently follow him in his morning walks, side by side with Jowler: they seemed to live together on the best terms. Unfortunately the servant neglected one night to confine them, according to custom; the next morning the feathers of the favourite goose were found scattered in a small field adjoining to the grounds. The dog was soon after found concealed in a corner of the wood-yard, and on his master looking at him, exhibited evident signs of conscious guilt: his master took him to the field, and pointed out to him the feathers: the dog, staring at him, uttered a loud growl, and ran away with all the speed of which he was capable; nor could he bear his master's sight for some days afterwards. At another time, the Author had three young sheep, for whom in

the day-time the dog seemed to affect the utmost indifference: the servant neglected one evening to take them into their shed, and to confine the dog; and the next morning the sheep were found stretched in the back-yard, lifeless, and without any other mark of violence than a small wound in the throat, from which the dog had sucked their blood. It is a remarkable circumstance, that the Newfoundland dog, when pursuing a flock of sheep, will single out one of them, and, if not prevented, which is a matter of considerable difficulty, will never leave off the pursuit until he has mastered his intended victim, always aiming at the throat; and, after having sucked the blood, has never been known to touch the carcase.

The natural colour of this dog was a perfect black, with the exception of very few white spots. As soon as winter approached, he acquired a coat which grew to the depth of about one inch, of close coarse wool deviating from the original colour only by an inclination to red; the long, thick, glossy hairs preserved the same colour up to the surface of the coat, and then turned generally to a perfect white: it is probable that a more constant exposure to the weather would have made the change of colour more complete. The sagacity of this animal was astonishing; on many occasions he ap-

peared to want only the faculty of speech to make himself fully understood.

To mention another remarkable instance, which also came within the Author's observation: one of the magistrates of Harbour-Grace,* had an old animal of this kind who was in the habit of carrying a lantern before his master at night, as steadily as the most attentive servant could do, stopping short when his master made a stop, and proceeding when he saw him disposed to follow him. If his master was absent from home, on the lantern being fixed to his mouth, and the command given, "Go, fetch thy master," he would immediately set off and proceed directly to the town, which lay at the distance of more than a mile from the place of his master's residence; he would then stop at the door of every house which he knew that his master was in the habit of frequenting, and laying down his lantern, growl and strike the door, making all the noise in his power until it was opened; if his master was not there, he would proceed farther, in the same manner, until he had found him. If he had accompanied him only once into a house, this was sufficient to induce him to take that house in his round.

* Charles Garland, Esq. who died there in the year 1810.

The principal use of this animal, in addition to his quality of a good watch-dog, is to assist in fetching from the woods the lumber intended either for repairing the stages, or for fuel, which has been there cut and laid up in piles; and this is done either by dragging it *on the dead*, that is, on the bare snow and ice, the ends being fastened together with a rope fixed to the tackling of the dog; or on sledges, or *catamarans*. These are formed of two pieces of plank, shoed underneath with hoops of iron or of hard wood, joined by thick pieces from two feet to two feet and a half in length, and supporting four strong long knees, two at each end, fastened in an opposite direction: to this sledge the dog is harnessed, whilst the servant who accompanies him directs his motions, and, by the addition of his own efforts and weight, modifies, as far as he is able, the rapidity of the sledge down steep hills. In the vicinity of rivers, the wood is thrown into them in the spring, and carried down the stream into the harbour, through which great quantities generally find their way into the ocean, where the currents carry them to Greenland, Iceland, the islands of Scotland, and even Norway.

The Newfoundland dog seldom barks, and only when strongly provoked; it then appears like an unnatural and painful exertion, which

produces a noise between barking and growling, longer and louder than a snarl, and more hollow and less sharp than barking, still strictly corresponding to the sounds expressed by the familiar words, bow, wow; and here he stops, unless it ends in a howl, in which he will instantaneously be joined by all the dogs within hearing. This happens frequently, and, in a still calm night, produces a noise particularly hideous. The Newfoundland dog resembles the Greenland dog in several respects; but the two following facts establish some essential differences between them.

The first of these facts is recorded in a General History of Quadrupeds, and cited in the "Critical Review, October, 1790, p. 417;" the second, in the public prints of the time, and, among the rest, in "Bell's Weekly Messenger, 1818, p. 102."

In December, 1784, a Greenland dog was left by a smuggling vessel near Boomer, on the coast of Northumberland: finding himself deserted, he began to worry sheep, and in that way did so much damage, that he became the terror of the country within a circuit of above twenty miles. When he caught a sheep, he bit a hole in its right side, and after eating the fat about the kidneys, left it: several of them thus lacerated were found alive by the shepherds,

and being taken proper care of, some of them recovered, and afterwards had lambs. The farmers frequently pursued him with hounds, greyhounds, &c. but when the dogs came up with him, he laid down on his back as if supplicating for mercy, and in that position they never offered to hurt him: when the hunters approached, he made off without being followed by the hounds, till these were again excited to the pursuit, which always terminated unsuccessfully. Having been one day thus driven from Howick to upwards of thirty miles distance, he actually returned thither and killed sheep the same evening. After many fruitless attempts, he was at last shot, in the month of March following, upon a rock on the Heughhill, near Howick, where he had fixed his residence during the day, and where he had a view of four roads that approached it.

In the month of March, 1818, a dog, supposed to be of the mastiff species, infested the neighbourhood of Roehampton, and committed great ravages among the sheep and lambs, of which he destroyed forty-two in the course of three weeks. It was observed that his attacks were always made in the night, and that he used to seize his victim by the throat and suck the blood; but it did not appear that he ever eat any part of the flesh. The farmers

and labourers in the neighbourhood were indefatigable in their endeavours to find out his haunt, but without success. Whether he was ultimately destroyed, or properly secured by his owner, we are not informed; but there is sufficient ground to suppose that this ferocious beast, as he is called in the account of this fact, was a Newfoundland dog.

The Greenland dog is said exactly to resemble the dogs of the Esquimaux of the Labrador, frequently to snarl and howl, but never to have been heard to bark. He is also described as naturally timorous, at the same time that, if not tamed when young, he becomes remarkably wild. The Author's Newfoundland dog never manifested any sign of a timorous disposition. After many hard-fought battles until he had attained to his full growth, he soon established his character and superiority. He was not quarrelsome; he treated the smaller species with a great degree of patience and forbearance: but when attacked by a dog of his size, or engaged in restoring peace among other dogs, he would set-to most vigorously, and continue the struggle until submission was obtained or peace completely re-established: he would then leave the field of battle with a haughty look and a warning growl, and be afterwards as quiet as a

lamb. His master was perfectly secure in his company; for the least appearance of an attack on his person roused at once the dog's attention, and produced a tremendous growl, accompanied with evident signs of being prepared to act in his master's defence, if the case required it.

Both species, however, in a wild state, agree in the dispositions and habits of the wolf: they hunt in packs the animals of the country for the sake of prey; and this circumstance has led to the supposition, which by others is deemed groundless, of there being wolves in the island of Newfoundland.

The well-known partiality of the Newfoundland dog for the water, in which, whether salt or fresh, he appears as if he were in his proper element, diving and keeping his head under the surface for a considerable time, as well as his being web-footed, seem to give him some connexion with the class of amphibious animals: the several instances of his superior sagacity on record, and the essential services which he has frequently been known to render to humanity, give him a distinguished rank in the scale of the brute creation. The beautiful species generally known in England by that name is only *half bred.*

We are assured that Newfoundland contains

none of those venomous animals or insects which infest, more or less, other countries, except the gnat, which is commonly known there by its Spanish and Portuguese name of *mosquito*. These insects, during the summer months, are extremely troublesome in the woods, on the banks of the rivers, lakes, and ponds, and near marshy grounds. They fly about in large bands, and fix themselves on the face, hands, and legs of people, in spite of every effort to avoid them, or to drive them away. It has been observed, that some persons are more liable than others to be attacked and disfigured by them, and that new comers have generally the preference. They are of a colour drawing towards red, as of corrupted blood: their noise is remarkably loud, and their sting long and strong for so small a body. This sting produces a large red pimple, or small lump, which is attended with an almost intolerable itching, whilst the scratching of it increases the irritation to an acute pain; the face grows swelled and disfigured, and frequently the whole surface of the head, neck, hands, and legs, is uniformly affected in the same manner. Some find no other mode of protecting themselves against this annoyance, than by smearing their face with tar or pitch; this is probably one of the reasons of the practice prevalent among the natives of the island,

in common with all the other North American Indians, to paint themselves with a composition, which there consists of grease and red ochre. Common leathern gloves will hardly protect the hands, and nothing but leathern boots, carefully closed up round the knees, will sufficiently defend the legs. Some think, that crushing the insect while in the act of inflicting the wound is an antidote to the poison which the sting insinuates: bathing the part affected with vinegar, or lime-juice and water, is successfully used for that purpose: otherwise these wounds, when numerous, produce at first a considerable degree of fever and a sleepless night; and their effects will continue to be felt for two or three days.

Ducks, geese, and common poultry are easily reared; turkeys succeed likewise, but with much greater trouble and expense: where the supply of fresh meat is so irregular and scanty as it is in most of the inhabited parts of Newfoundland, these afford a valuable addition to the comforts of a family. When allowed a warm station near the fire-place, the common hen will lay eggs during the most severe winters.

Land and water fowl are found there in great variety and abundance, particularly bustards, wild geese, and wild, or eider ducks;

but as these birds subsist entirely upon fish, the flesh acquires a very unpalatable taste. Their eggs, however, though rather gross, do not partake of this fishy taste, which is said to be inherent in the *skin* of the bird, and to disappear with it, when carefully taken off;* and which all other animals are liable to acquire, if allowed to eat *raw* fish, whether fresh or salted.

The wild-goose is an elegant bird, much better proportioned in its conformation than the common goose; its neck and legs are longer; it is easily domesticated, mixes without difficulty with flocks of the common geese, gradually acquires the same habits, and the taste of its flesh loses its original disagreeable nature; but it never lays in this state. Its cackle is much sharper and louder, and it appears to be superior to the common goose in sagacity, as it is in elegance of form and in quickness of motion. An instance has been mentioned of one that would follow its master in his walks: it was very lively, and would, when pleased, expand its wings, erect its head, cackle, and move around him for some time with a quick motion; it would answer to his call with a sharp quack-quack, and receive food from his hand like the most tame animal.

* Vide supra, p. 53.

Partridges, snipes, woodcocks, heathcocks, plovers, curlews, and blackbirds, are also in great abundance, as well as eagles, kites, hawks, and ravens. The partridges are much larger than in Europe, of an excellent kind, and always perfectly white in the middle of winter. Magpies and jays are likewise very numerous.

Gulls and mews, with large bodies and remarkably strong pinions, fly in flocks over the surface of the water where there is a scull or shoal of capelins, or other fish; sometimes hovering about and suddenly darting on their prey; sometimes skimming or resting on the surface, watching the fish, which they seize in diving with their long strong bills.

The most remarkable of the sea-birds which frequent these coasts are the lord and lady, of the teal kind; the hounds, rather larger than the teal, which migrate to the north in the spring in large flocks, and as they fly, make a continual noise resembling that of a pack of beagles when in chase; the saddle-back, called also blackback, the largest species of gulls; the tinker, or razor-bill; the loon and whabby, both of the diving genus; and the bull, a smaller bird, also called ice-bird.

Baccalao Island, near the mouth of Conception-Bay, has already been mentioned as one of

the principal places where birds resort in immense multitudes, thence called generally Baccalao birds. It has been observed by Mr. Sloane, in his Natural History of Jamaica, that in sailing towards the West Indian Islands, birds are often seen at the distance of two hundred leagues from the nearest coast; and Captain James Cook, in his Voyage to the South Pole, says that, no one yet knows to what distance any of the oceanic birds go to sea: and that he did not believe that there was one in the whole tribe that could be relied on in pointing out the vicinity of land. This observation, confirmed by the frequent disappointments into which Columbus fell, in his first voyage, in consequence of following in this respect the example of the Portuguese, from the then common belief that birds did not venture to any considerable distance from land, is not so strictly applicable to the Baccalao and other birds in the vicinity of Newfoundland. These have a specific object in flying from the coast to the Great Bank; for wherever there is good fishing-ground, there they find in greater abundance the fish on which they feed; and whilst there are on the bank fishing vessels which are obliged, on account of their distance from the land, to split their fish on the spot, there will be found multitudes of birds flying about to seize on the offals as they

are thrown overboard. They are, therefore, extremely useful to mariners, by warning them of their approach to a coast, which is frequently concealed from their view by thick and dark fogs. It is besides well known that the Baccalao birds very seldom extend their flight beyond the Great Bank.

There was formerly on this coast a species of birds of the diving genus, which, from their inability to fly, were always observed within the space between the land and the Great Bank, and were once so abundant as to have given their name to several islands on that coast, but they are now utterly extinct. They were known by the name of *penguins*, according to some writers from the Welsh, in which language that word signifies *white-head*, the penguin having a remarkable white spot on one side of its otherwise black head;* whilst Doctor Forster is of opinion that this bird received its name from the Spaniards and Portuguese, on account of its heavy and fat body. In this case, the derivation must come from the Latin *pinguis*; but it is more natural to suppose, that in this as in every other instance in which they have given names to places or to animals,

* This is adduced by some Welsh writers as an argument in favour of their claim to Madoc's discovery of America.

the Spaniards and Portuguese would have made use of their vernacular word, "*gordo*," which is common to both languages. Captain Cook found these birds in great numbers near Terra del Fuego; his people gave them the name of race-horses, on account of the great swiftness with which they were observed to run on the water.

It appears, from the testimony of several writers, that the penguin is not the only remarkable animal that has either deserted or been extirpated from these latitudes. Hackluyt, in his account of an expedition to Newfoundland, in the year 1593, informs us, that "in his time there were on the shores of the Island of Ramea, within the Straits of Saint Peter, on the back of Newfoundland, chiefly in April, May, and June, multitudes of amphibious creatures, called *vaccæ marinæ*, or morses, the two large teeth of which resembling ivory, and their oil, were considered as valuable articles of commerce; that Captain Drake found there a ship belonging to the inhabitants of Saint Malo, almost full freighted with morses; that he also observed several whales of an enormous size, together with great numbers of seals and porpoises, of which they killed several." These sea-cows, or morses, are represented as having been as large

as some oxen, with a skin similar to that of the sea-dog, and a mouth like a cow, with two projecting teeth crooked dowhwards, about half a yard long: these tusks were found to be as valuable as ivory, and were applied to the same uses: the fore feet were like those of a cow, the hinder feet webbed like those of a goose; this animal had seldom more than one or two young ones; was strong, and very difficult to be taken on shore: the inhabitants used to catch them by the following stratagem: —"They tie," says Hackluyt, "a bull to a stake in the depth of two feet water; they then beat and torment him by twisting his tail until they make him roar; as soon as these creatures hear his cries, they crawl to the bull and are easily taken." In a description of Nova Francia, in the year 1606, inserted in Churchill's Collection of Voyages, this animal is called morse, hippopotamus, or sea-horse, and is said to be more like to a cow than to a horse; of hair, like the seal, that is to say, dapple grey, and somewhat towards red; the skin very hard; a small head with two rows of teeth on each side, between which there are two of them hanging from the upper jaw downward, of the form of a young elephant's tooth, wherewith this creature helpeth himself to climb on the rocks; his ears are short as well as his tail; he loweth as

an ox, has wings, or fins, at his feet, and the female calleth her young ones on the land. This appears to be the walrus, or sea-horse, which is said to be sometimes found on the coast of Norway, and still more frequently about Iceland and Spitzbergen, where several thousands are often seen together.

It appears, likewise, from Hackluyt's account of the voyage of Captain Drake, above mentioned, and of that of Captain Rice Jones, in the year 1594, that formerly whales were found in these latitudes of a much larger size, and in greater abundance than they are at present. The Author of the History of British America, published in the year 1773, observes, that they formerly set in along shore by Cape-Cod for many successive years, at which time there was good whaling in boats: after some years they left this ground and passed farther off upon the banks at some distance from the shore; and in his time, the New England fishermen were obliged to go further into the ocean. In Letters from an American Farmer, published in the year 1782, it is said that the whale-fishery was, at that time, very considerable at Nantucket, this being then the greatest mart for oil, whalebone, and spermaceti, on the Continent, and that there were no less than eleven different species known in that

part of the North American coast. Of these the hump-backs, from forty to seventy feet in length; the spermaceti, of various sizes from sixty feet downwards; the fin-back, remarkable for its great swiftness; the grampus, thirty feet long; the killer or thrasher, about thirty feet long, of surprising agility and fierceness; the black-fish whale, twenty feet long; and the porpoise, are now found on the coasts of Newfoundland, particularly during the capelin-scull, when they are seen in considerable numbers playing in the bays among the fishing-boats. Sometimes a thrasher makes his appearance among them; then a bloody contest follows, which ends in the discomfiture of the whale, however large or powerful, which he has fixed upon, and in the sudden disappearance of the whole tribe.

