Google

This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

+ *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.

+ *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.

+ *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.

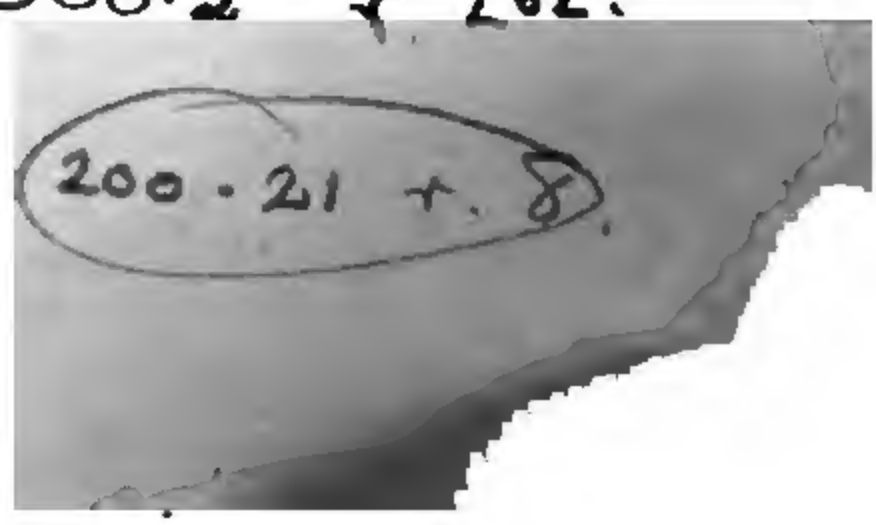
+ *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

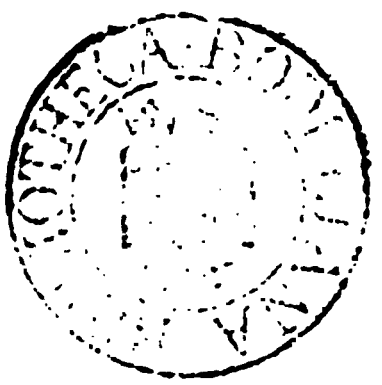
About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at http://books.google.com/

S° BS. T. 245.

300.2 r 262.





MDCCCXXIII.

THE

GEOGRAPHY, HISTORY, AND STATISTICS,

OF

A M E R I C A,

AND THE

WEST INDIES;

EXHIBITING

A CORRECT ACCOUNT OF THE DISCOVERY, SETTLEMENT, AND PROGRESS OF THE VARIOUS KINGDOMS, STATES, AND PROVINCES OF THE WESTERN HEMISPHERE,

TO THE YEAR 1822.

BY H. C. CAREY AND J. LEA,
PHILADELPHIA.

WITH ADDITIONS RELATIVE TO THE

NEW STATES OF SOUTH AMERICA,

&c., &c.

ILLUSTRATED BY MAPS, CHARTS, AND PLATES.

LONDON:
PRINTED FOR SHERWOOD, JONES, AND Co.,
PATERNOSTER-ROW.

MDCCCXXIII.

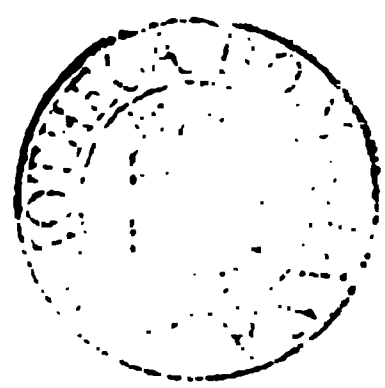
ROYAL GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY

8° Bs. T. 245.

300.2 r 262.

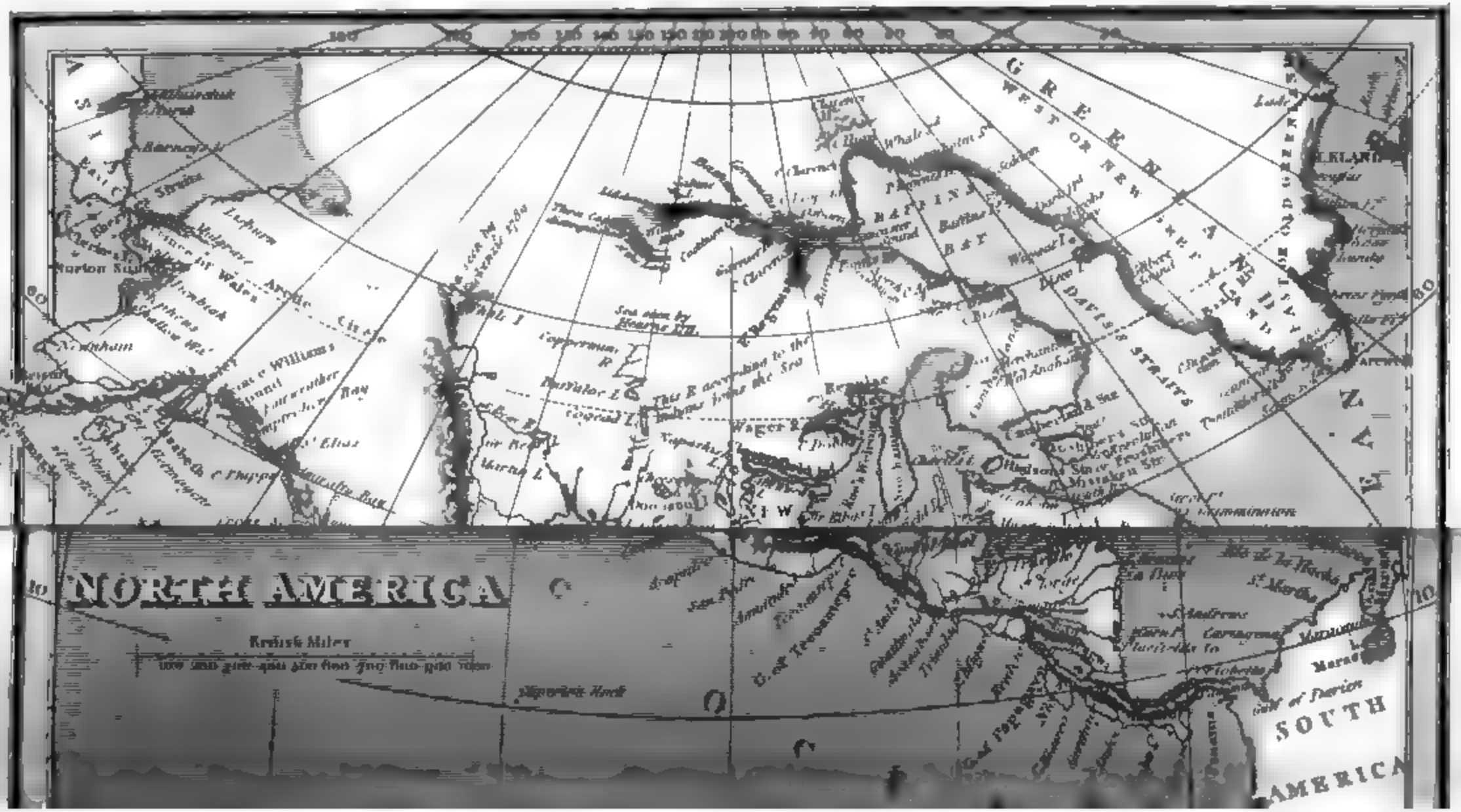
200 . 21 + . 8 .

F



List of Maps and Plates.

	Page
The United States. *To face the Title Page.*	
General Map of North America. . . .	1
Pantography of American History . . .	19
British Possessions in America	*ib.*
View of Quebec	21
View of the Havannah	35
Chart of the Constitutions of the United States . .	64
Chronological Chart of the United States . .	*ib.*
View of Philadelphia	165
Mexico	332
West Indies	343
Cuba, St. Domingo, Jamaica, and Bahama Islands .	350
South America	403
Colombia	412
Brazil	423
View of Rio Janeiro	426
United Provinces, and Chili	434
View of Monte Video, and Plan of the Harbour .	438


NORTH AMERICA
GREENLAND
NEW
ZEALAND
SOUTH
AMERICA
Barrow's Str.
Baffins Bay
Davis's Str.
Hudsons Str.
Melville I.
Cumberland Sea
Repulse Bay
Wager R.
Wager L.
Melville Pen.
Boothia
Regent Inlet
Prince Regent Inlet
Fury and Hecla Str.
Lancaster Sound
Barrow Str.
Prince of Wales Str.
Cape Dalhousie
Cape Walstenholme
Cape Farewell
Cape Desolation
Cape Walsingham
Cape Chidley
Cape Charles
Cape Bathurst
Cape Parry
Cape Barrow
Cape Lisburne
Cape Prince of Wales
Cape Denbigh
Cape Mulgrave
Cape Flora
Cape Northumberland
Cape Williams
Cape Elizabeth
Cape Thompson
Cape Krusenstern
Cape Espenberg
Cape Rodney
Cape Turnagain
Cape Horn
Cape Pillar
Cape Palliser
Cape Farewell
Cape Egmont
Cape Maria Van Diemen
Cape Reinga
Cape Brett
Cape Campbell
Cape Saunders
Cape Foulwind
Cape Farewell
Cape Stephens
Cape Wrath
Cape Clear
Cape Finisterre
Cape Ortegal
Cape Roca
Cape St Vincent
Cape Trafalgar
Cape Spartel
Cape Bon
Cape Matapan
Cape Malea
Cape Colonna
Cape Passaro
Cape Spada
Cape Corso
Cape Blanco
Cape Verd
Cape Palmas
Cape Lopez
Cape Negro
Cape Agulhas
Cape Town
Cape Good Hope
Cape Leeuwin
Cape Naturaliste
Cape Arid
Cape Pasley
Cape Howe
Cape Otway
Cape Wilson
Cape Schanck
Cape Portland
Cape Grim
Cape Sorell
Cape Pillar
Cape Frederick Henry
Cape Raoul
Cape Pembroke
Cape Hicks
Cape Grafton
Cape Upstart
Cape Cleveland
Cape Sandwich
Cape Tribulation
Cape Melville
Cape Flattery
Cape Direction
Cape Van Diemen
Cape Wessel
Cape Croker
Cape Hurd
Cape Chatham
Cape Gloucester
Cape Bougainville
Cape Leveque
Cape Londonderry
Cape Cuvier
Cape Murat
Cape Naturaliste
Cape Leeuwin
Cape Arid
Cape Pasley
Cape Howe
Cape Otway
Cape Wilson
Cape Schanck
Cape Portland
Cape Grim
Cape Sorell
Cape Pillar
Cape Frederick Henry
Cape Raoul
Cape Pembroke
Cape Hicks
Cape Grafton
Cape Upstart
Cape Cleveland
Cape Sandwich
Cape Tribulation
Cape Melville
Cape Flattery
Cape Direction
Cape Van Diemen
Cape Wessel
Cape Croker
Cape Hurd
Cape Chatham
Cape Gloucester
Cape Bougainville
Cape Leveque
Cape Londonderry
Cape Cuvier
Cape Murat
Cape Naturaliste
Cape Leeuwin
Cape Arid
Cape Pasley
Cape Howe
Cape Otway
Cape Wilson
Cape Schanck
Cape Portland
Cape Grim
Cape Sorell
Cape Pillar
Cape Frederick Henry
Cape Raoul
Cape Pembroke
Cape Hicks
Cape Grafton
Cape Upstart
Cape Cleveland
Cape Sandwich
Cape Tribulation
Cape Melville
Cape Flattery
Cape Direction
Cape Van Diemen
Cape Wessel
Cape Croker
Cape Hurd
Cape Chatham
Cape Gloucester
Cape Bougainville
Cape Leveque
Cape Londonderry
Cape Cuvier
Cape Murat

THE

GEOGRAPHY, HISTORY, AND STATISTICS,

OF

AMERICA.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

AMERICA is situated between 80° N. and 55° 30′ S. lat. and 35° and 168° W. long. from Greenwich. Its extreme length from north to south is above 9000 miles, and its average breadth from 14 to 1500 miles. In its broadest part it is nearly 3700. Its area is upwards of 12,000,000 square miles.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

A country so vast, stretching over more than 130 degrees of latitude, and 133 of longitude, must have a remarkably diversified appearance. In the north there are vast lakes and bays, and to the west very lofty mountains. In the middle the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans nearly meet, where the Isthmus of Darien connects the two great continents of North and South America; and between lies the interesting cluster of islands called the West Indies. South America has features remarkably bold and grand, prominent parts being vast rivers, and chains of stupendous mountains.