A planter of Conception-Bay, some years ago, had fitted up a whale-boat with the intention of making an experiment in this species of fishery, not being aware of the peculiar skill and practice which it requires. It is to be observed that the rope to which the harpoon is tied, has its other end fastened to the bottom of the boat, in the middle of which it is coiled up with the utmost care. When the whale is struck, sometimes she will dive and disappear, or else swim away as if

untouched, drawing the rope with such swiftness that it will set the edge of the boat on fire by the friction; and, in order to prevent this, one of the men stands close to the rope with a bucket of water. The whale soon reaches the length of the rope, and carries along the boat with amazing velocity; the harpooner, with the axe in his hands, stands ready: when he observes that the bows of the boat are greatly pulled down by the diving whale, and that it begins to sink deep and to take much water, he brings the axe almost in contact with the cord, which, at the prospect of unavoidable danger, is cut, and the boat rises again. If the whale re-appears before she has run out the whole length, she is looked upon as a sure prey: the blood which she has lost in her flight weakens her so much that, if she sinks again, it is but for a short time; the boat follows her course with an almost equal speed; the whale soon re-appears; at last she dies, and floats on the surface. From this statement it is manifest that the first and most common precaution required in this fishery is to stand clear of the coil to which the harpoon is fastened. In the present instance, the neglect of this precaution was the cause of the loss of a man named Webber, whose leg coming into contact with the rope, he was instantly precipitated over-

board, and never seen afterwards. This misfortune put an end to all attempts of this kind; and from that time the cetaceous tribe has ever been more respected than liked in that part of the island. Nor has Newfoundland any reason to regret the loss or privation of this fishery; for the cod, seals, and salmon, which abound on its shores, are fully sufficient to engross all the attention and industry of its inhabitants.

Newfoundland seems purposely formed to carry on with the greatest success an immense fishery, on an inexhaustible stock which will always leave an incalculable overplus, whatever may be the number of persons engaged and employed in it; it is a constant treasure which can never be transferred from its actual possessor to rival nations by any revolution in commerce, and which is procured with no other expense than that of labour. The cod-fish is also found in the north seas of Europe, and the fishery is carried on there by several nations to a very great extent; but this fish is found in infinitely greater abundance at Newfoundland; it is also said to be there more delicate, though not so white, and it is universally preferred to any other, particularly in the south of Europe, where it is still distinguished under its ancient Indian and present Portuguese

name of *Baccalao.* All the accounts which have been published respecting the island and banks of Newfoundland, from the earliest period to the present time, agree in representing the multitude of cod-fish in those parts as inconceivable and wonderful.

Before we proceed to the consideration of the great staple commodities of that island, it may be proper to observe, that its numerous lakes and ponds abound in divers kinds of excellent trout, particularly the salmon species; its rivers abound likewise in eels of a large size and superior quality: the lobsters are uncommonly large and equally good, and muscles are likewise larger and better flavoured than in Europe. Here are no oysters; but plaice, soal, lance, herrings, mackarel, haddock, halli-but, thornback, as well as salmon, are in inconceivable abundance. The capelin, the *salmo arcticus* of Pennant, is the most delicious fish, perhaps, in the whole world, and comes in shoals so immense as to alter the colour of the surface of the sea, and to be wafted by the waves on the shore, where it is left in innumerable multitudes. It generally comes in about the 20th of June: a common sized boat will easily be filled in less than two hours, by two persons. The net used for this purpose is of a cylindrical form, open at both ends,

the lower being kept down and close by a row of leaden balls fastened thick to that part of the net, while the upper end is gathered by a running rope. The catcher holding the end of the rope in one hand, and the top of the net with his teeth, spreads out the lower end with both hands, and in that state throws his net over a shoal of capelins; he then quickly draws it up and pulls it, with the assistance of his companion, into the boat where he empties it, repeating the same operation until he has obtained a sufficient quantity, without scarcely ever removing from the same spot. This little fish, as beautiful in its appearance as it is delicate in its taste and flavour, continues on this coast for about six weeks, until it has deposited its eggs on the sand, constantly followed and harassed by an immense host of enemies, who eagerly join in its pursuit, particularly whales and cod-fish. Then begins the heat of the cod-fishery, for which the capelin is reckoned to be the most profitable bait; and, consequently, all the fishing crafts are actively employed, at this time, in laying in a sufficient stock of this fish.

The salmon here is excellent, and in great abundance from June to August; it is taken in nets, placed along the sea shores in bays and large harbours. There are on this coast some

stations peculiarly advantageous for this fishery, and, in the historical account of the island, we have had occasion to mention the salutary regulations which were made, in the year 1775, by the British government, for the encouragement of this branch of the Newfoundland fisheries. This fish is distinguished there into "pooler," when it has lain a long time in a river, and has not yet spawned; "slink," when it has spawned, and has not yet recovered itself by returning into the sea; and "spring fish," when it is in perfect season.

Another well-known fish, the herring, is also found in vast numbers on those coasts, during his periodical visits. This fish is likewise caught with nets, and, being pickled and barrelled, is sent principally to the West Indies. According to some French writers, the herring, bred in the vast regions of the Arctic ocean, appears in the spring off the coast of Shetland, and there divides into different shoals, some taking the route of Newfoundland and Labrador; others that of Norway, Jutland, the Baltic, and the Gulf of Bothnia; but the principal body arriving at the Orcades, surrounds Scotland and England. The eastern branch arrives in August on the coast of Yorkshire; in another month it reaches the Straits, and in September fills the

English Channel; from which the herrings escape in December, their numbers indeed diminished, but scarcely by one from every million. It is remarkable, that traces of this fishery in the year 1389, have been found in a voyage preserved in the fifteenth volume of the Memoirs of the French Academy of Inscriptions. Mr. Gilpin, the author of "Observations on the Annual Migration of Herrings," published in the year 1786, at Philadelphia, states, that these fishes are found in the north sea; and, in the favourable month of June, about the islands of Shetland, whence they proceed down the Orkneys, and then dividing, surround the British Islands, and unite again off the Land's End in September, whence they steer in a south-west direction across the Atlantic: they arrive in Georgia and Carolina about the latter end of January, and in Virginia about February; coasting thence eastward to New England, they divide, and go into all the bays, rivers, creeks, and even small streams of water, in amazing quantities, and continue spawning in the fresh water until the latter end of April, when the old fish return into the sea, and steering northward, arrive at Newfoundland in May, whence they proceed in a north-west direction, and again cross the Atlantic. The same author has observed, that their coming sooner or later

up the American rivers, depends on the warmth or coolness of the season; that if a few warm days invite them up, and cool weather succeeds, it totally checks their passage, until warmer weather returns. From all these circumstances, he thinks that a certain degree of warmth is peculiarly agreeable to them, which they endeavour to enjoy by changing their latitude according to the distance of the sun. Thus they are found in the British Channel in September, but leave it when the sun is at too great a distance, and push forward to a more agreeable climate. When the weather in America becomes too warm, in May, they steer a course to the cooler northern seas, and by a prudent change of place perpetually enjoy that temperature of climate which is best adapted to their nature. The truth of these observations seems to be confirmed by the fact that the time of the arrival of herrings on the coast of Newfoundland varies, and is calculated by the inhabitants according to the state of the weather. Herrings may, however, be had, though in much smaller numbers, all the winter and early in the spring, in Fortune-Bay and other parts in the south of Newfoundland. Mr. Schultes, in his valuable dissertation on the Public Fisheries of Great Britain, published in London, in the year 1813, says, that the

herrings annually migrate from the Arctic seas where they reside in winter, along the shores of America, as far as Carolina; along those of Europe, as far as the north of France; and on the coast of Asia, along the shores of Kamtschatka. The great army that annually issues from the north separates into several divisions. The first makes its appearance off the Shetland Isles in the months of April and May; but these are only the harbingers of a far more numerous body that follows in June. The appearance of these shoals is always announced by the gulls, gannets, and other rapacious birds, that continually hover above them, which indication the fishermen earnestly look after: but when the great body approaches about the beginning of harvest, its breadth and depth alter the appearance of the ocean. They are divided into different columns of five or six miles in length, by three or four in breadth; and when arrived at the Shetland Islands, they separate into two grand divisions; the one advancing along one side of the British coast, alternately filling, during a certain number of days, every intermediate bay and creek, from the northern shores of Scotland to the English Channel; after which it gradually thins till it disappears. The other great wing makes a similar circuit round the other side, till it

reaches the north of Ireland, where it is again subdivided, part entering the Irish Sea, and part scattering along the west shores of Ireland, till it disappears about the entrance of Saint George's Channel. In the course of their migration along the British seas, the shoals of herrings at various places become awhile stationary; and Loch Broom, in Scotland, has been celebrated as their principal rendezvous, where they generally appear in July. They are not, however, always uniform in frequenting the same loch or bay annually; they resort to a certain space for a number of years, and then are sometimes known capriciously to desert it for perhaps as many more. On the coasts of Wales, Ireland, and among the Hebrides, they have at different times occupied and deserted their several stations without any apparent cause; yet although this wonderful gift of the great Author of Nature is, at times, thus partially distributed, it is never totally withdrawn; the same instinct which impels herrings to approach these shores invariably operates; their migrations are certain; and if one part is deprived of its effects, another abounds with increased plenty. Mr. Schultes farther states, that the summer fishing for herrings begins about Midsummer on the Scotch coast, and ends in September on the Norfolk coast, at

which time they go into deep water, and continue there for some time. In November, they return to the shallows, when a new fishery commences, which continues till January. At that time they become full of roe, and are unfit for pickling. It has been doubted whether the herrings which appear in November are not part of a new migration.

In Conception-Bay the shoals of herrings arrive generally about the beginning of May, and continue until the latter end of June: their first appearance is anxiously expected, because they are the first fish used there as bait in the cod-fishery. The second is the lance or sand-eel, a long thin fish, which appears in June; the next is the capelin; and in the beginning of August, the squid or cuttle-fish makes its appearance, and continues, with trifling variations, to the end of the fishery. The squid is also called ink-fish, from its singular faculty of throwing up, when disturbed, a black liquid which suddenly darkens the water, conceals him most effectually from sight, and thereby secures his retreat. Mackarel is also a summer fish of passage used there for bait, and when cured and pickled in the same manner as herrings, is like them sent in barrels to the West Indies. It is taken with nets; but the squid is generally caught with jiggers, though

sometimes it comes in such abundance as to be left in immense shoals upon the shores and beaches by the waves. These amazing overflowings of capelins and squids on these coasts and at the river-head of harbours, are sometimes still greater in some places than in others, and particularly so when those shoals arrive at an earlier period than usual, as if their motions were accelerated by the unusual number and rapid pursuit of their voracious and famished enemies.

The gigger or jigger, consists of a pair of large hooks, fixed back to back, with some lead run upon the shanks, in the shape and colour of a fish. This lead is let down from the boat into the water to a certain depth, and played by sharp jerks, until it catches or hooks such fish as may happen to be in its way, or to follow it allured by its deceitful appearance. The jigger is also used to catch the cod on its first coming in, previous to the arrival of the herring. The cod thus caught is immediately opened, and its entrails or any fish that may be found in its stomach, are used for bait in the ordinary mode of fishing.

No fish is more easily allured by the jigger than the cod; though its length does not exceed three feet, and is often less, the sea does not produce any animal so voracious, and with so

large a mouth in proportion to its size. Broken pieces of earthenware, iron, and glass, are often found in its belly. The stomach does not, indeed, as some have imagined, digest these hard substances; but, by a certain power of inverting itself like a pocket, it discharges whatever loads it. It is this peculiar organization that is the principle of its voracious appetite, and makes it indifferent with respect to the nature of the substances which it swallows. Another remarkable property of this fish is its amazing fecundity. An able naturalist, who had the patience to reckon the eggs of one single cod, found them to amount to no less than nine millions three hundred and forty-four thousand. Phosphorus appears to form an essential element in the composition of the substance of this fish; for the light which one single cod's head throws in the dark is very considerable, as if proceeding from a lamp fixed in the middle of it: that which arises from a number of heads, or whole fishes, suspended in a dark room is so great as to enable to distinguish objects distinctly. This luminous appearance is observable even in cold weather; it is unnecessary to add that no degree whatever of heat accompanies it.

Another circumstance which seems to distinguish the cod from the other species of

fishes is the conformation of his organ of hearing and of his nervous system. According to Doctor Monro, the organ of hearing in fishes is situated at the lower end and posterior sides of the cranium, separated from the brain by membranes only. It consists of three semicircular canals, namely, an anterior and a posterior both perpendicular, and a middle horizontal one; each perpendicular canal having a dilated portion or bulb at one of its ends, where it joins with the horizontal one. In the cod-fish, the anterior canal contains a small scabrous calcareous stone: we next find a bag of a considerable size, in which another similar stone of a larger size is likewise lodged, surrounded, like the smaller one mentioned above, with a viscous humour. A hole or opening, in the fore or under part of the common canal formed by the junction of the small upper ends of the anterior and posterior canals, leads into this bag in the sturgeon; but Doctor Monro could discover no such opening in the cod or the haddock. Very large nerves are fixed to the bulbous parts of the semicircular canals, and spreading out upon them, become suddenly pellucid. On the bag above mentioned, in the cod, a considerable nerve is spread in a most elegant manner. As the semicircular canals are much smaller than the cavity of the bone, or cartilage which con-

tains them, there is between their outer part and the bone or cartilage, a considerable quantity of viscid humour. In the cod, haddock, and the whole genus of gadus, a number of small spheroidal bodies, which form part of the nervous system, are observable within this cavity, floating in the viscid humour, and supported by small fibres of vessels and nerves. M. Depons, who travelled through several parts of South America in the years 1801—1804, mentions a fish common in the Oroonoko, called by the Spaniards *curbinata*, which is extremely valued on account of two stones found in its head, exactly in the place which is usually occupied by the brain. These stones are of the shape of an almond, and resemble in colour mother of pearl; they are considered as a specific in cases of retention of urine, and sell for their weight in gold. The dose is three grains of this stone well pulverized, mixed in a cup-full of water or wine, and is said to produce an instantaneous effect.

It has been observed by Pliny, that fish which have stones in their head fear winter, and on its approach retire either to the deeper regions of the sea, or to warmer climates. Accordingly the cod-fish refuses to take the bait, and is, consequently, supposed to leave the coast of Newfoundland generally about

the beginning of October; but yet, different in this respect from the mackarel, and most other species which frequent this coast at stated periods, cod is found in the southern and many other parts of the island during the whole year. Even in the most severe part of the winter, by making a hole in the ice and dropping a line with a piece of salt pork, or any other kind of bait, cod is easily and quickly obtained; though, at that time, but of an indifferent quality, it, nevertheless, sometimes makes a very acceptable addition to the winter stock. It may be kept long in a frozen state, or else it is immediately split and put in pickle, where it remains until the weather will allow it to be spread on the flakes or beaches for drying. Thus, in Fortune-Bay and neighbouring parts, having herrings all the winter, the people are never without bait, and catch fish through the ice at a considerable depth. They split it and put it in pickle, begin to spread it in April, and as soon as it is completely dried, they send it to Saint John's or to a foreign market.

CHAPTER XV.

OF THE NEWFOUNDLAND FISHERIES.

THE subject of the Newfoundland fisheries has been often treated of by well-informed writers; it is, however, hoped that the following account, drawn up from notes taken during a residence of several years in the district of that island, where both the seal and the cod fisheries are carried on to the greatest extent, will not be altogether unacceptable to the British reader.