A continent so vast must naturally be various in its soil and productions. The soil in the northern and southern extremities of America is barren; but in the centre are found the richest metals, minerals, medicinal plants, fruits, and trees, many of which are no where else known.

Diamonds, emeralds, amethysts, and other precious stones are produced in considerable abundance; besides other articles of inferior price, but of more utility, as cochineal, indigo, saltpetre, logwood, mahogany, and other valuable woods; pimento, rice, ginger, cotton, medicinal balsams, Peruvian bark, mechoacan, sassafras, tamarinds, cassia, tobacco, amber, furs, and many important roots and plants.

The quadruped tribes of animals thrive remarkably well in America. The birds are numerous, and many of them beautiful in their plumage. The seas, lakes, and rivers are remarkable for the variety and number of their fish. The insects and reptiles are abundant.

Mountains.

In North America, the highest mountains are the Rocky Mountains to the north-west; the Californian Mountains, and the vast mountains on the table land of Mexico, in the west; and in the eastern part the great chains of Alleghany Mountains, which extend from Canada to Alabama. But in South America the Andes are most stupendous in extent and height. They run from the Isthmus of Darien the whole length of the continent to the Straits of Magellan, a course of not less than 4800 miles; and though in part within the torrid zone, many of them are constantly covered with snow. Chimborazo, the highest of this chain, is 21,440 feet above the level of the sea; of which about 2400 from the summit are always enveloped in snow.

Gulfs.

St. Lawrence, between Newfoundland and Canada; California, on the west of New Spain, and the Gulf of Mexico, between Florida, Yucatan, and the island of Cuba: the latter is remarkable as the origin of the *Gulf Stream*, a vast current occasioned by the trade winds, which has its outlet between Florida and Cuba; running in a north-east direction, along the coast of North America to Newfoundland and turning to the south-east, it gradually loses its force towards the coast of Africa.

Straits.

In the north, Davis's and Hudson's; in the west, Bhering's, between America and Asia; and in the south, those of Magellan and Le Maire.

Bays.

Baffin's, Hudson's, and St. Lawrence, in the British possessions; Delaware and Chesapeake, in the United States; Campeachy and Honduras, in the Gulf of Mexico; All Saints', on the coast of Brazil; Assumption, St. Matthias, and St. George's, on that of Patagonia; Panama Bay, south of the Isthmus of Darien; Tecoantepec, south of the province of Mexico; and Nootka Sound, on the north-west coast.

Lakes.

The most remarkable lakes in North America are, Slave Lake, and the Athapescon, in the Indian territory; Winnipeg, in New South Wales; Mistassins and Atchikonnipi, in New Britain; Lakes Superior, Huron, Erie, Ontario, between Canada and the United States; Lakes Michigan and Champlain, in the latter. The lakes of South America are numerous, but not remarkable.

Rivers.

Both North and South America are better watered than any other part of the world. In the former, the lakes of Canada give rise to the St. Lawrence, which runs a north-east course, receiving in its progress many tributary streams, and discharging itself in the gulf of the same name. The Mississippi rises near the lakes, and, including its windings, runs a course of upwards of 3000 miles, before it reaches the Gulf of Mexico, and receives in its way the waters of the Missouri, the Ohio, the Arkansas, Red River, and many others. The eastern side of North America, besides the noble rivers Hudson, Delaware, Susquehannah, and Potomac, is furnished with several others of considerable depth, length, and commodious navigation. The Columbia River, on the west, is a powerful stream; and also the Rio del Norte, which falls into the Gulf of Mexico.

In South America, the river Amazons is the largest in the world: it rises in Peru, not far from the ocean, and running eastward, falls into the Atlantic, after a course of more than 2500 miles, receiving in its progress the tribute of a vast number of large and navigable rivers. The Rio de la Plata rises in the heart of the country, and having its strength augmented by an accession of many vast streams, discharges itself into the South Atlantic Ocean with such force as to freshen its waters to the extent of many leagues from land. Besides these, there are many other large rivers in South America, of which the Orinoco is the chief.

Climate.

The climate has a variety equal to the extent of the country; which, stretching over both the northern and southern hemispheres, includes all the five zones, and consequently experiences all the vicissitudes of climate that exist in the world. Generally, the climate on the western coast, in the middle and higher latitudes, is much more temperate than that of the eastern; but the air, with some exceptions, is salubrious over the whole.

POLITICAL DIVISIONS OF AMERICA.

NORTH AMERICA.

UNITED STATES.—A Federal Republic, consisting of twenty-four States, with their dependencies or territories, extends from 24° 20′ to 49° N. lat., and from 67° to 125° 25′ W. long. from London. The mean length is 2500 miles, mean breadth 830, forming an area of 2,076,410 square miles. Population, by the census in 1820, 9,638,226. Capital, Washington.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS.—Divided into Upper and Lower Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward's Island, and Newfoundland. Mean length of the whole, 3000 miles; breadth, 350; area, 1,050,000. Population about 700,000. Capital, Quebec.

MEXICO AND INTERNAL PROVINCES—Extend between 15° 53′ and 38° 10′ N. lat., and between 86° 42′ and 113° 40′ W. long. The mean length is about 1200 miles, the mean breadth about 800. Population, 5,840,000. Capital, Mexico.