The important advantages to be derived from what is, perhaps improperly, called the *seal-fishery*, appear to have fixed the attention of navigators in those parts from a very early period. It has already been observed that, according to Hackluyt, in the year 1593, two ships sailed from Falmouth, commanded by Richard Strang and George Drake, for the island of Ramea, within the straits of Saint Peter, on the back of Newfoundland, on the shores of which were multitudes of amphibious animals, particularly seals and porpoises, of which they killed several, and whose oil was

considered as a valuable article of commerce: and that the proper season for catching those animals was in April, May, and June. But as the cod-fishery became more extensive and more important, the seal-fishery was in proportion neglected on account of the interruption which it occasioned in the preparations for the former, with which it was found to interfere at the most important period, that of the herring and capelin-sculls. We accordingly learn from l'Abbé Raynal, that the English fishermen, before the year 1763, used to repair to certain parts of the island during the winter, for the purpose of the seal-fishery, which always terminated at the close of that season. The same method is still in use in some parts of the coast of Newfoundland, and on that of Labrador. The fishermen who repair to those places at the fall of the year, place their nets between the shore and the islands or rocks which lie at a small distance: the seals, which generally come in shoals from the east, are caught in attempting to pass those narrow places; they are then taken up and conveyed to the shore, where they remain in a frozen state till the proper season for extracting their oil, which is generally in the latter end of April, or the beginning of May; or else they are sculped, that is, the skin and fat are separated from the car-

case, and carried to some more convenient place for that purpose. This plan of a winter fishery appears to have been generally pursued there until the latter end of the last century, when the enterprising and industrious spirit of the inhabitants of Conception-Bay contrived a method to conciliate the interests of both the seal and cod-fisheries, without any prejudice to the latter. Thus a branch of industry and commerce of considerable importance and value was introduced, which soon increased to an amazing amount the returns of that island, and the wealth of its merchants.

The seals, though entirely marine animals, none of that species having hitherto been mentioned as inhabiting fresh waters, are the only animals among the viviparous quadrupeds that can with propriety be considered as amphibious. They invariably bring forth their young on land, sand-banks, rocks, or small islands, and their respiration operates immediately after the birth: they can suspend it occasionally for a long while together, but still they are obliged at intervals to put up their noses above the surface of the water, in order to reject the contaminated air from their lungs, and to take in a fresh supply. They require occasional intervals of repose, and sometimes even a long continuance on dry land. At particular periods, therefore,

and especially during the seasons of producing and rearing their young, they congregate frequently in vast multitudes on floating ice or insulated rocks. Although their hind feet are so constructed as to be of very little use to them in walking, yet by means of their fore feet they are able to lay hold on objects with so much firmness as to drag themselves with considerable facility up the shores, rocks, and even over fields of ice, however slippery they may be; for though badly wounded, and the distance very considerable, it frequently happens that they will outrun the hunters, and having gained the edge of the water, precipitate themselves out of their reach. They sleep principally during the day; and for that purpose fix themselves upon fields of ice, hence called seal-meadows, where they are frequently found collected in immense multitudes, either basking or sleeping in the sun. It is during their sleep that the seal-hunters chiefly contrive to attack them with bludgeons, a very slight blow on the nose immediately destroying them. When they come upon them unawares, the destruction is rapid: sometimes also they shoot them, each vessel having one or more gunners for that purpose; but this mode is not the most usual, on account of the risk of injuring the skin of the animal.

To the Greenlander the seal is the source of all earthly comforts: its flesh is to him the most palatable and substantial food; its fat furnishes him with oil for lamp-light, for chamber and kitchen fire: he softens his dry food in the train, which he also barters for all other kinds of necessaries: he can sew better with the fibres of the sinews of the seal than with thread or silk: of the skins of the entrails he makes windows for his hut, curtains for his tent, and shirts for himself; and of the maw, train bottles; while the blood boiled with ingredients is eat as soup: with the skin of the seal he makes himself waistcoats, covers his boat and tent, and cuts out thongs and straps. In short, to catch seals is the ultimate end to which the Greenlander aspires from his childhood, and the only art to which he is trained.

To the European, the skin of the seal has sometimes made muffs; it covers his trunks, and supplies him with shoes and boots. When it is well tanned, the grain is not unlike that of Morocco leather: it is not quite so fine, but it preserves its colour longer: even waistcoats in the Greenland style are not unfrequently seen in the metropolis of Great Britain. As to the flesh of the seal, many half-starved stomachs, after a long navigation and several days of short allowance, have pronounced it

to be not only tolerable, but good, delicious, tender, and sweet; whilst others, under different circumstances, have said that, except the haslets which are tolerable, the flesh is too rank to be eaten. The Author was once prevailed upon to try it, and on the very first taste he was decidedly of the latter opinion, notwithstanding all the care that had been taken in curing, dressing, &c. in order to make it appear to the best advantage. Some affirm that the flesh of the young cubs is very palatable; it is eaten by the seal-hunters during that fishery, and tastes something like hare's flesh; but the greatest object of disgust to an European palate, whilst to the Greenlander's it is the finest *hautgout* possible, is a strong train-oil taste, of which it is extremely difficult to divest it. This is attempted by repeatedly changing the water in which it is first parboiled, in order to be afterwards dressed or disguised with port wine and other ingredients used in the dressing of hare.

During the months of February, March, April, and part of May, the coast of Newfoundland is generally surrounded with ice to the distance of several leagues. The most formidable ramparts erected by military art, the dreadful cannonade of a besieged town, the terrors of the most skilful and obstinate sea-fight, require less intrepidity

and experience to encounter, than those enormous floating bulwarks and the united efforts of the elements which those seas, at that time, oppose to the mariner. It is hardly possible to convey to the imagination a correct idea of the terrific grandeur which characterises this scenery. Immense fields of ice of such extent that the eye cannot reach their bounds, and sometimes impelled by a rotatory movement by which their circumference attains a velocity of several miles per hour: lofty islands and mountains moving along with irregular and sometimes inconceivable rapidity, or when the comparative shallowness of the ground arrests their progress, then bedded immovable on the solid rock or earth, whilst fragments of various sizes are scattered about throughout the intervening spaces, and coming in drifts so thick and so quick as to whirl the ships about as in a whirlpool: here and there a mountain bursting with a tremendous explosion; the fields suddenly changing their directions, coming into close contact with a dreadful shock, and overlaying each other with a noise resembling that of complicated machinery, or of distant thunder. The immense pressure thus produced and the tremendous power exerted, are such as to crush to atoms or to set on fire the wood which may happen to

be in their way; the strongest ship can no more stand these shocks than a sheet of paper can stop a musket-ball. Sometimes the vessel is beset and immovable, and her safety then depends only on the immediate coagulation of the surrounding ice into one uniform field; as soon as a separation again takes place, her danger recommences, and the motion and violence of the ice are so rapid and so great, the changes of direction so sudden, that her destruction appears inevitable. Some are lifted up and thrown upon the hard congealed surface by a sudden shock; others are crushed, or, at least, their hulls completely torn open; others again are buried beneath the heaped fragments of a bursting mountain. A strong easterly or north-easterly wind arises, and drives with inconceivable rapidity all this ice against the coast, where filling up the bays, harbours, and coves, it soon becomes one immense, widely extended, solid mass; until, the wind setting with equal violence to the west or north-west, this mass is broken and as rapidly driven into the main ocean: the wind changes again, the ice as quickly returns, and winter resumes its sway with increased rigour. The situation of the vessels which happen to be entangled in that ice may be easily conceived. Add to this picture a *rock-bursting* frost; gales

whistling and howling in huge uproar, which, while on the land they shake the houses, rocking them to and fro, tear up the trees from their roots, and scatter them through the convulsed forests; at sea, they drift about with violence masses of snow and sleet, or else thick fogs, freezing as they fall, cover every thing with ice, the sides, the deck, masts, and rigging of the vessels, and even the clothes of the mariners. The mere thought of such a situation, in a stormy and dark night, and on a sea covered with islands, mountains, fields, and fragments of ice in perpetual motion, is sufficient to strike the mind with horror; and yet such a situation the Newfoundland seal-hunters court with as much ardour as vessels in other cases study to avoid it.

Soon after Candlemas-day, they begin their preparations for the *seal-fishery*, fixing their craft and afterwards laying in their stock of provisions. They employ for that purpose schooners measuring from forty to seventy-five tuns, and large decked boats, from twenty-five to thirty-five tuns, strongly built; poles are suspended on their sides as some protection for their timbers against the cuttings and bruises which they would otherwise receive from the ice, under the most favourable circumstances. The crews of their largest craft

consist of from thirteen to eighteen men; of these some are gunners, who, on finding their own guns, are admitted *birth* free; the rest pay generally forty shillings each for their birth, that is, for their proportion of the provisions during the voyage; and all are to receive each half a man's share of the seals caught, or the value thereof, dividing the amount of the whole produce of the voyage into so many shares as there are men on board.

About Saint Patrick's day, or the 17th of the month of March, they proceed to that fishery through the most boisterous weather, struggling by all possible means to get out of their harbour and bay. It is impossible to conceive a greater degree of perseverance and intrepidity than the people of Conception-Bay in particular, display on these occasions. After having at last conquered these first difficulties and proceeded beyond Baccalao Island, their next object is to reach a seal-meadow by sailing or cutting through the intermediate fields of ice; they then run their vessel into it, the crew disperse, and whilst the gunners fire at the largest seals, the others assail the rest with clubs. It is during their sleep, as was before mentioned, that the hunters chiefly contrive to attack these animals, coming upon them unawares; and, in that case, their work is at-

tended with little difficulty and considerable success. Some of the largest will resist, and prove by no means contemptible antagonists; these are, therefore, generally left to the management of the gunners; whilst others, on account of their superior strength and fierceness, and of the faculty which they have, when apprehensive of danger, to cover their head with a *hood* which is proof against shot, cannot easily be destroyed but when asleep. When sufficient execution has been made on a seal-meadow, or the extreme severity of the weather interrupts the operations, the dead seals are dragged on the ice to the schooner or boat; they are then *pelted*, that is, the skin with the coat of fat adhering to it is separated from the carcase, and the latter is thrown overboard, excepting such small portion as may be reserved for the mess. The voyage is continued through the ice, or through the open sea if it happens to be so, to other seal-meadows until the loading is completed, unless the state of the weather, or some material damage in the vessel makes it necessary to return sooner into port. They will, in general, make one trip within from four to six weeks, and when the ice and seals are abundant on the coast, they make two trips before the latter end of May, each trip averaging from nine to twelve pounds sterling per man.

The usual mode in which the planters dispose of the produce of their voyage to the merchants, and by which the amount of each man's share is regulated, is either according to a price previously agreed upon, or settled before the return of the vessels from the first trip, or to the highest bidder; it is either so much per seal, tal. qual., or according to their size, in which case they are divided into three different sorts.

When the seals have been landed, the fat is separated from the skin, and cut up into small pieces, which are put into puncheons or into vats, and there left to melt by the heat of the sun and weather. These vats, some of which are of sufficient capacity to contain from fifteen to twenty tuns, are square vessels constructed of studs and thick planks dove-tailed, and tarred all over on the outside. At each of the corners and at the bottom are fixed chemps of iron for strength; the inside is lined round with a grating composed of rods slanting from the rim of the side to the bottom, and at the distance of about six inches from the bottom is a fauset, or hole stopped up with a plug; this is intended to let out the water which is *rendered* (a sealers' term) by the fat of the seals, or thrown in by the rain or snow, and which naturally sinks to the lowest parts. At

two-thirds of the height from the bottom, and at equal distance from the top and the bottom, are similar openings of which the lower part is furnished with a piece of thick leather to let out the oil which is thus rendered by the fat: this is called *virgin*, or white oil, is considered as the best, and obtains the highest price, the finest being that which runs from the upper opening. After all the oil that could be extracted by this process has been obtained, the *blubber*, consisting of the fritters or tendinous fibres which connect the cellular substance where the oil is contained, and which are finest next the skin, thinnest in the middle, and coarsest near the flesh, together with whatever other oily sediment may remain at the bottom of the puncheon or vat, is boiled over a large fire in copper cauldrons. This last operation which, on account of the intolerable stench which attends it, is generally carried on in places at some distance from the towns, produces the blubber or common seal-oil of an inferior quality. It is said to have been first introduced not many years ago at Harbour-Grace, and to have been productive of considerable profits to those merchants who first adopted it, by the facility of purchasing, at a very low price, the blubber which before was considered as of little value.

The oil thus extracted is poured into hogsheads which have been duly trimmed, that is, which have been kept a long time filled up with water; and then it is fit to be shipped off. It makes a most valuable cargo, with the additional advantage that, whilst the smallest leak exposes a vessel laden with salt to considerable danger, a vessel laden with oil cannot sink, whatever water she may make: the oil will ever keep her afloat. Another remarkable property of such a cargo is, that, as the constant motion of the vessel necessarily occasions some small leakage from the casks, which runs down into and mixes with the bulge-water, whenever the vessel is pumped, the waves, however agitated, will instantaneously become calm, and the ship will float as upon a polished mirror. It is a well attested fact, that the cod-fishery is scarcely begun on the banks, when the sea becomes oily and perfectly calm: the same effect is produced by the oil which runs from a whale when cut to pieces. The fishermen of Lisbon and of the Bermudas restore tranquillity to the sea with a little oil, which immediately puts a stop to the irregularities of the rays of light, and enables them to have an easy view of the fish. The divers who go in search of pearls at the bottom of the sea, use the very ancient practice of having

their mouth filled with oil, which they throw off, drop by drop, in proportion to the difficulty which they experience in viewing the objects of their pursuit. Thus, very gravely observes l'Abbé Raynal, in alluding to this phenomenon, "Thus the terrible element which has separated continents from each other, which deluges whole countries, and frequently sets at nought the strongest barriers erected by man, may be appeased if a feather dipped in oil be passed over its surface; and if *a feather* dipped in oil can smooth the waves, what will not be the effect of *long wings* constantly moistened with this fluid, and mechanically adapted to our ships? This idea," he very properly adds, "will, no doubt, excite the ridicule of our superficial minded men; but 'it is not for such that I write!'"

It has been said that the seals are generally *sculped* at sea; but sometimes, from want of leisure, stress of weather, or some damage received by the vessel, this operation of sculping, or separating the pelt from the carcase, is performed on land. This is also the case when the seals have been killed at a small distance from the shore; for it sometimes happens that they come so near the land as to be easily taken with nets: thus, in the spring of the year 1811, a principal house in Harbour-Grace, and

the inhabitants of the North Shore, in Conception-Bay, reaped a most plentiful harvest at Lower Island-Cove, Bay de Verds, and the Grates. In the same spring, an unusual number of schooners and boats belonging to that bay were totally lost at the ice, several of the mariners perished, some were carried away on fields of ice in sight of their more fortunate companions, without any possibility of receiving from them the least assistance; whilst the vessels that arrived safe made very good voyages.

Whilst the operation of separating the fat from the skins is performed, the latter stretched out with care, one by one, on layers of salt, are laid up in piles, and thus packed off in bulk for market; part of them are disposed in bundles of five skins each, for the greater convenience of stowage.

It sometimes happens that the ice continues so long on those coasts as to afford the prospect of prosecuting that fishery with advantage beyond the usual period; but as this would interfere with and eventually ruin the cod-fishery of those who might suffer themselves to be seduced by this prospect, a complete change of pursuits takes place in the beginning of June; and about the 10th of that month the *cod-fishery* begins.

The boats used for this purpose vary in their sizes and in the number of their crews; some having only two hands, and these frequently boys and girls merely old and strong enough to handle the line: this is often seen in Conception and other bays when the cod-fish is plentiful. Most boats have four men, each with one line on each side of him, and these lines have two hooks; so that in these boats there are no less than sixteen hooks in constant employment. Each hook is furnished with such bait as the season affords; namely, first, the entrails of the fish caught with jiggers; next, herring, mackarel, lance, capelin, squids, or young cod; and in default of these, the flesh of sea-fowl.

The boat having taken her station on a ledge, or other shoally ground, each line being fastened on the inside of the boat, and the hooks baited, the man sits at an equal distance from the two lines which are committed to his care, moving them from time to time: as soon as the least tightness or motion is observed in the line, it is drawn up with all possible speed, and the fish thrown into the boat, where the hook is then disengaged from its mouth; if it is of a large size, it is seized, as soon as raised to the surface of the water, with a gaff or large hook fixed to the end of a pole,

in order to prevent the disappointment often experienced in consequence of the fish, even when within the reach of the hand, either disentangling itself from the hook by the excessive vivacity of its motions and wideness of its mouth, or breaking the line and disappearing at once with the hook and bait in its gills.

When a sufficient quantity of fish has been taken to load the boat, it is then carried to the shore in order to be cured: this must be done within a certain time, not exceeding eight and forty hours; otherwise the fish will lose of its value in proportion to the length of the time it is kept without splitting.

The place where the operation of curing the cod-fish is performed, is a *stage* or covered platform erected on the shore, with one end projecting over the water, which is called the *stage-head*, and which is fortified with stouters, or very strong shores, to prevent the stage from receiving any damage from ships or boats; it has also longers fixed horizontally at intervals, like so many steps, to facilitate the ascent to the stage. On the fore part of this platform is a table, on one side of which is the *cut-throat*, who takes the fish, cuts with a knife the throat down to the nape, and then pushes it to the *header* on his right hand: the latter takes it in his left hand, and with the right, draws

out the liver which he throws through a hole into a cask under the table; next, the guts, which he throws through the *trunk-hole* in the floor of the stage into the sea: then fixing the neck of the fish to the edge of the table, which before him is semicircular and sharp, he presses upon the neck with his left hand to which a thick piece of leather, called the *palm*, is fastened for that purpose, and, with the right, gives the body of the fish which is uppermost a violent jerk which pushes it to the *splitter* opposite to him, while the head thus separated falls through an opening into the water. This operation requires such violent exertion that, besides the precaution of the palm with which his left hand is armed, the seat on which he is sitting has a strong round back, which assists in collecting all his strength for the effort necessary to separate the head from the body of the fish.

The splitter then taking the fish with his left hand, cuts it with the right, beginning at the nape down by the sound-bone to the navel; and giving the knife a little turn to keep as close to the bone as possible, he continues cutting to the end of the tail; then raising the bone with the knife, he pushes the fish so split into the drudge-barrow, and the sound-bone into the sea through an opening close to him

in the stage-floor. When the barrow is full, it is immediately carried to the salter, and another is put in its place. This process of splitting is performed with considerable rapidity, though with the utmost care, because the value of the fish depends in a material degree upon its being correctly performed: for if ruffled by frequent or interrupted cuttings, the fish would be disfigured. The tongues and sounds are sometimes reserved either for domestic uses or for sale; in this case so many of the heads and sound-bones as may be necessary for that purpose, are thrown aside and immediately taken up by some other person, so as not to give the least interruption or hindrance to the work performing at the table.

At the opposite end of the stage stands the *salter*, who, as soon as the drudge-barrow is brought to him, takes out the fish, one by one, and placing it in layers on one side of the stage, spreads on each with his hand some salt, taking particular care to apportion its quantity to the size of the fish and the degree of thickness of its several parts; this operation, which is continued until the *bulk* is of a proper size, requires particular attention, as if the bulk is too high the pressure of the upper layers will necessarily injure the fish in the lower layers. The province of the salter demands a perfect

knowledge of his business and considerable experience and judgment; for every thing now depends upon him for the value of the whole voyage. If there is not a sufficient quantity of salt put to the fish, it will not keep: if there is too much, the place where the excess is will look dark and moist; when exposed to the sun, it will be parched up, and when put back, it will be moist again and break in the handling of it; whereas, fish properly salted, when dry, will be firm and may be handled without breaking: the defect occasioned by an excess of salt is in Newfoundland known by the name of *salt-burnt*.

It is generally said that ten hogsheads of salt will cure one hundred quintals of fish. This, however, depends upon the quality of the salt, and other circumstances. The Newfoundland fishermen say that there is a difference in weight between the same bulk of Liverpool and of Lisbon salt of four to five. Also, when the fish is to be brought *green* from the place of catching, that is, cured as far as salting, but not dried, more salt is used in proportion to the distance, than when it undergoes all the operations of curing and drying without any considerable delay, as in what is called the *shore* fishery. In the Labrador fishery, the usual proportion for every hundred quintal of fish is

between thirteen and fourteen hogsheads of Lisbon salt, which is always preferred where the strongest pickle is required.

In some parts of Newfoundland the operation of salting is performed in vats or deep oblong square troughs, with a spigot and fauset near the bottom to draw off the foul pickle. The fish is carefully spread in layers to the top until the vat is filled, increasing the quantity of salt in proportion as the layers first placed have the benefit of the pickle descending from the upper layers. This mode of salting, which is said to have been introduced into the Newfoundland fishery at the time of the first American war, when salt was uncommonly scarce, prevents, as the Author was informed by those who had adopted this practice, the pressure which weighs upon and tends to flatten the fish in the other mode of salting in bulk; the fish retains its full size, actually gains seven or eight quintals in weight, upon every hundred, more than what is salted in bulk, and a saving is made of near three upon every ten hogsheads of salt: but it was acknowledged that it will not so well stand the market, as when salted in the usual way.

The fish must remain four days in vats, and five or six days in bulk, before it has sufficiently taken the salt; and after that period, the

sooner it is washed the better. For this purpose, it is put into washing-vats, or wooden vessels, generally seven or eight feet long, three feet and a half wide, and three deep. They first throw in two or three quintals, over which they pour a quantity of sea-water; gradually increasing the quantity of both until the vat is full. They then take up each fish separately, cleaning carefully back and belly with a woollen cloth, and next lay it in a long even bulk on the stage floor to drain. They resume the same process until they have washed such a quantity of fish as they can manage the next day. It may remain in drain-bulk no more than two days; if kept beyond that time, it will decay in weight, nor will it stand the weather so well, on account of the salt getting out of it.

The next day, or as soon after as the weather permits, the fish is spread out on boughs in the open air to dry, head to tail, the open side being exposed to the sun. This is done either upon a beach, or upon the ground which is called *laying-room;* but more generally upon standing flakes. These last are of two sorts, namely, hand and broad flakes. The former consist of a slight wattle, supported by posts, at such an elevation from the ground that a person standing can conveniently manage and turn the fish.

The broad flakes consist of a set of beams, supported by posts and shores, or stout pieces of timber standing perpendicularly under the beams, to which similar pieces are likewise fixed in a reclined position. In some places these broad flakes are as high as twenty or thirty feet from the ground. It is said that a free circulation of air is of considerable service to the fish while drying; hence, high flakes are preferable to low ones, or to beaches where, besides the want of circulation of air, the back of the fish is liable to be burnt, if spread after the sun has heated the stones. But when the fish is dry, and spread only to make it perfectly fit to be put on-board ship, beach or flake will serve equally well.

Towards the evening of the first day, two or three fishes are placed one over the other with their back upwards, to prevent the open side from being injured by the wet or damp. The next morning the fish is again spread as before, and towards evening made into faggots of five or six, proceeding in the same manner so as to increase the faggots to eight or ten on the third evening, and on the fourth to eighteen or twenty, always with the back upwards, and some larger ones on the top in a slanting position, so as to shoot off the rain or wet that may happen to fall during the night. The fifth

evening the faggots are much larger; the fish is then considered as safe, and left in that state for a week, or even a fortnight if there is a want of flake-room for the whole voyage, or the weather happens to be bad. It is next spread out again until about three or four o'clock in the afternoon of the same day, when it is put up into large circular piles, in the form of a round hay-stack, with the heads outermost, the backs upwards, and the whole covered with circular deal frames, or with mats, tarpaulins, or rinds* confined by large stones, in order to preserve it from the heavy dews which fall during the heat of the summer. It is left some time in that state, then again spread out, and the same day, towards the evening, lodged in stores or put on board the vessels. After the fish has been first spread on the flake, four good days out of seven, (which is considered as better than four successive good days, because it then works or, as the fishermen express it, *sweats* the better,) will be sufficient to save it from any material damage. As a single drop of rain or fresh water may so affect a fish as not

* These rinds are procured from the woods for that purpose: they are generally six feet long, and as wide as the circumference of the trees from which they are taken.

only to injure it materially, but also to communicate the infection to the whole faggot, pile, and even cargo, the state of the weather is watched with particular attention while the fish is drying; and on the least appearance of a shower, the fish is immediately turned back uppermost. As Newfoundland is subject during the summer to sudden showers, the hurry and confusion which these frequently create throughout the whole place can hardly be described, and are no small annoyance when this happens on a Sunday, while the people are at church: the flakes are then in an instant covered with men, women, and children, busily employed in turning up the fish or in making it up into faggots; the profits of the whole voyage, the means of paying the debts contracted, and of procuring supplies for the support of the family during the ensuing winter, may all depend upon the exertions of that moment.

Such is the precarious and uncertain nature of the cod-fishery, at the same time that the fatigues which attend it are very great; so that the preservation of the health of the people who are actively engaged in it can be attributed only to the extreme salubrity of the climate. During the heat of the fishery, under the most incessant hard labour, they have scarcely time to eat their meals, and hardly four hours rest in

the four and twenty. In some parts of the coast, the ledges are at so great a distance that much time is consumed in the passage from and back again to their respective harbours; and even in those which are more favourably situated, the fish does not always equally abound in every part. It is sometimes found in the north and sometimes in the south of the island, at other times in the middle of the coast, according as it is driven by the winds or attracted by the smaller fish; so that some fishermen are nearly ruined, whilst others more fortunate make excellent voyages. But even after the most successful catch, if any even the smallest quantity of rain or fresh water is suffered to lodge in any part of the fish whilst drying, unless some salt be immediately sprinkled upon the part affected;—or, if the splitter has left too many joints of the bone, so that any particle of blood has remained in the fish;—or when there has been too great a quantity of fish in the salt bulk, so that the whole could not be disposed of in proper time;—or when it has been exposed to bad weather on the flake;—or when the weather, while the fish was exposed to the sun, has happened to be hot and calm, and the flies have gathered about it and left fly-blows, and these have not been carefully removed in time with the fingers

or small sticks of wood;—in any of these cases maggots will be formed in the fish, which is then called *maggotty;* it is not only unfit for sale, but, if suffered to remain in a faggot or pile, it will unavoidably communicate the disease to all the rest, and will be sufficient to contaminate a whole cargo. We have already mentioned the bad effects produced by more salt being put on any part of the fish than the requisite quantity, by which it becomes *salt-burnt.* It is also liable to become *sun-burnt,* when spread out on a hot calm day, whether on flakes or on beaches. Again, when the fish after washing has been left too long before being spread out for drying, it is apt to contract a kind of *slime,* as well as if, after it has been carried out, there is a continuance of bad weather. This slime makes it look yellow, and prevents it being completely dried. In order to remedy this defect, after it has been a week or ten days on the flake, it is again dry-salted, washed, and put out a second time; but even then it will, at best, be received only as of the second quality. To mention one defect more, it may become *dun,* if left too long in the pile, which happens sometimes from want of sufficient store-room and of an opportunity to ship it off in proper time: the weather beating into those piles softens the fish and gives it a black,

snuffy, or dun colour. Some people prefer this dun fish for present use; but it will not stand the voyage.

As the least damp would heat the fish when thrown together and spoil it, it is customary, previous to its being put on-board ship for exportation, to spread it out again for a longer or shorter number of hours, according to its actual state, in order that it may be perfectly dried. It frequently happens that some of the fish, taken towards the close of the fishing season, is not fit to be put on-board for exportation. In this case, it is either put into stores, the fishermen taking advantage of every favourable opportunity to complete its drying, and to keep it in a proper state of readiness for the first vessels that will be able to take it in, late in the fall or early in the spring; or else it is reserved for use in the island: it eats better than other kinds, but cannot be kept so long. It is called *mud-fish*; though this appellation belongs more properly to another kind, expressly prepared for the English market, where it is generally preferred. This last is split not quite open, but only down to the navel; it is then salted and washed in the usual manner, and barrelled up in a strong pickle of salt boiled in water.

Cod-fish is also taken with nets called cod-

seines. These are cast at some distance from the shallop, the rope being suspended by buoys made for that purpose, and placed at certain intervals, about an hour before sun-set; and two or three hours before sun-rise, all hands turn out to heave or haul them in. Sometimes the glut of fish in the nets is so great that the weight sinks the buoys under water.

It may naturally be conceived that the distance of the place where the fish is taken from that where it is cured must make a proportionable difference in the mode of proceeding, and, in certain cases, in the quality and value of the fish: the common distinction, in Newfoundland, of the fish when completely dried, is not according to its size, but according to its degree of perfection, both in appearance and in quality, into *merchantable*, *Madeira*, and *West Indian:* if there is not an immediate demand for the last kind, it is liable to become in a short time unfit for any market.

It has already been observed, that in some parts of Newfoundland the fishermen are under the necessity of going to a considerable distance from their stages before they find proper fishing ground. In this case, as the length of time during which the fish may be kept in the boat, and the heat of the weather, tend to make it soft and not so easy to be cured, as well as to taint

the liver, these consequences are prevented by splitting the fish at once in the boat; but even then it is exposed to considerable risk. In Conception-Bay and other equally convenient parts of the island, the boats or skiffs generally go from one quarter of a mile to four or five miles distance from the coast, and bring their fish home in very good order. As soon as it arrives, whatever time of the day or night it may happen to be, it is immediately landed, split and salted, and in proper time washed and spread out for drying. This mode is commonly called the *shore-fishery*, and is considered as the best and most productive of merchantable fish.

What is called the *northern-fishery*, is carried on on the northern coasts of the island and the adjoining parts of Labrador by planters from Conception-Bay, Trinity-Bay, and Saint John's, who go there early in the season in large schooners carrying several skiffs, a numerous crew, and provisions for the whole fishing season. The people fish there in skiffs close to the land; and as their stages and other conveniences are near at hand, this does not differ as to the mode of curing and drying the fish from the shore-fishery. When they have a sufficient quantity of dry fish to load their vessel, they send it to their respective merchants with part

of their crew, who, as soon as they have discharged this their *first trip*, return for a second, and so on successively till the fall, when they all come home with whatever may be remaining. But when the size of their craft, or the want of the necessary conveniences, will not allow them to cure and dry their fish there, in that case they confine themselves to the process of splitting and salting the fish, disposing it in layers as in vat-salting; and when the boat is full they bring her home, with what is commonly called *green fish*. As soon as she arrives, she is fixed close to an oblong square low vessel of boards, so loosely joined at the bottom as to let the sea water run through it. This vessel, called *Ram's horn*, probably a corruption of the French *Rinçoir*, is fastened to the wharf's or stage's head. The fish is thrown, one by one, into the Ram's horn, where there are three men standing up to their knees in the water, two of whom rub, shake, and clean the fish with mops; this is afterwards thrown up by the third man on a kind of scaffold, half way to the top of the wharf or stage, where it is received by other men, and by them thrown on the wharf's or stage's head. Here it is put into wheel or hand barrows, and carried to a covered part of the wharf, or a side of the stage, laid in a long even bulk, and thus left to drain.

The following day, if the weather is favourable, the fish is spread on flakes, and the usual process is used until it is completely dried.

In the *Labrador* fishery, the process and result are exactly the same at the Camp Islands and adjoining places, as in the northern fishery. But in the higher parts of the coast of Labrador, the fish is salted in very high bulks, the top of which is entirely covered with salt; their flakes are low, and the fish is dried chiefly by the cold air. When fit to be shipped off, it has a very pleasing appearance, but it is extremely soft and flexible, from the want of a proper degree of heat in the atmosphere. The inhabitants of Jersey, Marseilles, and a few other ports in the Mediterranean, are said to be very partial to this kind; but it will not keep long in the cargo.

Cod is found in inconceivable multitudes on the Great Bank, in soundings of thirty and forty fathoms, and taken with lines of a proportionable length carried to the bottom by means of a lead fixed to their extremity. But the time required to load a vessel of the usual size of *bankers*, and the space which must elapse before the fish is taken out of the bulk, or rather out of the pickle, washed and dried, are considerable drawbacks upon the advantages to be obtained from this otherwise

very abundant fishery. The dangers of the spring navigation from the ice and storms, and the continual fogs with which the bank is covered, occasioning frequently a drizzling rain and showers of snow or sleet, increase its difficulties.

On the western coast of Newfoundland the fishery begins much earlier than in the other parts of the island; but here they get only *green* fish, on account of the distance of the proper fishing grounds from the shore. This is called the *western* fishery; and in order to complete this description of the cod-fishery, we shall add, that the bulk of fish left to drain after being washed and previous to its being spread for drying, is called the *water-horse*, a name which sets at defiance all the penetration and learning of the deepest etymologist.

Besides the most valuable and inexhaustible commodity of cod which this fishery sends to different markets of Europe and of America, it supplies the curriers with *train-oil*, so called, in Newfoundland, to distinguish it from that which is extracted from whales and seals, and which is there designated by the appellation of *fat-oil*. This train-oil is made from the liver of the cod which, during the process of curing the fish, the header throws through an opening in the splitting-table into a tub placed under it. This

tub is afterwards emptied into a puncheon so placed as to expose its contents to the full action of the sun, during at least a week, when the livers melt into oil. It is then the business of the salter to draw this oil off through an opening made in one side of the puncheon, about half way between the top and the bottom, into another puncheon which has been well cleansed, out of which the oil is again poured with buckets into hogsheads well trimmed. The blubber remaining in the former puncheon, consisting of water, blood, and other dirt, is next let out through a hole in the bottom; it is boiled in copper cauldrons, and the additional oil which is obtained by this second operation is put into casks, generally pork barrels, and sold like the former for exportation.

CHAPTER XVI.