SOUTH AMERICA.

COLOMBIA.—A Republic, formed by the union of New Granada and Venezuela, extends between 5° 50′ S., and 12° 30′ N., lat.: and 58° and 82° W. long. Its mean length is about 1500 miles, and its breadth 900. Population about 3,000,000. Capital, Santa Fe de Bogota.

PERU.—Extends between 3° 25′ and 21° 30′ S. lat., and 65° and 81° 10′ W. long. Mean length, 750 miles, breadth about 660. Population 1,076,997. Capital, Lima.

UNITED PROVINCES.—Extend between 12° and 40° 45′ S. lat., and between 51° 10′ and 69° 45′ W. long. Mean length 1500 miles, breadth 900. Population in 1817, 1,500,000, exclusive of Indians. Capital, Buenos Ayres.

CHILI.—Extends from 24° 20′ to 43° 50′ S. lat., 68° 50′ to 74° 20′ W. long. Length, 1350 miles, average breadth 180. Population 1,226,000. Capital, Santiago.

BRAZIL.—Extends from 4° N. to 34° S. lat., and from 35° to 72° W. long. Mean length about 1800 miles; breadth, 1700. Population about 2,400,000. Capital, Rio de Janeiro.

GUIANA.—Divided into English, French, and Dutch, contains about 90,000 square miles, and 250,000 inhabitants. Chief towns—English, Demerara; French, Cayenne; Dutch, Stabrock.

WEST INDIES.

BRITISH.—The Bahamas, Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Kitts, Montserrat, Antigua, Dominica, Nevis, Anguilla, Barbuda, Granada, St. Vincent's, Tobago, Trinidad, St. Lucia.

FRENCH.—Guadaloupe, Martinico, Deseada, Marigalante.

SPANISH.—Cuba, Porto Rico, Margarita.

DUTCH.—St. Eustatia, Curaçoa, Bonaire.

SWEDISH.—St. Bartholomew's.

DANISH.—St. Thomas, St. Croix.

SPANISH AND FREE NEGROES.—Hispaniola, or St. Domingo.

DISCOVERY AND SETTLEMENT OF AMERICA BY EUROPEANS.

It has been believed by many, that America was not unknown to the ancients; and from certain passages in the works of some of the writers of antiquity, as well as from the coincidences in the languages and customs of some of the nations of the old and new continent, plausible reasons have been advanced in favour of the theory. Whatever knowledge, however, the inhabitants of Europe possessed of America, no traces of it existed at the period of the revival of letters; and it was generally supposed that the Canaries, or Fortunate Islands, formed the western boundary of their world. For the correction of this error, and the discovery of a new continent, mankind are indebted to the genius and enterprise of Christoval Colon, a native of Genoa, better known to us by the name of Christopher Columbus. From a long and close application to the study of geography, this great man had obtained a knowledge of the true figure of the earth far beyond what was common to the age in which he lived. Another continent, he conceived, necessarily existed to complete the balance of the terraqueous globe; but he erroneously conceived it to be connected with that of India. This error arose from the construction of the maps of that period, which represented the oriental countries of Asia as stretching vastly farther to the east than actual observation has proved them to extend. Having fully satisfied himself with the theoretical truth of his system, his adventurous spirit made him eager to verify it by experiment. For this purpose, he applied to the senate of Genoa, developing his views, and representing the advantages which would accrue to the republic from the possession of a new route to the great source of opulence. The Genoese, however, treated the idea as absurd and chimerical, and rejected the proposal with contempt. Although disappointed in this first attempt, Columbus was not discouraged. Through his brother Bartholomew, he applied to Henry VII. of England; but the cautious prudence of that monarch deprived him of the honour of patronising a man whose friendship would have immortalized him. The next attempt of Columbus was at the Portuguese court, which had in that age greatly distinguished itself by favouring the spirit of discovery along the African coast. Here he met with an additional mortification, from an attempt to anticipate him in the enterprise, which, however, proved abortive at an early period. As a last resource he now presented his scheme to the Court of Spain. After eight years of anxious solicitation and contemptuous neglect, he at last obtained a gleam of royal favour on his bold and original project. The interest of Queen Isabella procured him three small vessels, with which he set sail from the port of Palos, in Andalusia, on the 3d of August 1492. He steered directly for the Canaries, whence, after having refitted, as well as he could, his crazy and ill-

appointed flotilla, he again sailed on the 6th of September, keeping a due western course over an unknown ocean. Several days passed without a sight of land, and the anxieties of the sailors arising from this circumstance were heightened by the variation of the compass, then first perceived. An open mutiny took place, which required all the courage and address of the great navigator to quell it. They pursued their course; but when thirty days had elapsed without any indication of an approach to land, both officers and men joined in a second revolt. Columbus was forced partially to give way to their remonstrances. He consented to return, if, after proceeding three days longer, nothing appeared to confirm his expectations. With these assurances they again proceeded, and about midnight, on the 11th of October, Columbus, who was standing on the forecastle, discovered a light a-head. Morning displayed the joyful sight of land; and the sailors were now as ardent in their expressions of repentance and admiration, as they had before been insolent and ungovernable. The island of St. Salvador one of the Bahamas, was the first part of America trodden by the feet of Europeans. From the rude poverty of the inhabitants, Columbus soon perceived that he was still at a distance from the shores of India. The island of Cuba was next discovered, and although no gold was found, the natives pointed to the east, where, in an island which they called Hayti, this metal was said to abound. Columbus proceeded in that direction, and discovered Hayti on the 6th of December. Here he found some specimens of gold, and leaving some men to form a colony, he returned to Spain. On his arrival he immediately proceeded to court, where he was received with admiration and respect. The glory and benefit which promised to result from the discovery, rendered the government eager to forward his design. A fleet of seventeen sail was prepared; and Columbus, who was now appointed viceroy of all the countries he should discover, departed on his second voyage, accompanied by many persons of rank and distinction. During the progress of this voyage, he discovered the islands of Dominica, Marigalante, Guadaloupe, Montserrat, Antigua, Porto Rico, and Jamaica. The success of this great man did not fail to excite envy and intrigue against him at the court of Spain. An officer was sent to act as a spy over his actions: and Columbus soon found it necessary to return to Europe, for the purpose of defeating the machinations of his enemies. After great difficulty he obtained leave to set out on a third expedition, in 1498. Sailing south from Spain as far as the equator, he then directed his course to the west, and steered with the trade winds across the Atlantic. At the end of seventeen days the island of Trinidad was discovered; and, on the first of August, he reached the mouth of the great river Orinoko. From the magnitude of this stream, he concluded that he had discovered the continent, and the continuance of land to the west confirmed the belief. He then coasted along westward