OF THE CHARACTER AND MANNERS OF THE ABORIGINES AND OTHER INHABITANTS OF THE ISLAND OF NEWFOUNDLAND.

It has been said that gradual improvement is a most conspicuous law of the nature of man. This assertion must necessarily be admitted with some limitations, at least of opportunities for improvement; for, without these, the degeneracy of man in a state of barbarism has invariably been found to increase in proportion to the distance from the sources of the blessings of civilization and a cultivated state of life. An eminent modern historian* has observed, that "although the elegant and refined arts may decline or perish amidst the violent shocks of those revolutions and disasters to which nations are exposed, the necessary arts of life, when once they have been introduced among any people, are never lost. If ever the use of iron had been known to the savages of America or

* Doctor Robertson, in his History of America.

to their progenitors; if ever they had employed a plough, a loom, or a forge, the utility of those inventions would have preserved them; and it is impossible that they should have been abandoned or forgotten." The learned author concludes thence, that the Americans sprung from some people who were themselves in such an early and unimproved state of society, as to be unacquainted with all the necessary arts which remained unknown among their posterity.

Except in particular cases, as, for example, of an overgrown population, where colonies were compelled to emigrate, carrying with them the arts and improvements of their parent country, it may generally be said that those who, of their own free will, forsook a state enjoying the blessings of civilization and social order, were not the most valuable or the most industrious members of that community, and had as little practical knowledge of the arts, as relish for the improvements of their parent country. Licentiousness and plunder, or, according to the phraseology of the last century, liberty and equality, were their great objects, and fishing and hunting their first resources for subsistence. The dispositions and manners of men are formed by their situation, and arise from the state of society in which they live. When they are obliged to shift for their subsist-

ence in woods and wilds, when all their thoughts are employed in defending themselves and in procuring the necessaries of life, it is easy to suppose that they will, in time, forget the use of those faculties which they cease to exert. With respect to the use of *iron*, the complicated nature of the process requisite to bring this imperfect metal to a proper state, will easily account for its having been lost even in countries abounding with iron-mines: the use of the *plough* supposes, not only the knowledge of the proper preparation of iron, but also lands fit for cultivation, and such a state of society as will effectually secure private property and public tranquillity: the same may be said of the *loom*, and of other manufactures even of the most common use.

The descriptions given by modern travellers, of the various tribes of savages which are found in North America, particularly in the interior of that country, present no essential differences from the accounts which were published on the same subject soon after the discovery of that continent.* The latest work

* Some idea may be formed of the strong disinclination of those savages to civilization, even with the most favourable opportunities for improvement, and of the principal cause of that disinclination, from the following anecdote related by Doctor Franklin:—

of this kind, is one which appeared in London, in the year 1809, under every circumstance that can stamp on a literary production authenticity and interest, intituled, "The Travels of Captains Lewis and Clarke, from Saint Louis, by way of the Missouri and Columbia Rivers, to the Pacific Ocean; performed in the years 1804, 1805, and 1806, by order of the Government of the United States." Some of the tribes of the native Indians of North America are there represented as existing in a deplorable state of savage wretchedness, and to have "little besides the features of human beings." The general mode of declaring and carrying on war among the various tribes throughout the whole extent of that country, and their conduct towards their prisoners, are described as corresponding exactly with the

On the conclusion of a treaty between some neighbouring tribes and the Council of Pennsylvania, an offer was made to the former to educate some of their young men according to the mode of civilized life. The Indians, after having maturely considered the proposal, replied; "What can we get by the exchange of education? You cannot walk so fast nor so well as we can. You cannot fight so well, nor are you such good marksmen. Our wants are fewer, our *liberty* greater than yours. But as you mean to live friendly with us, we are willing to communicate these *blessings* to *your* sons, by educating, from time to time, a certain number of the young men of your nation."

system of warfare which was observed there at the earliest period of the acquaintance of Europeans with that continent. A similarity so striking, so exact, and so universal between the dispositions and manners of the savage inhabitants of North America, arising from an equally exact similarity of habits, pursuits, and mode of living, may reasonably be supposed to render the following summary of the Indian character and mode of living, in the nineteenth century, by the author of that work, applicable to the native savages of Newfoundland, so as to supply, in some degree, the want of more certain information obtained by personal intercourse.

The Indians are of a malignant, revengeful, cruel, and inexorable disposition; they will watch whole days unmindful of the calls of nature, and make their way through pathless woods to pursue and revenge themselves of an enemy; they hear unmoved the piercing cries of such as unhappily fall into their hands, and receive a diabolical pleasure from the tortures which they inflict on their prisoners. Artful and designing, always ready to take every advantage, cool and deliberate in their counsels, steady and persevering in their plans of destruction, and cautious in the extreme either of discovering their sentiments or of revealing a secret,

they possess the sagacity of a hound, the penetrating sight of a lynx, the cunning of a fox, the agility of a bounding roe, and the unconquerable fierceness of the tiger.

The small tribes dispersed over America are not only unconnected, but also engaged in perpetual hostilities with one another, ever ready to take arms in order to repel or revenge any encroachment on the forests or plains which they consider as their hunting grounds, ever actuated by that eagerness to gratify the passion of vengeance which rages with inconceivable violence in the breasts of savages, and which may be considered as the distinguishing characteristic of men in the uncivilized state. As war and hunting are their only occupations, so they conduct both with the same spirit and the same arts, regarding it as extreme folly to meet an enemy who is on his guard, and upon equal terms. They follow the track of the objects of their animosity through the forest, lurk in some thicket near to their haunts, and with the patience of a sportsman lying in wait for game, they will continue in their station day after day, until they can rush upon their prey when most secure and least able to resist them: for this purpose they will creep on their hands and feet through the woods, and paint their skin the

same colour with the withered leaves in order to avoid detection.

Where hunting is the chief source of subsistence, a vast extent of territory is requisite for supporting a small number of people. Hence the numbers in each tribe have always been small, though scattered over vast countries: a community not exceeding, perhaps, three hundred warriors, would occupy a province larger than some kingdoms in Europe. The higher the latitudes, the fewer and more straggling were the Indians; nor could they remain long in any one place, but were obliged to roam about in quest of food, depending during one part of the year on fishing, and during another on hunting; and it is evident that no wandering nation can ever be numerous. Famine also contributes to check their increase: for, even in a country abounding in fish and game, these resources failed them in some seasons; and being destitute of sagacity sufficient to lay part of the provisions thus obtained, in reserve for the most inclement portion of the year, they were frequently, with their families, reduced to extreme distress.

Such is the natural indolence of man in a savage state, that though the North American Indians lived in a country stocked with the best timber for ship building, yet they

never made any improvement of it beyond their canoes wrought out of the trunks of trees made hollow by fire, or formed by the bark of the birch-tree strengthened with small ribs of wood somewhat like hoops, and pitched with a mixture of turpentine and rosin, using paddles, and setting poles instead of oars and sails. Their houses, or wigwams, were little buildings made of young trees bent down like an arbour, covered on the top with bark, and on the sides with thick mats made of rushes, or with the skins of deer and other animals: the doors were very low; at the top of the wigwam was a hole to let out the smoke, and on the ground were skins spread around to sleep. Their usual mode of fishing was with hooks made of bone, and lines made of wild hemp or the sinews of deer. Their weapons were clubs made of some heavy wood hardened in the fire; lances, the heads of which were armed with flint or bone; and bows and arrows, the latter pointed with the same materials as the lances, while the cord of the bow was made of the dried gut of some animal: to these were added the scalping-knife and the tomahawk, or war-hatchet, which, as well as the javelin and the arrows, were considerably improved after the arrival of the Europeans, by the substitution of iron for flint and bone.

Such were, in the sixteenth century, the dispositions, manners, pursuits, and mode of living; of the North American Indians; and such they are still in the nineteenth century, among the numerous tribes scattered over the immeasurable wilds between the Atlantic and the Pacific Ocean, from the Missouri to the northern extremity of that continent.

With respect to the Newfoundland Indians in particular, separated for ages from all other nations, and hunted like wild beasts by the Esquimaux from the opposite coast, they appear to have ever viewed their civilized neighbours settled on the coasts of the island with an inveterate hatred, and an implacable spirit of revenge fed by the sense or tradition of encroachments and injuries transmitted from generation to generation; for all writers agree in asserting that, in savages, no time can obliterate the remembrance of an offence: the desire of vengeance is the first and almost the only principle which a savage instils into the minds of his children: this grows up with them as they advance in life; it resembles the instinctive rage of an animal, rather than the passion of a man, and is the great motive urged by the chiefs in order to excite their people to take arms. It is, therefore, not unreasonable to suppose that the native savages of New-

foundland have retained in the fullest extent all the features characteristic of the savage state; a supposition which the information that has hitherto been obtained respecting them, tends most strongly to confirm.

When Cabot first landed in the bay of Bonavista, he saw some people *painted with ochre*, and clothed with deer-skins formed into a sort of gowns with sleeves, that reached about half way down the legs and the arms, and beaver-skins about their necks; their legs and feet were bare, and their heads uncovered: they wore their hair pretty long, with a great lock behind, a feather standing erect on the crown, and a small lock plaited before; their hair was of different colours, and their clothes as well as their bodies were painted red. Broughton adds, that they had some knowledge of a Supreme Being; that they believed that men and women were originally created from a certain number of arrows stuck fast in the ground, and that the dead went into a far country there to make merry with their friends. This mode of peopling a desart country is as rational as some others that have since been imagined, such as, for example, according to some later writers, the original ancestor of the ignorant islanders found at the extremity of Baffin's Bay, having been

probably some wandering vagabond lost in hunting with his comrades, or some fisherman and his wife cast by the winds to this remote angle of the earth.

James Cartier, in the year 1534, sailed round that island, and described the inhabitants as being of a good size, tolerably well shaped, wearing their hair tied in a bunch on the crown of the head adorned with feathers. Two years after, Mr. Hore saw likewise some of the natives who came to look at his ship, but, on being pursued, fled to an island where a piece of roasted bear's flesh was found on a wooden spit.

Sir Martin Frobisher, in the year 1576, having been driven by the ice on the coast of Newfoundland, found some of the natives to whom he made presents; he encouraged them to come on board his ship: the next day, having sent on shore one of them in the ship's boat with five sailors, neither they nor the boat were ever seen again. Upon this, Frobisher seized forcibly one of the natives, who died soon after his arrival in England. It is said by Fabian, in his Chronicle, that Cabot had, in the same manner, forcibly taken away three native Indians from Newfoundland.

When, in the year 1610, Governor Guy had

landed in Conception-Bay, and constructed some huts for himself and his associates, it is said that the behaviour of himself and his people to the natives was so courteous, that they entirely gained their friendship, and were permitted without interruption to carry into effect those measures which were the most likely to accomplish the intended object, namely, the establishment of a colony. That these demonstrations of friendship on the part of the Indians were only a snare, is a probable conjecture, supported by the circumstance that Guy and his followers were soon after obliged to give up the undertaking and to return to England.

In Clarke's New Description of the World, published in the year 1696, we are informed, that the natives who inhabited the coast of Newfoundland had, since the coming of Europeans, betaken themselves to the woods and fastnesses. In the ninth edition of a Geographical Grammar, published by Patrick Gordon, in the year 1722, it is said, that the natives of this island are generally of a middle stature, broad faced, colouring their faces with *ochre*, and for clothing using skins of wild beasts: that they live by ten or twelve families together; their cabins being made of poles in form of our arbours, and covered with skins. These several ac-

counts, together with the inferences which may be drawn from the general habits of man in a savage state, as applicable to the Newfoundland Indians, are confirmed by the result of the latest observations.

That a tribe, perpetually surrounded and harassed by enemies, should have continued to exist for the space of eight centuries, might appear almost incredible, if the successive accounts which have been transmitted to us respecting them from the earliest period, the proclamations issued from time to time for their protection by the Governors of the island, and the report of Captain Buchan in the year 1811, did not prove its existence beyond all possibility of doubt. How far a hope can reasonably be entertained, of any attempt to introduce among them the blessings of civilization being crowned with success, is very doubtful. The immense range of territory which lies open before them, will always enable them to elude every effort to establish an intercourse. Their number is supposed to be inconsiderable in comparison with the size of the island: this, as we have already observed, has always been and must ever continue to be the consequence of the savage mode of life; nor will the nature of the soil and of the climate leave any ground for supposing that the increase of po-

pulation among the European settlers, may, at any future period, so surround and confine those savages to a more limited extent of ground, as to force at last an intercourse with them.

With respect to the inhabitants of Newfoundland of European extraction, they are either natives, or descendants from natives, of Great Britain, Ireland, or of the islands of Guernsey and Jersey. The latter have generally retained the manners of their respective ancestors, with some qualifications arising from the difference of climate and of the mode of living, so as to exhibit rather a compound of all.

Livy has long ago asserted that the same holds true of mankind as with respect to vegetables and to animals; that the particular nature of the seed is not so powerful in preserving the perfection of the produce, as the nature of the *soil* and *climate* is in changing it. He instances this in the Macedonians, whose descendants possessed Egypt, Syria, and Babylon, and who had all degenerated to an equality with the native effeminate inhabitants of those countries. In the same manner Doctor Falconer observes, that even the children of Europeans, born in warmer climates, degenerate, whilst, on the contrary, in colder climates,

they possess a greater degree of bodily strength: the inhabitants of warm climates are cowardly, irritable, and perfidious; those of cold climates are little subject to violent passions, much less vindictive, more averse to malice or cruelty of disposition, and more fixed and steady in their resolutions: slight impressions scarcely affect them, and the motives that would deter an inhabitant of a hot country from an enterprise, never reach the sensation of one of a cold climate: their bravery, insensibility of fear, and contempt of danger, are equal to the rational and steady nature of their benevolence and kindness of disposition. The same writer farther observes, that habits of labour, exercise, and industry, contribute to the strength of the body; and the strength thus acquired gives them a confidence in the midst of the greatest dangers, which the inhabitants of hot climates do not possess.

These principles concerning the effects of a cold climate on the temper and dispositions of mankind, though questionable in several respects when applied to man in the uncivilized state, are perfectly applicable to the natives of Newfoundland of European origin. Let me add, that their intellectual capacity, the acuteness of their understanding, and aptitude to improve in the arts or in learning, are as re-

markable as their courage, perseverance, and industry.

It has also been justly observed, that the character of a population is essentially influenced by the nature of the *country*. Where the land is barren, and the necessaries of life are not acquired without toil and labour, little leisure is left for the indulgence of vicious passions, and the course of life is generally moral and regular. This is likewise true of the native inhabitants of Newfoundland, where this source of morality derives considerable assistance from the facility of settling in life, and of bringing up a family, which encourages early marriages. The instances of celibacy among them are extremely rare.

A third cause, which has been said to have a great influence on the temper and dispositions of mankind, is *diet*. It has been observed by Doctor Haller, that fish hold a kind of middle rank between animals and vegetables; that they are, in general, less nutritive than flesh-meats, and produce also less red blood and strength of body. Montesquieu ascribes to a fish diet other properties, with respect to which Diodorus Siculus had before expressed a directly contrary opinion, by asserting, that a fish diet produces a remarkable apathy or unfeelingness.

It is very remarkable that no where can a stronger and more hardy race be found than in Newfoundland, not only among the natives, but also among the strangers who have resided some years in that island; and no where is fish, either fresh or salted, in more constant or general use, even during the most laborious season of the fishery: they eat fish at breakfast with their tea, at dinner with potatoes, and again at supper with tea. Salt pork, always accompanied with cabbage or greens, is used only on particular days; indeed it is often at such a price as not to be equally attainable by all and at all times: when cheapest, it is still a very expensive article. The comparative increase in the population of Newfoundland is by no means such as to make the observation of Montesquieu applicable to that island; nor does the assertion of Diodorus appear there to stand upon better grounds.

The advocates for the use of *tea* have, no doubt, been struck with the remark just made, that this vegetable forms a considerable article in the diet of the Newfoundlanders. Wine is seldom used but by the superior sort of planters, and that only on some particular occasions. Spirituous liquors are in more general use: it is not, however, uncommon to see a servant, who finds that this drink has a

violent effect on his passions, or has in one instance brought him into a scrape, *swear against liquor*, that is, swear before his clergyman that he will not drink any kind of spirits for one year, sometimes for a longer period, or during his stay on shore: this is called there *cagging* or *kegging*; and seldom any but strangers find themselves under the necessity of applying to this measure. Bohea *tea*, *hot* from the kettle in which it is boiled, is the favourite and universal beverage, even at dinner, particularly during the winter season, as well as at breakfast and supper during the whole year. And yet it has been asserted by several highly respectable writers, that tea appears from the best experiments to produce sedative effects upon the nerves, diminishing their energy and the tone of the muscular fibres, and inducing a considerable degree both of sensibility and irritability upon the whole system: it has even been thought that the diminutive stature and cowardly disposition of the Chinese might be owing in no small degree to the use of this vegetable, at the same time that it is supposed not to be so prejudicial in the hot climates of China and India, as in the colder ones. Others have attributed these effects, not to the tea itself, but to the warm water.

Another beverage in common use there, cheap, pleasant, and very wholesome, is *spruce-beer*. A bough of black spruce, fresh from the tree, is chopped into small pieces, and put into an iron pot, containing about six or eight gallons of water; this is hung over a large fire and left to boil for several hours, until the leaves come off without effort; it is then taken off, and some molasses are put into it, at the rate of about one gallon for eighteen gallons: the whole is stirred up, and when sufficiently cooled, is poured into the cask where a pint of the grounds left by the former brewing, and a certain quantity of cold water, to prevent the grounds from being scalded, have been previously put. The cask being completely filled with cold water, is well shaken, and left to ferment and settle for twenty-four hours. Then the beer is fit for use, and of a very superior quality to what is made with the essence of spruce. Some people of a particular taste use that beer with spirits, instead of water, a mixture which is there called *callibugus*, and confined to a few amateurs.

The houses are generally built of wood; the best are two stories high, raised on brick or stone foundations, which include excellent cel-

lars: the boards, planks, and shingles,* are imported from other parts of America. These houses are continually wanting repair, and require a coat of paint every twelve months to support a decent appearance. The use of coal has of late years become general in parlours and even in kitchens; it is imported chiefly from Sydney, furnishing a profitable employment to the shipping until the fish is ready to be put on-board for market; also from Liverpool and Scotland in greater or smaller quantities as ballast, when the cargo is light, or the amount of shipping required to carry off the produce of the fishery exceeds that which is necessary for the importation of supplies and merchandize.

The common dwellings consist only of the ground-floor, or at most of one story: the materials, except the shingles, are the produce of the Newfoundland woods; the best sorts are clapboarded on the outside; others are built of logs left rough and uneven on the inside and outside, the interstices being filled up with moss, and the inside generally lined with boards planed and tongued. This filling with moss the vacancies between the studs to keep out the

* Shingles are laths of twelve inches long and four broad, which are nailed on the tops of houses like tiles.

weather, is there called *chinsing*. The floors are sometimes made of boards planed and tongued, and sometimes of longers or poles nailed top to but. They call *tilts* temporary log houses, which they erect in the woods to pursue there their winter occupations. Tilt-backs, or *linneys*, are sheds made of studs, and covered either with boards or with boughs, resembling the section of a roof, fixed to the back of their dwellings towards the wind. They have only one fire-place in a very large kitchen, partially enclosed with boards, and having within a bench on each side, so as to admit eight or ten persons. Under these benches they manage convenient places for their poultry, by which means they have fresh eggs during the most severe winters: these chimneys are likewise by their width extremely fit for the purpose of smoking salmon and other kinds of fish or eatables, as the only fuel used in them is wood, which is found at no great distance.

The natives of both sexes are equally remarkable for their ingenuity and industry. The women, besides the very valuable assistance which they afford during the season for curing and drying the fish, generally understand the whole process of preparing the wool from the fleece, and of manufacturing it by knitting into stockings, caps, socks, and mit-

tens: their worsted stockings are strong and well calculated for the climate. The women are also characterized by a steady attention to their domestic duties, and correctness of conduct in every point of view.

The natives generally attain to a good old age; some instances have been known of men and women at fourscore attending on the flakes and in the stages, to the operations of the fishery, with as much facility and alacrity as they could have done in their youth. They are liable to few diseases, except such as are imported from other countries. The scarlet and putrid fevers, putrid sore throat, and the small-pox, in consequence of their rooted aversion to any kind of inoculation, produce among them a very great mortality, whenever they happen to make their appearance during the heats of the summer season. The gout is unknown among them, nor are consumptions frequent.

It has already been observed that the natives of Newfoundland have generally retained the manners and customs of their respective ancestors, with some qualifications arising from the difference of climate and of the mode of living, so as to exhibit rather a compound of all. Some customs are found there of very ancient

date, and now grown obsolete in Europe. Such is, for example, the custom of *saluting the bride.* Doctor Taylor, in his Elements of the Civil Law, says, that this custom was much in fashion in his time over all Europe; and he traces it to a similar one in use in ancient Rome, where drinking wine or other strong liquors was, in women, a crime punishable equally to adultery, as leading to it, by a law as ancient as Romulus; and in order that they could not expect to trangress the law with impunity, the relations of the wife and of her husband, "*consobrini,*" were, as often as they met her, to salute her, *ut spiritu judicaretur.* This interdict was likewise contained in the "Twelve Tables," and for a considerable time was enforced among the Romans with inexorable severity. In all cases of this nature, the relations, "*cognati,*" generally sat with the husband as assessors in the trial.

The regularity established by the nature of the pursuits of the inhabitants of Newfoundland impresses the same character on all the principal occurrences of life. Marriages and christenings usually take place either at the fall, when the fishing concerns are at an end and all accounts are settled, or sometimes in the spring, previous to the resuming of those

occupations. They are seasons of festivity, celebrated with good cheer and the firing of guns.

Their funeral ceremonies are generally conducted with some parade, and attended by a large concourse of people, in proportion to the regard entertained by the public for the deceased. The clergymen of the place or district, both Protestant and Roman Catholic, meet at the house where the corpse is deposited, with the relations and friends, and there partake with them of a small collation, consisting of bread and cheese, seed-cake, wine, spirits, and *tea*. The procession, preceded by the clergy who march before the corpse, proceeds to the place of burial attended by the relatives two and two, and followed by the friends without any order. After the service has been performed and the ceremony is concluded, the procession returns in the same order to the house of the deceased, and there separates. The funerals of the military are conducted with the most impressive solemnity. The soldiers of the company, preceded by their officers, march two and two with their arms reversed, the drums muffled beating single strokes at intervals, and the fifes playing a solemn tune, until the procession has reached the grave. When the ceremony is

concluded, three volleys are fired over the grave; the men then form themselves, the word of command, "quick march," is given, and the fifes and drums strike up a lively tune. It is said that at Hatherleigh, a small town in the county of Devon, after a funeral, the church-bells ring a lively peal, as in other places after a wedding, and that the inhabitants are perfectly reconciled to this custom by the consideration that the deceased is removed from a scene of trouble to a state of peace. Also at High-Wycombe, in Buckinghamshire, the parties, after the ceremony, meet at a public-house, sing a requiem, and afterwards partake of buns and ale. As to the practice above alluded to, the Author has since learned, that it is customary in all military funerals in England: it is evidently founded in policy, though on very different grounds from those on which the inhabitants of Hatherleigh are said to be reconciled to the lively peal.

The practice of "waking the dead" is pretty general in Newfoundland, particularly among the natives of Irish extraction, who, in this respect, most faithfully adhere to the usage of their fathers in every point, as to crying most bitterly, and very often with *dry* eyes, howling, making a variety of strange gestures and contortions

expressive of the violence of their grief, and also as to drinking to revive their spirits, and keep themselves awake.

Both Protestants and Catholics generally unite in compliment to each other in observing the days of their respective Saints, namely, Saint George and Saint Patrick. But the devotion with which the latter is honoured by the sons of Erin is by far the greater of the two. It is hardly in the power of any priest in the world to hinder an Irishman from getting gloriously drunk, if he is so inclined, on the whole of the 17th of March, as well as the next day in honour of Sheelagh, Saint Patrick's wife. This festival is always looked for in Newfoundland with some apprehension, and requires the most attentive exertions of the magistrates to prevent the recurrence of those disturbances, frequently accompanied with bloodshed, of which it was the occasion not many years ago.

Another practice common among the natives of Newfoundland of every denomination is that of fixing *horse-shoes*, not only before the doors of their houses, but also upon their fishing-skiffs, boats, and schooners. Mr. John Nichols, in his History of the County of Leicester, published in 1800, expresses himself at a loss to account for two large and ancient

horse-shoes on the door of the church of Ashton Folvile. The authors of the British Critic, October, 1800, say, that they are probably relics of some jurisdiction exercised there by the noble family of De Ferrers, ancient Earls of Leicester and Derby, whose arms are three horse-shoes, and whose name, "Domini de Ferrariis," as they are called in old charters, signifies smiths or workers in iron. They add that, in the neighbouring county of Rutland, the great door of the County-Hall, at Oakham, exhibits the fullest display of this their armorial bearing. This reasoning may apply to the above-mentioned church and county-hall; but how this horse-shoe came to be used, as it actually is, in Ireland, as well as in various parts of England, even in London, and in Newfoundland, probably as a talisman against evil accidents, spirits, or charms, cannot be accounted for from that circumstance.

Candlemas-day is most religiously observed by those of the Roman Catholic persuasion, who most eagerly crowd to their respective chapels to receive a few drops from the lighted blessed candles on their hats and clothes, and a piece likewise blessed by their priest, which they carry home and preserve with the most religious care and confidence, as a protection against the influence of evil spirits, &c.

Ash-Wednesday is likewise observed with great devotion by the same description of people, with the exception of an old custom which they practise on coming from mass, to parade the streets, dragging after them a long heavy log to which a rope is fastened, and compelling every unmarried person, of whatever sex or description, whom they happen to meet, to lay hold of that rope and to accompany the procession until the termination of their march through the town. This may be intended as an allusion to the renewal of the licence to marry, which, in that church, is suspended during the Lent season.

The ancient British custom of the *Yule*, or Christmas log or block, is universally observed by the inhabitants of Newfoundland. On Christmas-eve, at sun-set, an immense block, provided on purpose from the adjoining woods, is laid across on the back of the fire-place, to be left there till it is entirely consumed: the ceremony of lighting it is announced by the firing of muskets or seal guns before the door of each dwelling-house. This, among them, is the prelude to a season of joy and merriment, nor would the wise law passed in the year 1658, by the Puritans of New England, which inflicted a penalty of five shillings for "observing any such day as Christmas," stand

there much chance of being regarded. This custom is said to be of very great antiquity and still prevalent in the north of England, and is supposed to have been borrowed from the ancient Saxons. History informs us that, of all the Druidical festivals, this was the most joyous, with a view to atone for the inclemency of the weather by great fires and mutual merriments. The Saxons began their year, it is said, on the 8th of the Kalends of January, which is our Christmas-day: the festivities of this season, by them called *Yule*, lasted twelve days; the night preceding *yule-day* was termed "the night of mothers," and observed as sacred. In order to dispel the drowsy influence of the dreariness of the weather, the summons to the approaching festival was given early in the morning by music going round, which was called "the waketh," since softened into "waits." Some add to the Christmas-log Christmas-candles, remarkable for their uncommon size.

Christmas-dinners are in general practice; so are likewise Christmas-boxes, or presents, not in coin, for this is not in common use there, but in eatables, from a turkey or a quarter of veal or mutton, or a piece of beef just killed for the occasion, down to a nicely smoked salmon. This custom is the less ex-

traordinary in Newfoundland, as it is said to have originated with mariners, or rather to have derived its name from a practice anciently common to them. When a ship went on a distant voyage, a box was fixed to the mast, for the purpose of receiving the pious offerings of the mariners; and we may suppose that these offerings must have been frequent and large, in proportion to the number and the greatness of the dangers to which these people might find themselves exposed during the navigation.

Another custom, which is said to be still observed in the north of England, prevails in some parts of Newfoundland, though not with general approbation: it is called *mumming*; men and women exchange clothes with each other, and go from house to house singing and dancing, on which occasion Christmas-boxes are expected, and generally granted previous to the performance, in order to get rid of them. The Author must, in justice to the *native* inhabitants of Conception-Bay, observe, that frequent attempts have been made to introduce this practice among them, but they have been generally resisted and publicly reprobated. If the character of the natives of Newfoundland, in general, agrees with that of those of Concep-

tion-Bay, which he had greater opportunities to appreciate during a residence of upwards of ten years among them, no where can a race be found more remarkable for indefatigable industry, for contempt of danger, for steadiness of temper and of conduct, sincerity and constancy of attachment, and a strong sense of religious duty.

The population of Newfoundland, with respect to religious profession, consists of members of the Church of England, of Roman Catholics, of Presbyterians or Independents, and of Methodists.

With respect to the first, this island was one of the original objects of the care of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts. Their present establishment there consists of four missionaries of the Established Church and seven schoolmasters; namely, one missionary at Saint John's, who is also acting chaplain to the garrison, and one schoolmaster; one missionary and three schoolmasters in Conception-Bay; one missionary and one schoolmaster in Trinity-Bay; one missionary at Placentia; one schoolmaster at Burin, and another at Bonavista. Each mission has one or more places of worship, and a dwelling-house with some land attached to

it. The annual salary of each missionary was raised by the Society, in the year 1813, from one hundred to two hundred pounds sterling.

The Roman Catholics had long been endeavouring to obtain a footing there; but their efforts were as constantly resisted, on account of the disturbances and animosities occasioned by the intolerant and daring conduct of the Jesuits in Canada and other parts in the neighbourhood, prior to the treaty of 1763. In the year 1784, Doctor James O'Donell, a clergyman of the Franciscan order, who had been stationed in the city of Waterford, where his piety and learning soon procured his advancement to the head order, and where he is said to have distinguished himself as a popular and pathetic preacher, was sent to Newfoundland with full authority from the See of Rome as "Prefect and Vicar Apostolic of Newfoundland." He was afterwards raised to the titular dignity of "Bishop of Thyatira," and established missions in Harbour-Grace and other parts of that island. He remained there twenty-three years, during which his conduct is said to have been patriotic and meritorious. On his return to Ireland he received from the British government a pension of fifty pounds sterling, which, says his biographer, he ever after looked upon with pride as a mark of his

Majesty's approbation. He was succeeded, in the year 1806, by Doctor Lambert, the first Roman Catholic missionary who appeared there with the title of "Bishop of Newfoundland."

The Presbyterians or Independents have a congregation in Saint John's, whose founder was John Jones, a native of Wales, clerk to a company of Royal Artillery stationed in that town about the year 1777. He died at Saint John's, in March, 1800, at the age of sixty-five years.

Methodism was first introduced into Newfoundland by the Rev. Lawrence Coughlan, a clergyman of the Church of England, who, about the year 1764, was sent to the district of Conception-Bay as missionary. He left it about the year 1772, after having appointed classes and leaders of both sexes, whilst the mission was more regularly filled by the Society at home with the clergyman who had some years before been appointed by them to the mission of Trinity-Bay.

With respect to the Courts of Justice in Newfoundland, they are,*—

I. The "Supreme Court of Judicature,"

* By the act of the 33d Geo. III. cap. 76. Vide supra, p. 219.

held by a Chief-Justice appointed by the King's commission under the great seal: This is a court of record, having both criminal and civil jurisdiction. It may hold plea of "all *crimes* and *misdemeanors*" committed within the island of Newfoundland, and the islands and seas to which ships or vessels repair from the island of Newfoundland for carrying on the fishery, on the banks of Newfoundland, and on the coast of Labrador, in the same manner as plea is holden of such crimes and misdemeanors in England. It may also hold plea, in a summary way, of all suits and complaints of a *civil* nature, arising within the parts above-mentioned, and also in Great Britain and Ireland, according to the law of England, as far as the same can be applied to suits and complaints arising in the said islands and places.

II. The "Surrogate Courts," held each by a Judge appointed by the Governor of the island, and having *civil* jurisdiction in the same manner and to the same extent as the Supreme Court, to which an appeal lies from these courts upon judgments for sums exceeding forty pounds; as there is likewise an appeal from the Supreme Court to his Majesty in council upon judgments for sums exceeding one hundred pounds.

The mode of proceeding in these several

courts of civil jurisdiction, is by summons, where the cause of action does not exceed five pounds; and where it does exceed that sum, or the summons is disobeyed, then by writ of attachment against the goods, or by arrest of the person. When the cause of action exceeds the sum of forty shillings, and a jury is prayed by either of the parties to the suit, twenty-four persons are to be summoned, twelve of whom are to form the jury; but in case of a sufficient number of jurors not appearing to be sworn, then the Governor may appoint two Assessors to the Chief-Justice, and each Surrogate may in like manner appoint to himself two such Assessors; and they shall respectively proceed to the trial as if no jury had been prayed.*

When a writ of attachment has been issued, and it is made appear to the court out of which such process has issued, that the party is *insolvent*, the court may summon the plaintiff, the defendant, and all the creditors to appear at a certain day; and if, upon investigation, it is found that the party is really insolvent, the court is to declare him or her insolvent accordingly, and to authorize one or more creditors, chosen by the major part in value of such cre-

* Vide supra, p. 216.

ditors whose debts amount respectively to the sum of ten pounds and upwards, to proceed to discovering, collecting, and selling the effects and debts of such person, and making a rateable distribution of the produce among all his creditors, under the directions of such court, and according to such orders as it may, from time to time, deem proper to make.