to Cape Vela, from which he crossed over to Hispaniola. The new glory which Columbus had now acquired excited fresh intrigues against him, which prevailed so far that he was superseded in his government, and sent home in irons. He justified himself, however, to the court; and in 1502 was allowed to depart on a fourth voyage, in the course of which he discovered the harbour of Porto Bello, and a considerable part of the continent. He then returned to Europe, and died at Valladolid, in the year 1506, in the 59th year of his age.

A spirit of discovery was now universally excited. In 1499, Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine, a man of science and genius, sailed with a small squadron to the new world, but made very little addition to the former discoveries. He however published, on his return, the first description of the new countries that had appeared, and the injustice of mankind has given his name to the whole continent, an honour to which Columbus was so much more justly entitled. In the year 1500, the coast of Brazil was accidentally discovered by Alvarez de Cabral, a Portuguese admiral, in consequence of having been driven too far to the west on a voyage round the Cape of Good Hope. The idea entertained originally by Columbus, that America was part of the continent of Asia, was generally received until 1513, when the Pacific Ocean being descried from the mountains of the isthmus of Darien, this chimera began to vanish. Several years passed away from the first discovery by Columbus, before any considerable settlement was made by the Spaniards upon the continent. In 1519, Fernando Cortez was sent by the governor of Cuba, with a force of six hundred men, upon an expedition to the main, where he first heard of the existence of the rich and powerful empire of Mexico. Stimulated by the love of power and gain, he resolved to make the conquest of the country. Landing at Vera Cruz, he proceeded rapidly to Mexico, where he was received with great friendship by the unsuspecting monarch. The perfidious adventurer, however, caused him to be seized in his palace. The Mexicans flew to arms, and, after a sanguinary struggle, expelled the Spaniards from the capital. Montezuma was killed in the conflict. Cortez, undismayed by this reverse, obtained a reinforcement of troops from an army which had been sent against him by the governor of Cuba, and routed the undisciplined bands opposed to him in a number of engagements. Mexico, with the Golden Castille, Darien, and other provinces, fell into his hands: and thus was a mighty empire, whose monarch was said to command thirty vassal princes, each of whom could appear at the head of 100,000 warriors, overthrown by a handful of daring and unprincipled adventurers. While Cortez was employed in the reduction of Mexico, the Spaniards were informed of a still more rich and extensive empire in the south. This was Peru, at that time governed by the Inca Ataliba, the conquest of which was under-

taken by three low and unprincipled adventurers, Francis Pizarro, Diego Almagro, and Ferdinand Lucques. The first of these was entirely illiterate, but received the chief command, and, in 1531, landed with about 300 men. A large army of Peruvians, headed by their monarch, was immediately attacked and vanquished. Ataliba was taken prisoner, aud after an immense ransom had been extorted from his subjects, cruelly put to death. A vast booty fell into the hands of the victors, who soon engaged in disputes among themselves. Almagro was beheaded, and Pizarro assassinated. For seventeen years Peru was the theatre of the most licentious rapine and cruelty, till, in 1548, the celebrated Las Casas was sent from Spain as viceroy. Under his administration the country obtained repose as a province of Spain, while almost all those who had been engaged in the conquest perished by a violent or miserable death.

The progress of discovery was much slower in the northern than in the southern section of the continent. So early, however, as 1497, Giovanni Gaboto, a Venetian, whose name has been anglicized into John Cabot, having received a commission from Henry VII. of England, to trace out a shorter route to India, discovered the island of Newfoundland, and the coast of North America, between that island and Florida. Upwards of eighty years elapsed before any steps were taken by the English to avail themselves of these important discoveries; and while crowds flocked to partake of the plunder of Mexico and Peru, this great continent, destined to be the seat of a powerful empire, remained comparatively neglected. About the beginning of the sixteenth century, De Real, a Portuguese captain, occupied in a similar search for a north-west passage, fell in with the coast of Labrador. While the spirit of discovery appeared to be excited in almost all the maritime nations of Europe, France, under an enterprising prince, had unaccountably taken no part in the new scene of adventure. In 1524, however, Francis I. commissioned Verazano, a Venetian, to sail on a voyage of discovery. This navigator explored a great part of the coast of North America. In 1534, the same monarch sent out a fleet from St. Maloes, for the purpose of establishing a settlement in North America. Cartier, the commander of this expedition, discovered, on St. Laurence's day, the great gulf and river which now bear the name of that saint. In the year following, he sailed 300 miles up that stream, built a fort, and gave the country the name of New France, an appellation which was afterwards changed to Canada.

Florida, although lying close to Cuba, one of the earliest discoveries of Columbus, was not known until 1515; and several years elapsed from that time before it became the seat of any European settlement. In 1539, Soto, a Spaniard, set out from Cuba to undertake the conquest of Florida. He advanced into the continent as far as the thirty-fifth degree of north latitude,

but died on the banks of the Mississippi while prosecuting his expedition. About the year 1562, the French attempted to form a settlement in Florida, but were shortly afterwards expelled by the Spaniards. The English during this period had made various discoveries on the North American coast, but had not attempted to penetrate into the interior, or to establish a settlement. Sir Humphrey Gilbert was the first who obtained a patent for the purpose of colonization. In 1583, he took possession of the harbour of St. John, but was unfortunately lost on his homeward voyage.