The order in the distribution of the effects of insolvent persons is as follows: viz.

1. Wages due to fishermen and seamen for the then current season, are to be paid 20*s.* in the pound.

2. Debts for supplies furnished in the then current season, also 20*s.* in the pound, so far as the effects will go. And

3. Debts contracted within two years.

All other creditors are to be paid out of the remainder, if there is any, rateably to their respective claims.

A certificate granted by the court, with the consent of one-half in number and value of the creditors, of such insolvent person having made a true disclosure of his effects, and conformed to the orders and directions of that court, is a bar to all suits for debts contracted within the extent of the jurisdiction of the Supreme and Surrogate Courts, prior to the declaration of insolvency.

III. The "Probate Court," for the probate of wills and for granting administration of the effects of intestates, without which the effects of deceased persons cannot, by law, be legally administered. This court is held by the Chief-Justice, and by Surrogates appointed under his hand and seal.

IV. The "Court of Vice-Admiralty," held by a Judge-Commissary appointed by the Lords of the Admiralty. This court holds plea only of maritime causes and causes of the revenue; but may not take cognizance of the wages of seamen and fishermen. Upon any judgment given in this court, an appeal lies to the Court of Admiralty in England; and, in cases of prize vessels taken in war, to certain Commissioners of Appeal in England.

V. The "Court of Session," held by two or more magistrates appointed by the Governor. The jurisdiction of this court, and the oaths of office to be taken by each magistrate, are the same as in England. They are specially empowered to hear and determine all disputes concerning the wages of seamen and fishermen; all suits for the payment of debts not exceeding forty shillings, and not contracted more than one year before the commencement of such suit; and all offences committed by the masters and employers against any act relating

to Newfoundland and its fisheries, as well as to give judgment for the recovery of every penalty or forfeiture of the sum of ten pounds or under, imposed by any such act.

With these exceptions, it is expressly provided by the Judicature-Act, that none but the Supreme and Surrogate Courts may hold plea of any suit or complaint of a civil nature. All fines, penalties, and forfeitures, whatever, may be recovered only, except as stated in the preceding article, in the Supreme and Surrogate Courts.

APPENDIX.

Note 1, p. 5.

THE information which we have concerning the geography of the middle ages is very slender and uncertain; and so inaccurate was the knowledge that the Romans had of the northern parts of Europe, that Pliny, in his Natural History, lib. vi. cap. 13, supposes that the Baltic was connected with the Caspian and the Great Indian Seas, representing Nerigon or Norway, Scandia or Sweden, Dumna or Denmark, and Bergos, as islands lying near the Icy Sea, of which Nerigon was the greatest, whence, he says, they used to sail to Thule. Ib. lib. iv. cap. 16. In "King Alfred's version of the Ormesta of Orosius," on the geography of those parts in the ninth century, with many valuable additions by the royal geographer himself, from information obtained from some Northmen whom, after his signal victory over the Danish invaders, he had suffered to remain at his court, there is a description of the country of the Northmen given to Alfred by one of them named Ohthere. From this account, it appears, that that country was then called *Northmanna-land;* that it was opposite to the Ost sea, very long, broadest at the south, where it was about sixty miles or more in

extent, and growing narrower to the northward, until it extended at last only three miles from the sea; and that it was bounded to the eastward by wild moors, inhabited by the Finnas, who lived there in the winter by hunting, and in the summer by fishing in the Ost sea. Ohthere described himself as a very rich man in such goods as were valuable in those countries, and said that at the time he quitted Northmanna-land, he had six hundred tame deer, none of which he had purchased, and six decoy rein-deer, which were very valuable among the Finnas, because they caught wild ones with them. He had, besides, twenty horned cattle, twenty sheep, and twenty swine. The rents or tributes in his country consisted chiefly of what was paid by the Finnas, in the skins of deer, bears, otters, and martens; in feathers, whalebone, and ship-ropes, made of whales' hides or seals'-skins. Every one paying according to his substance, the wealthiest paid fifteen martens', five rein-deers', and one bear's skin; ten hanapers full of feathers, a cloak made of bears' or otters' skin, and two ship-ropes, each sixty ells long, one of whales' and the other of seals' skin.

The extraordinary abundance of deer, bears, birds, and other animals, which the Northmen found in Newfoundland, of the same description as those which were esteemed most valuable in their own country, may be supposed to have given them a very high opinion of the value of that island, and to have made them anxious to form a settlement in a country which was so much superior in this and other respects to Northmanna-land and to Greenland.

Note 2, p. 11.

The first vessels in use among the northern nations of Europe, of which mention is made by historians, were boats, either hollowed out of large trunks of trees, or made of wicker cased over with the skin of deer or of some other animal: the latter sort were in general use in Britain in Cæsar's time; (*De Bello Civili*, §259:) those of the Saxon pirates were of the same construction. They were likewise used by the Greeks, who called them Καραβια, perhaps in reference to their shape, from Καραβος, a large kind of crab, and took them on board their ships like pinnaces; hence most likely *korabl*, the Russian term for a ship. The *coracle* now in use on the Dee, the Severn, and the Wye, consists of a slight frame of wicker-work round the edges, and of bent laths intersecting each other in the body, covered with pitched canvass. It is broad at one end and rounded at the other; extremely light, only large enough to contain a single person, and having a cross bench or seat. The Author has frequently seen men paddling down the Wye in these small boats with inconceivable rapidity and dexterity, and afterwards walking up the banks of the river with their coracle on their head, like a large basket with provisions or other goods; or, if empty, thrown over the shoulder, or placed inverted on the head.

It appears also, from Ohthere's account, that the people of Northmanna-land and of Cwenaland were in

the habit of making incursions on each other; for which purpose the latter used to *carry their ships* over land into the meres or lakes amongst the moors, and that, as Ohthere told King Alfred, these ships were small and light.

Necessity, however, soon induced the northern nations to build vessels of a larger size; for, according to the same account, the Northmen, in the ninth century, had circumnavigated the extreme point of Europe, and coming at last to the Cwen or White Sea, had arrived at the Dwina, and among the Beormas who resided on its banks. But what must have been even the largest ships known in the north of Europe, when we read of Edgar's fleets, which amounted to three thousand six hundred ships, and even to four thousand, according to Brompton! These larger ships were navigated by rowers, and dexterity and perseverance in rowing were viewed among the nations of the north in so advantageous a light, that King Harold Hardrade, and Earl Rognwald, Lord of the Orkneys, prided themselves greatly on their superior skill in handling an oar. It was also considered by them as peculiarly praise-worthy to understand the structure of a ship, and the best method of constructing it, so as to be firm and strong, and at the same time a quick sailer.

Note 3, p. 17.

ABRAHAM ORTELIO was a native of Antwerp, then under the dominion of Philip the Second, King

of Spain, to whom he was chief geographer. He was contemporary and intimate with the celebrated CAMDEN, who appears to have undertaken his "Britannia" at the earnest solicitation of Ortelio, from the following passage in his preface to the edition of that work, published in 1607, about twenty years after the first edition: "Eximius veteris geographiæ restaurator ABRAHAMUS ORTELIUS ante annum tricesimum mecum pluribus egit ut Britanniam nostram antiquam illam illustrarem: hoc est, ut Britanniæ suam antiquatatem, et suæ antiquitati Britanniam restituerem, ut vetustis novitatem, obscuris lucem, dubiis fidem adderem; et ut veritatem in rebus nostris, quam vel scriptorum securitas, vel vulgi credulitas proscripserant, quoad fieri posset, post liminio revocarem. Opus sane arduum, &c." Ortelio published, in the year 1570, a work in Latin, under the title of "Orbis Terræ Theatrum," which he dedicated to Philip II.; a Spanish translation, with considerable additions and improvements by the same author, appeared about the year 1588, a second edition in 1602, and a third in 1612, in one large and thick folio volume, containing 128 whole sheet maps. In this work the author speaks in the highest terms of Camden's Britannia, which he ranks far above all other productions of the same kind: "sobre todos, al qual despues de averlo leydo, parascera le averlo visto con los oyos." His description of England and Ireland is there said to be "ad D. Guliel. Camdeni Britanniam accommodata."

In his "Typus Orbis Terrarum," or Map of the World, dated in the year 1587, the regions round the North Pole are described as separated from the

old and new continents, between the seventieth and eightieth degrees of north latitude, by a narrow sea, which runs east and west from the Atlantic into the Pacific Ocean. In the eastern entrance into the western arm is an island called *Groetland*, having to the east and south-east another much larger, called *Groenlandt*. This last, in another map, is laid down as containing a monastery of Saint Thomas, a town named Alba, and several rivers and capes round the whole island with distinct names. To the south-west of Greenland is *Estotilant:* further down is *Terra de Baccalaos*, divided into three islands; the first having to the north-east *Cape-Blanco*, to the south-east, the *Isle of Saint Julien*, and to the north *Belle-Isle*, in the mouth of an arm of the sea which separates it from *Terra Corterialis:* the second and largest division, separated from the first by a strait which seems to correspond with the Bay of Exploits and the Bay of Islands, has to the east the *Isle des Oiseaux*, or Birds'-Island, now Fogo, and contains *Cape-Bonavista*, near which is a small island, called *Baccalaos*, at the entrance of a strait which corresponds with the Bays of Trinity and Placentia, and which runs from north to south, leaving to the east the third and smallest division, terminated to the south-east by Cape de Razo, now Cape-Race.

Note 4, p. 19.

Newfoundland was for a long time thought to be the most eastern part of the new continent to which Cabot

had given generally the name of the New-found-land, a denomination by which that island is now known by the Germans, namely, New-funden-land; by the Italians, Terra Novella; by the Spaniards, Tierra Nueva; and by the French, Terre Neuve. From a similar mistake the isle of *Cape* Breton derives its name. Thus also the opinion of Columbus, that the countries which he had discovered in his first voyage, were a part of those vast regions in Asia comprehended under the general appellation of India, is the origin of the name of the "West Indies." Ferdinand and Isabella, in a ratification of their former agreement granted to Columbus upon his return, designated the new countries by the name of "Indies;" and ever since, the Kings of Spain, among their other titles, have had that of Kings of "both Indies;" the council, whose peculiar department is the government of Spanish America, has always been called the "Council of the Indies," whilst all the nations of Europe have invariably given the name of "Indians" to the native inhabitants of North and South America.

Note 5, p. 20.

That a considerable change in the climate of Greenland actually took place towards the beginning of the fifteenth century is admitted by Doctor Morse, in his American Gazetteer, by Doctor Forster, in his History of Voyages and Discoveries in the North, by Doctor Robertson, and by all our best modern geographers.

They all agree in the following account of the first settlement made in Greenland by Europeans, and the subsequent interruption in the communication between that colony and Europe, viz. that, in the year 982, a company of Icelanders, headed by one Ericke Raude, having been by accident driven on the coast of Greenland, Ericke, on his return, represented the country in such a favourable light, that some families followed him thither, where they soon became a thriving colony, giving their new habitation the name of Graenland or Greenland, on account of its verdant appearance. The celebrated Olaf, the first Norwegian chief who embraced the Christian faith, soon after sent thither a missionary, and this settlement continued to increase and to flourish under his protection, so that, in the course of a hundred years, the country was provided with several towns, churches, and convents, together with a bishop under the jurisdiction of the Archbishop of Drontheim. A considerable commerce was carried on between that colony and Norway, and a regular intercourse maintained between the two countries, until the year 1406, the date of the appointment of the last of seventeen bishops of Greenland who have left their names on record in regular succession. At this time the gradual increase of the Arctic ice surrounded at last those coasts with a frozen ocean, and all communication with Europe was completely cut off. In the year 1721, Egede, a Norwegian clergyman, deeply impressed with the thought of the melancholy situation of this colony, if it should still exist, resolved to visit that country. Having reached the western shore, he traced several ruins of the ancient churches, the only remains of

Christianity which he could find there, preached the gospel to the natives, and continued among them until the year 1735: his example was followed by other missionaries, and by the Moravians who began a settlement there thirty years after his return to Europe.

It is an acknowledged fact that considerable variations have taken place at different periods in the Arctic ice, whether they are to be attributed to earthquakes, storms, uncommon swells, or other violent motions of the surrounding seas, or to the continual accumulations of ice, by which the equilibrium being at last destroyed, an effect is, from time to time, produced similar to the phenomena so common and so destructive in the Alpine mountains, known by the name of *avalanches*, which frequently bury whole villages under their stupendous masses. It is remarkable, that all accounts of a great change in the Arctic ice make mention of a great swell of the sea. These swells which, during the most profound calm, impress on the waves a motion frequently equal in violence and power to the agitation produced by the most formidable storms, are particularly calculated to assist in producing such changes, from the powerful and long continued force with which they act on the under surface of the ice, and with which they separate and remove its disjoined parts,

In the year 1662,* the adventurous Baffin was able to navigate the sea that now bears his name; but it has since been frequently found that this sea was filled with numerous islands of ice, some of which were a hundred leagues in circumference, and between four

* See p. 330, et seq. Frobisher, Davis, and Hudson.

and five hundred feet high. The Registers of the Royal Society in London, for the year 1666, make mention of a Hollander who had been but half a degree from the Pole, where he saw neither land nor ice, but all water. Captain Middleton, in the year 1746, observed a similar variation in the Arctic ice, and stated it as his opinion, that every sixth or seventh year the masses detached and carried down by the ocean are infinitely more considerable than in the intervening years, and the diminution of ice in those parts proportionably greater. This periodical return would seem to point to a cause similar to that which produces the *avalanches* on the Alps. In the year 1751, Captain Mac Callam, of Campbell-Town, in Pennsylvania, reached as high a latitude as eighty-three degrees and a half. M. Laing, in his voyage to Spitzbergen, in the year 1806, states, that on the 28th of May he found himself by observation in eighty-one degrees fifty minutes of north latitude, the sea-shore being almost clear of ice, with a great swell; the weather was serene; and, had their object been the making discoveries, there was not apparently any thing to prevent them from going a great way farther to the north. But in his second voyage in 1807, he could not penetrate higher than seventy-eight degrees thirty minutes north; a ridge of ice totally prevented their farther progress. In the year 1817, the eastern coast of Greenland which, though visible at a distance, had hitherto been found bordered by a high and impenetrable barrier of ice, was visited by a ship of Bremen and several fishing-boats from Iceland. At the same time the Norwegian vessels found beyond the eightieth de-

gree an open sea where, till then, nothing could be seen but enormous frozen masses heaped up in mountains upon mountains. A much larger quantity of ice was dismissed that year from the northern sea than had been noticed in any former year, and some navigators could penetrate without obstruction as far as the eighty-third degree. Hence it was supposed that a material alteration was about to take place in the climate of the northern regions of America, so as to restore Greenland and Newfoundland to the temperature which they enjoyed previous to the fifteenth century. The uncommon number and size of the detached masses of ice which had recently found their way into the Atlantic Ocean, even so far south as within ten degrees of the equator, had likewise encouraged a hope that the sea would be found more navigable in the highest northern latitudes than it had been before.

There is a striking correspondence between some of the most conspicuous eras in the History of Greenland and of Newfoundland, and the account given in Pffeffer's History of Climates, respecting the character of the seasons at the same times; which also seems to warrant the conclusion that our winters are more severe in proportion to the increased accumulation of ice in those regions, and that a material change there produces a proportionable alteration in the state of our climate. From the year 860 to the year 1260, including a space of *four hundred years*, there were, according to that writer, only *thirteen* winters of unusual severity; and *not one* from the year 1468 to the year 1554, a period remarkable for the discovery of the New World, and the voyages of the

Cabots and others to North America. But in the intermediate space, from the year 1260 to the year 1468, including about *two hundred* years, there are not less than *sixteen* winters of that description on record, namely, those of the years 1261, 1281, 1292, 1305, 1316, 1323, 1339, 1344, 1392, 1408, 1423, 1432, 1433, 1434, 1460, and 1468.

The winter of the year 1408 in particular, is described as one of the coldest ever remembered. Not only the Danube was frozen over, but also the sea between Gothland and Oeland, and between Norway and Denmark, so that wolves, driven from the forests, went over the ice into Jutland; in France, the vineyards and orchards were completely destroyed. In the winter of the year 1423, both the North Sea and the Baltic were frozen; travellers passed on the ice from Lubeck to Dantzic; while, in France, the destruction occasioned by the intensity of the frost was such that men and cattle perished from want of food.