During a great part of the sixteenth century, the minds of the people of Europe were filled with a belief of the existence of a north-west passage to India. This supposition gave rise to many expeditions, in which great suffering was experienced, and little benefit accrued to the cause of science. In one of these voyages, performed in the year 1576, Frobisher discovered the straits which bear his name. Drake, about the same period, roused the spirit of adventure in England by circumnavigating the globe. In 1583, Raleigh obtained from Queen Elizabeth a patent for forming a settlement in the Southern part of North America, which, in honour of her, he called Virginia. The situation, however, was ill-chosen, and the event proved unsuccessful. In 1603, at the death of Elizabeth, there was not one Englishman settled on this great continent, which now, after a lapse of little more than two centuries, contains many millions of British lineage. The first permanent settlement established by the English was at Jamestown, in Virginia, in 1687, and from that period colonization rapidly advanced. At various periods several discoveries were made towards the north, especially by Davis, who, in 1575, explored the straits which bear his name; and in 1607 and 1610 by Hudson, who advanced along the coast of Greenland to 80° or 82° of north latitude, and discovered the narrow passage and inland sea called Hudson's Bay and Straits. In the eighteenth century, Cook, Vancouver, and the Russian navigators, seem to have completed the discovery of the Western coast of America. Hearne and Mackenzie have also penetrated by land to the latitude of 70°, and explored a part of what they regarded as the coast of the Arctic Ocean; while, more recently, Lewis and Clarke have visited the sources of the Missouri and Columbia, and laid open a vast extent of country to be settled by future republics of Americans.

CELEBRATED PERSONS

CONNECTED WITH THE

HISTORY OF AMERICA.

*** The first date after the name shows the year of birth, the second that of death. In cases where the period of the birth and death of the individual is not known, the name is placed under that century in which he principally flourished. The letter (I.) following a name denotes an Indian.

Sixteenth Century.

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS, 1447—1506. Amerigo Vespucci, 1451—1514. John Cabot. Sebastian Cabot, 1477—1557. Vincente Yanez Pinzon. Bartholomew Columbus, d. 1514. Ferdinand Columbus. Vasco Nunez de Balboa, d. 1517. Pedro Alvarez Cabral. Thomas de Souza. Fernando Cortez, 1485—1547. Montezuma, (I.) d. 1520. Guatemozin, (I.) d. 1521. Juan Ponce de Leon, Ferdinand de Soto, Vasquez de Ayllon, Juan de Grijalva, Quetlavaca, d. 1520. Jago Valesquez. Diego de Mendoza, Alonzo de Ojeda, Arias de Avila. Gonzalo Ximenes de Quesada. Huana Capac, (I.) d. 1529. Atahualpa, (I.) d. 1532. Huazcar Pedro de Alvarado. Francisco Pizarro, d. 1541. Gonzalo Pizarro. Ferdinand Pizarro. Vaca de Castro. Pedro de Vengara. Diego de Losada. Bartholomew de las Casas, 1474—1536. Gonzalo Ocampo. Manco Capac, (I.) d. 1553. Sayri Tupac (I.) Tupac Amaru (I.) Diego Almagro, 1463—1538. Hernando de Suque. Vicente Valverde. Juan Dias de Salis. Pedro de Mendoza. Juan de Ayalos. Alvar Nunez de Vaca. Diego de Roxas. Sir Thomas Cavendish, d. 1592. Sir Francis Drake, 1545—1596. Jaques Cartier. Luis de Camoens, 1517—1759. Ferdinand de Soto, d. 1542.

Seventeenth Century.

Nathaniel Bacon, d. 1677. William Berkely, d. 1677. Simon Bradstreet, 1603—1697. Lord Baltimore, 1582—1632. Leonard Calvert. De Champlain, d. 1635. John Cotton, 1585—1652. John Davenport, 1597—1670. Theophilus Eaton, 1590—1657. John Eliot, 1604—1690. William Goffe, d. 1679. Massasoit (I.) d. 1655. John Mason, 1600—1673. Thomas Mayhew, 1588—1681. Henry Morgan. Hugh Peters, 1599—1660. Philip of Pokanohet (I.) d. 1676. Sir William Phipps, 1651—1695. Pocahontas (I.) 1595—1618. Powhatan (I.) d. 1618. Thomas Prince, 1600—1673. Sir Walter Raleigh, 1552—1618. John Robinson, 1575—1625. Antonio de Solis, 1610—1686. John Smith, 1579—1631. Miles Standish, 1584—1656. Peter Stuyvesant —— Sir Henry Vane, 1612—1662.

Nathaniel Ward, 1570—1653. Roger Williams, 1599—1683. Edward Winslow, 1597—1655. John Winthrop, 1587—1649. John Winthrop, 2d, 1605—1676.

Eighteenth Century.

William Alexander (Lord Stirling), 1726—1783. Ethan Allen, d. 1789. Francis Allison, 1705—1777. Lord Amherst, 1717—1797. John Andre, 1741—1780. Edmund Andros, d. 1714. Lord Anson, d. 1762. John Barnard, 1681—1770. John Bartram, 1701—1777. Jonathan Belcher, 1681—1757. Jeremy Belknap, 1744—1798. Earl of Bellamont, d. 1701. Joseph Bellamy, 1719—1790. Anthony Benezet, 1713—1784. Berkley, (Bishop of Cloyne), 1684—1753. Lord Botetourt, 1717—1770. Francis Bernard, d. 1779. Theodoric Bland, 1741—1790. James Bowdoin, 1727—1790. Zabdiel Boylston, 1680—1776. Edward Braddock, d. 1755. William Bradford, 1658—1752. George Bryan, d. 1791. William Bull, 1709—1791. John Burgoyne, d. 1792. William Burnett, 1688—1729. Jonathan Carver, 1732—1780. Richard Caswell, d. 1789. Charlevoix, 1614—1761. Cadwallader Colden, 1688—1776. M. de la Condamine, 1701—1774. Lord Cornbury. Thomas Cushing, 1725—1788. Silas Deane, d. 1789. Jonathan Dickinson, 1687—1747. William Henry Drayton, 1742—1779. William Dummer, 1679—1761. Earl of Dunmore. Jonathan Edwards, 1703—1758. Samuel Finley, 1715—1766. Benjamin Franklin, 1706—1790.—Thomas Gage, d. 1787. Thomas Godfrey, d. 1749. Thomas Godfrey, 1736—1763. Nathaniel Greene, 1740—1786. John Hancock, 1737—1793. Patrick Henry, 1736—1799. Francis Hopkinson, 1738—1791. Lord Howe, d. 1758. Sir William Howe, Samuel Huntington, d. 1796. Thomas Hutchison, 1711—1780. Samuel Johnson, 1696—1772. Sir William Johnson, 1714—1784. John Paul Jones, 1747—1793. Baron de Kalb, 1732—1780. Sir William Keith, 1670—1749. Henry Laurens, 1722—1792. John Laurens, 1756—1782. John Ledyard, d. 1789. Charles Lee, d. 1782. Richard Henry Lee, 1732—1794. Arthur Lee, d. 1792. William Livingston, 1723—1790. James Logan, 1674—1751. Logan, (I.) Francis Marion, d. 1797. George Mason, 1725—1792. Increase Mather, 1639—1723. Cotton Mather, 1663—1728. Hugh Mercer, d. 1777. Marquis de Montcalm, 1712—1759. Richard Montgomery, 1737—1775. John Morgan, 1735—1789. James Oglethorpe, 1688—1785. James Otis, 1725—1783. William Penn, 1644—1718. Sir William Pepperell, 1696—1759. Count Pulaski, d. 1779. Israel Putnam, 1718—1790. Josiah Quincy, 1744—1775. Peyton Randolph, 1723—1775. Sebastian Rallé, 1647—1724. Joseph Reed, 1742—1785. David Rittenhouse, 1732—1796. Cæsar Rodney. Roger Sherman, 1721—1793. William Shirley, d. 1771. Baron de Steuben,

1733—1794. John Sullivan, 1741—1795. Increase Sumner, 1746—1799. Jonathan Trumbull, 1710—1785. Joseph Warren, 1740—1775. GEORGE WASHINGTON, 1732—1799. Anthony Wayne, 1745—1796. Benning Wentworth, 1695—1770. George Whitefield, 1714—1770. Otho Williams, 1749—1794. John Witherspoon, 1722—1794. Oliver Wolcott, 1727—1797. James Wolfe, 1727—1759.

Nineteenth Century.

Samuel Adams, 1722—1803. Fisher Ames, 1758—1808. Benedict Arnold, d. 1801. Joel Barlow, 1755—1812. John Barry, d. 1803. James A. Bayard, 1767—1815. Daniel Boone, 1730—1820. Brandt, (I.) d. 1807. Charles Brockden Brown, 1771—1810. William Burrows, 1785—1813. Thomas Butler, 1754—1805. Sir Guy Carleton, 1724—1808. William Clifton, 1772—1799. George Clinton, 1738—1812. Lord Cornwallis, 1738—1805. Elias Dayton, 1736—1807. Timothy Dwight, 1752—1817. Stephen Decatur, 1779—1820. John Dickinson, 1725—1808. William Eaton, 1764—1811. William Ellery, 1728—1820. Oliver Ellsworth, 1745—1807. Robert Fulton, 1765—1815. Horatio Gates, 1728—1806. Elbridge Gerry, d. 1812. William Gordon, 1729—1807. Alexander Hamilton, 1757—1804. Samuel Hopkins, 1721—1803. Thomas M'Kean, 1733—1817. Henry Muhlenberg, 1753—1815. Henry Knox, 1750—1806. James Lawrence, 1781—1813. Henry Lee, d. 1819. Meriwether Lewis, 1774—1809. John Blair Linn, 1777—1804. Thomas Mifflin, 1744—1800. George Richards Minot, 1758—1802. Robert Morris, 1734—1806. Gouverneur Morris, d. 1816. William Moultrie, 1729—1805. William Vans Murray, 1761—1803. William Patterson, d. 1806. Theophilus Parsons, 1750—1813. Oliver Hazard Perry, 1785—1819. Robert Treat Paine, 1731—1814. Thomas Paine, 1737—1809. Edmund Pendleton, 1720—1803. Thomas Pownall, 1721—1805. Edward Preble, 1761—1807. Zebulon Montgomery Pike, 1779—1813. Joseph Priestly, 1733—1804. David Ramsay, 1749—1815. Benjamin Rush, 1745—1813. Philip Schuyler, 1731—1804. Arthur St. Clair, 1734—1818. Samuel Stanhope Smith, 1750—1819. Artemas Ward, 1727—1800. George Wythe, 1726—1806. Benjamin West, 1738—1820.

NORTH AMERICA.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

NORTH AMERICA is situated between 7° 20′ and 74° N. lat. and 52° and 168° W. long. from Greenwich. It is bounded on the east by the Atlantic Ocean; on the south it is connected with South America by the Isthmus of Darien; on the west it is bounded by the Pacific Ocean. The limits towards the north have never been completely ascertained. In the years 1819 and 1820, however, Captain Parry, in sailing from Baffin's Bay between the parallels of 74° and 75° N. lat., succeeded in reaching the meridian 114° W. long. It is highly probable, therefore, that Greenland forms no part of the continent.

Mountains.

There are two great ranges of mountains in North America, the *western* and the *eastern*. The western is by far the longest, and is considered as a continuation of the Andes. It extends from South America, over the Isthmus of Darien, and after passing through the whole length of Spanish America, proceeds in a direction west of North, till it terminates, as is supposed, on the Frozen Ocean, in about lat. 70. In its general course it is parallel with the coast of the Pacific Ocean, from which it is several hundred miles distant. The part of this range, which is in Mexico, is called the Cordillera of Mexico, and the part north of Mexico the Rocky Mountains. The highest summits are near the parallel of 19° N. lat., where the Popocatepetl, a volcano, rises to the height of 17,720 feet above the level of the ocean.