Note 6, p. 91.

King Charles's commission for the well governing of his subjects inhabiting Newfoundland, or trafficking in bays, creeks, or fresh rivers there.

" Charles, by the Grace of God, King of England, Scotland, France, and Ireland, Defender of the Faith, and so forth, to all to whom these presents shall come, greeting.

" Whereas, the region or country, called Newfoundland, hath been acquired to the dominion of our

progenitors, which we hold, and our people have many years resorted to those parts, where, and on the coasts adjoining, they employed themselves in fishing, whereby a great number of our people have been set on work, and the navigation and mariners of our realm have been much increased; and our subjects resorting thither, one by the other, and the natives of those parts, were orderly and gently entreated, until of late some of our subjects of the realm of England planting themselves in that country, and there residing and inhabiting, have imagined that for wrongs or injuries done there, either on the shore or in the sea adjoining, they cannot be here impeached; and the rather for that we, or our progenitors, have not hitherto given laws to the inhabitants there, and, by that example, our subjects resorting thither injure one another and use all manner of excess, to the great hindrance of the voyage and common damage of this realm: for preventing such inconveniences hereafter, we do hereby declare in what manner our people in Newfoundland and upon the seas adjoining, and the bays, creeks, and fresh rivers there, shall be guided and governed; and do make and ordain the laws following in the things after specified, commanding that the same be obeyed and put in execution.

"1st. If any man on the land there shall kill another, or if any shall secretly or forcibly steal the goods of any other in the value of forty shillings, he shall be forthwith apprehended and arrested, detained, and brought prisoner into England, and the crime committed by him shall be made known to the Earl Marshal of England for the time being, to whom the delinquent

shall be delivered as prisoner; and the said Earl-Marshal shall take cognizance of the cause; and if he shall find by the testimony of two witnesses or more that the party had there killed a man, (not being at that time first assaulted by the party slain, or that the killing were by misadventure,) or that he had stolen such goods, the delinquent shall suffer death, and all the company shall endeavour to apprehend such malefactor.

"2d. That no ballast, prestones, or any thing else hurtful to the harbours, be thrown out to the prejudice of the said harbours; but that it be carried on shore, and laid where it may not do annoyance.

"3d. That no person whatever, either fisherman or inhabitant, do destroy, deface, or any way work any spoil or detriment to any stage, cook-room, flakes, spikes, nails, or any thing else that belongeth to the stages whatsoever, either at the end of the voyage, when he hath done and is to depart the country, or to any such stages as he shall fall withal at his coming into the country; but that he or they content themselves with such stage or stages only as shall be needful for them; and that, for the repairing of such stages as he or they take, they shall fetch timber out of the woods, and not do it with the ruining or tearing of other stages.

"4th. That, *according to the ancient custom*, every ship, or fisher that first entereth a harbour in behalf of the ship, be *Admiral* of the said harbour, wherein, for the time being, he shall receive only so much beech and flakes, or both, as is needful for the number of boats that he shall use, with an overplus only for one

boat more than he needeth, as a privilege for his first coming;—and that every ship coming after content himself with what he shall have necessary use for, without keeping or detaining any more to the prejudice of others next coming;—and that any that are possessed of several places in several harbours shall be bound to resolve upon which of them they choose, and to send advice to such after-comers in those places, as expect their resolution, and that within eight and forty hours, if the weather so serve, in order that the said after-comers may likewise choose their places, and so none receive prejudice by others' delay.

"5th. That no person cut out, deface, or any way alter or change the marks of any boats or train-fats, whereby to defraud the right owners; and that no person convert to his own use the said boats or train-fats so belonging to others, without their consents; nor remove, nor take them from the places where they be left by the owners, except *in case of necessity*; and then to give notice thereof to the Admiral and others, whereby the right owners may know what is become of them.

"6th. That no person do diminish, take away, purloin, or steal any fish, or train, or salt, which is put in casks, train-fats, or cook-room, or other house, in any of the harbours or fishing places of the country, or any other provision belonging to the fishing trade or to the ships.

"7th. That no person set fire in any of the woods of the country, or work any detriment or destruction to the same, by *rinding of the trees*, either for the sealing of ships' holds or for rooms on shore, or for any

other uses, except for the covering of the roofs for cook-rooms to dress their meat in, and these rooms not to extend above sixteen feet in length at the most.

"8th. That no man cast anchor or aught else hurtful, which may breed annoyance, or hinder the haling of seines for bait in places accustomed thereunto.

"9th. That no person rob the nets of others out of any drift, boat, or drover for bait, by night, nor take away any bait out of their fishing-boats by their ships' sides, nor rob or steal any of their nets, or any part thereof.

"10th. That no person do set up any tavern for selling of wine, beer, or strong waters, cyder, or tobacco, to entertain the fishermen; because it is found that by such means they are debauched, neglecting their labours, and poor ill-governed men not only spend most part of their *shares* before they come home, upon which the life and maintenance of their wives and children depend, but are likewise hurtful in divers other ways, as, by neglecting and making themselves unfit for their labour, by purloining and stealing from their owners, and by making unlawful shifts to supply their disorders, which disorders they frequently follow since these occasions have presented themselves.

"Lastly. That, upon the *Sundays* the company assemble in meet places, and have divine service to be said by some of the masters of the ships, or some others; which prayers shall be such as are in the Book of Common Prayer.

"And because that speedy punishment may be inflicted upon the offenders against these laws and con-

stitutions, we do ordain that every of the mayors of Southampton, Weymouth, and Melcombe-Regis, Lynn, Plymouth, Dartmouth, East-Low, Foye, and Barnstable, for the time being, may take cognizance of all complaints made against any offender against any of these ordinances *upon the land*, and, by oath of witnesses, examine the truth thereof, award amends to the parties grieved, and punish the delinquents by fine and imprisonment, or either of them, or of their goods found in the parts of Newfoundland, or on the sea, cause satisfaction thereof to be made, by warrants under their hands and seals. And the Vice-Admirals in our counties of Southampton, Dorset, Devon, and Cornwall, upon complaint made of any of the premises committed upon the *sea*, shall speedily and effectually proceed against the offenders.

"Also, we will and ordain, that these laws and ordinances shall stand in force and be put in due execution until we shall otherwise provide and ordain; and we do require the Admirals in every harbour in this next season ensuing, calling together such as shall be in that harbour, publicly to proclaim these presents, and that they also proclaim the same on shore.

"In witness whereof, we have caused these our letters to be made patent.

"Witness ourself at Westminster, the 10th day of February, in the ninth year of our reign.

"God save the King.

"WILLYS."

Note 7, p. 95.

Ordinance of Louis XIV. concerning the marine, given at Fontainbleau, in the month of August, 1681.

The compilers of this ordinance appear to have carefully consulted the naval laws of the ancient *Rhodians,* which, having been adopted by the Romans, were afterwards called the *Roman* law;—those of *Oleron,* instituted by Richard I. on his return from the Holy Land, in the end of the eleventh century, and extracted with considerable improvements from the Rhodian laws;—those of *Wisby,* a city in Gothland, in the Baltic, once eminent for its navigation and commerce, and by which all maritime controversies in the northern seas were decided;—the laws of the *Hanse-towns,* established in the year 1614;—the preceding regulations of Charles I. relating to the Newfoundland trade and fisheries;—and the Navigation-Act, passed in the 12th year of Charles II. soon after his restoration in 1660.*

"After the several ordinances," it is said in the preamble, "which we have made for regulating by good laws the administration of justice and of our finances, and after the glorious peace with which it has pleased God to crown our late victories, we thought that the only thing yet wanting to complete the happiness of our subjects was to procure them plenty by the ease and increase of trade, which is the principal

* Vide a General Treatise of the Dominion and Laws of the Sea, by Alexander Justice, 1 vol. 4to. London, 1705.

source of the prosperity of nations. And the commerce of the sea being the most considerable, we have taken care to enrich the coasts of our dominions with a good number of harbours and ships, for the security and convenience of sea-faring people who now come from all places to the ports of our kingdom. But because it is no less necessary to strengthen trade by good laws, than to secure its freedom and conveniency by the goodness of our ports and the force of our arms, and as our former ordinances, and those of our predecessors, as well as the Roman law, contain very few regulations for the decision of differences arising between merchants and sea-faring people, we have judged it right, in order that nothing should be wanting for the good of trade and navigation, to settle the laws of maritime contracts which have hitherto been uncertain, to regulate the jurisdiction of the officers of the Admiralty and the principal duties of sea-faring people, and to establish a good police in the ports, coasts, and roads, that are within the extent of our dominions."

The ordinance consists of five books or sections, occupying one hundred and fourteen quarto pages; the first treats of the officers of the Admiralty, of interpreters, ship-brokers, the appointment and duties of teachers of hydrography in the most considerable ports of France, of French consuls in foreign countries, of passports and declarations, of the proceedings of the Courts of Admiralty, the seizure and sale of ships, and the distribution of the proceeds.

The second section treats of the qualifications and duties of masters of vessels, who must have served at sea during five years, and after a public examination

have been adjudged duly qualified by two ancient masters, in the presence of the officers of the Admiralty. It requires every vessel, even fishing-ships, on long voyages, to have one or two surgeons, and directs the frequent examination of the surgeon's chest; it provides for every offence likely to be committed by mariners, and insists upon certificates of discharge previous to seamen leaving their masters: it particularizes the cases in which ship-owners are responsible, regulates the transfer of property in ships, their admeasurement and registry, making all vessels liable for the debts of the seller until one voyage has been made in the name and at the risk of the buyer, except where such vessels have been sold by adjudication, and declares void the sale of a ship during the voyage as to the creditors of the seller. A remarkable feature in this section is a clause which expressly declares, in opposition to the opinion hitherto prevalent in France, that *all* French subjects, "of what quality or condition soever, might cause ships to be built or bought, and carry on a trade at sea by themselves, or by their agents, without its being considered as *derogatory* to their quality, *provided they sold nothing by retail.*"

The third section treats of marine contracts in all their several branches, that of insurance extending to seventy-four distinct articles, also averages, jettisons, contributions, prizes, letters of marque, and wills of seamen.

The fourth regulates the police of the ports, coasts, roads, and banks of the sea. It also contains forty-five regulations relating to wrecks and ships run aground, and five respecting the cutting of sea-ware

or kelp, which was valuable as manure in several parts of France.

The fifth treats of *fishing in the sea*, which is there declared to be free and common to all French subjects, provided that those who shall go to fish for cod, herring, or mackarel, on the coasts of Iceland, England, Scotland, and America, upon the banks of Newfoundland, and generally in any other sea whatsoever, take a licence from the Admiral for every voyage. Numerous regulations follow concerning the different sorts of nets, and the time and mode of fishing. The sixth title or division of this book, which treats especially of the *Newfoundland fishery*, contains, among others, the following regulations:—

1. The first who shall arrive at, or send his boat to the harbour, called *Le Havre du Petit Maître*, shall have the choice, and take the space of ground necessary for his fishery; he shall then put up at the place called the Scaffold of the Grapple, a bill signed by him, stating the day of his arrival, and the harbour which he has chosen.

2. All other masters on their arrival shall go or send to the same place, and write down on the same bill the day of their arrival, the number of their men, and the name of the harbour and places which they have chosen, in proportion to the burden of their ships and the number of their mariners.

3. The captain that arrives first shall cause the bill or placard to be guarded by one of his men, who shall remain upon the place till all the masters shall have made their declarations, which afterwards shall be put into his hands.

4. No masters or mariners may settle in any harbour or station, till they have made their declarations in the form aforesaid; nor shall they disturb any other master in the choice that he may have made, under the penalty of 500 livres.

By the 5th and 6th articles, the same regulations are extended to vessels going to fish for cod in the Bay of *Canada,* (Saint Lawrence,) the first of which that shall arrive being appointed master of the harbour, and authorized to occupy the place which he shall choose, and to mark out successively to those that come after him their respective allotments upon the shore; and the *Governor* or Captain of the coast, between Cape des Roziers and Cape of Good Hope, and all other persons, are expressly forbidden, under pain of disobedience, to disturb the master first arriving in the bay in the choice and distribution of the places.

By the five following articles, persons throwing ballast into any harbour, or appropriating to their own use the salt and oil which may have been left there; or breaking, carrying away, or burning the scaffolds, flakes, or stages, either upon the coasts of Newfoundland or in the Bay of Canada, are made liable to a penalty of 500 livres. No person may, without a special power from the owners, take possession of the boats laid up on the sands or beeches, or left in the little river in the Bay of Cod, on pain of paying the value of the boats and a fine of 50 livres: but they may, when not used or otherwise disposed of by the owners, make use of them for their fishing, with the permission of the Captain first arrived, on condition of paying the hire to the owners on their return, and also of laying

them up again in safety after the fishing is over, of which they shall procure a certificate duly attested.

By the 12th, the Captain first arrived is enjoined to draw up a correct account of all offences committed against this ordinance, which must be signed by himself and by the principal officers of his own ship; and at his return, he must deliver the same to the Judges of the Admiralty, who shall take cognizance of it.

By the 13th, all masters of vessels fishing for cod upon the banks of Newfoundland or in the Bay of Canada, are forbidden to set sail during the night, on pain of paying the damages which they may occasion, and a fine of 50 livres; and likewise of corporal punishment, if any life be lost thereby.

By the regulations contained in the 8th division or title of the 5th book or section, the Lieutenants of the Admiralty are directed to take a list of all fishermen of the age of eighteen years and upwards, living within their respective jurisdictions, specifying their name, age, and the particular branch of the fishery to which they belong. The two oldest master-fishermen of each parish are, on the first day of Lent in every year, to send to the Admiralty-Office a list of all persons in their parish of the same description that go to fish in the sea; and the master of every fishing-boat, on taking out his licence, must give into the Admiralty-Office a list of his crew, with their names, ages, and places of habitation. In every port or parish, containing more than seven master-fishermen, the fishermen are, once a year, to elect one of their number to be their *Juré*, or master of the company, who must take an oath before the officers of the Admiralty, and make

a declaration to them of all offences committed against this ordinance, on pain of an arbitrary fine. Where there are less than eight masters, the fishermen of the neighbouring parishes are to form themselves into a company for the aforesaid purposes.

This is followed by a *reglement*, given at Strasburgh, the 24th day of October, in the same year, concerning the building and buying of ships or other vessels for the sea; whether in France or in foreign countries. By the 8th section, the owners of all such ships or vessels are to give in to the Admiralty-Office a list of their ships' companies, specifying the names, ages, and places of residence and of birth of the officers and mariners; and no passport is to be granted unless the captain, master, and patron, together with the other officers, and *two-thirds* of the crew, be Frenchmen actually residing within the kingdom. The penalty in either case is confiscation of ship and cargo, and a fine of 1000 livres; and, for the second offence, corporal punishment.

Note 8, p. 359.

Although Sir Walter Raleigh was, as we have seen, (supra, p. 60,) unexpectedly prevented from accompanying Sir Humphrey Gilbert to Newfoundland, he eventually proved one of the greatest benefactors to that island, by the introduction of the potato on his return from America in the following year, viz. 1584.

It is said that this root was first planted on Sir Walter's estate in Youghall, which he afterwards sold to the Earl of Cork: but that, not having given sufficient directions to the person who had the management of the land, the latter mistook the apples for the fruit and most valuable part of the plant, and, on tasting them, rejected them as a pernicious exotic. Some time afterwards, turning up the earth, he found the roots spread to a great distance and in considerable quantities; and from this stock the whole kingdom was soon after supplied with this valuable plant, which gradually spread throughout all Europe and North America. Its name *potato*, in Irish *paitey*, and in French *patate*, is said to be derived from the original language of Mexico, of which it is supposed to be a native. In Newfoundland, it is an essential article of subsistence: it generally supplies the place of bread at dinner, and frequently also at breakfast and supper: the people there can more easily reconcile themselves to a scarcity, or even a total privation of bread, than they could of potatoes.

Note 9, p. 448.

The Indians of North America who have been visited by Europeans, have uniformly manifested a considerable anxiety to procure pieces of iron, nails, and the like, and a surprising aptitude to appropriate them to their purposes, instead of bones or flint. The arrows of the Newfoundland Indians are pointed with

iron, which they can easily obtain from the stages and other fishing conveniences on those parts of the coast which are frequented by Europeans only during the fishing season.

THE END.

MARCHANT, PRINTER,
INGRAM-COURT, FENCHURCH-STREET.