The eastern range is wholly within the United States, and in its general course runs parallel with the Atlantic coast. It is made up of several distinct and parallel ridges, the principal of which, called the Alleghany range, divides the waters which flow west into the Mississippi from those which flow east into the Atlantic Ocean. The highest summits of the Alleghany Mountains do not exceed 4000 feet.

The highest peak or single summit in North America is Mount St. Elias, which rises near the coast of the Pacific Ocean, under the parallel of 60° N. lat., to the height of 18,090 feet above the level of the sea.

Bays or Gulfs and Straits.

The largest bays are *Baffin's* Bay, *Hudson's* Bay, the Gulf of *St. Lawrence*, the Gulf of *Mexico*, and the Gulf of *California*. *Bhering's* Straits separate North America from Asia. The narrow body of water leading from Baffin's Bay into the Polar S[illegible]

is called by Capt. Parry *Barrow's* Strait. The wide channel between Baffin's Bay and the Atlantic Ocean, is called *Davis's* Strait. *Hudson's* Strait connects Hudson's Bay with the Atlantic Ocean. The Straits of *Belleisle* separate Newfoundland from Labrador. The Gut of *Canso* is a narrow strait separating the island of Cape Breton from Nova Scotia.

Lakes.

There are more large lakes in North America than in any other part of the world. The following are the seven largest: 1. *Slave Lake*, 270 miles long and 1000 in circumference, lying between lat. 60° 38′ and 63° N., and between long. 110° and 119° W. It receives the waters of Athapescow Lake from the south through Slave River, and discharges itself at its N. W. extremity through M'Kenzie's River into the Frozen Ocean. 2. *Lake Winnipeg*, 240 miles long and from 50 to 100 broad. Its centre is near lat. 52° N. long. 97° 30′ W. Its waters are discharged through Nelson's River into Hudson's Bay. 3. *Lake Superior*. 4. *Lake Huron*. 5. *Lake Michigan*. 6. *Lake Erie*. 7. *Lake Ontario*. The last five are very near each other, and form a regular chain, by means of short rivers or straits, which run from one to the other. Lake *Superior*, *Huron*, *Erie*, and *Ontario* are on the boundary between the United States and the British possessions. Lake Michigan lies wholly within the United States.

Rivers.

Mackenzie's River discharges itself into the Frozen Ocean in lat. 70° N. This river is the outlet of Slave Lake. Its most distant sources are, Unjigah or Peace River, and Athapescow or Elk River; both of which rise in the Rocky Mountains. The Athapescow, after passing through Athapescow Lake, unites with the Unjigah, and forms Slave River, which falls into Slave Lake. From Slave Lake to the ocean, the river is called Mackenzie's River. Its whole length is about 2000 miles.

Nelson's River rises in the Rocky Mountains under the name of the Saskatchawine, and flowing east, falls into Lake Winnipeg, from which it issues under the name of Nelson's River, and discharges itself into Hudson's Bay, after a course of 1200 miles.

The *St. Lawrence* is the outlet of the five great lakes, Superior, Huron, Michigan, Erie, and Ontario. It issues from the N. E. extremity of Lake Ontario, and running from S. W. to N. E., falls into the Gulf of St. Lawrence in lat. 50° N.

The *Mississippi* rises west of Lake Superior, and discharges itself into the Gulf of Mexico, after a southerly course of nearly 1700 miles. Its branches are very numerous, and drain the whole space included between the Rocky Mountains on the west and the Alleghany range on the east. The principal tributaries from the west, are the *St. Peter's*, the River *des Moines*, the *Missouri*,

the *Arkansas*, and the *Red River*. The principal tributaries from the east, are the *Ouisconsin*, the *Illinois*, and the *Ohio*. The branches of several of these tributaries are mighty rivers, particularly those of the Missouri. The Missouri itself is a larger and longer river than the Mississippi; its whole length, from its source in the Rocky Mountains to its confluence with the Mississippi, being nearly 2500 miles, and to the Gulf of Mexico nearly 3500.

The *Rio del Norte* rises in the Rocky Mountains, near lat. 41° N. and falls into the Gulf of Mexico, after a south-easterly course of 2000 miles. It cannot in any part be termed a navigable stream, owing to the sand bars in the flat country, and the mountains in the upper part, by which its course is interrupted.

The *Colorado* rises in the Rocky Mountains near lat. 40° N. and running S. W. falls into the Gulf of California, after a course of 1000 miles.

The *Columbia* rises in the Rocky Mountains near lat. 55° N. and running at first in a southerly, and afterwards in a westerly, direction, falls into the Pacific Ocean in lat. 46° 15′ N. after a course of 1500 miles.

Divisions.

The three great divisions of North America are,

1. The British possessions, in the north;
2. The United States, in the middle; and
3. The Spanish possessions, in the south.

These three include the whole of North America, except the Russian settlements on the north-west coast.

INDIAN COUNTRY.

About three quarters of North America is still in possession of the Indians. If we begin on the coast of the Pacific Ocean in 30° N. lat. and draw a line along that parallel till it strikes the meridian of 94° W. long., and then due N. along that meridian to the parallel of 47° N. lat., and thence due E. along that parallel to the Atlantic Ocean; this line would divide North America into two parts. The whites possess nearly all the continent south and east of this line, and the Indians nearly all north and west of it. In other words, the Indians still own all the northern part of what is termed Spanish America, the western part of the United States, and nearly the whole of British America. Very little is known respecting the country occupied by the Indians, many parts of it never having been explored by a white man. We know, in general, that it is inhabited by savages, who live principally by hunting and fishing, and of course that it is in a state of nature, wild and uncultivated.

HISTORICAL SKETCH OF THE DISCOVERY AND SETTLEMENT OF NORTH AMERICA.

THE honour of having made known to mankind the existence of the great continent of North America was acquired by Sebastian Cabot, a native of Bristol, in England. The fame which Columbus had gained by his discoveries spread through Europe, and inspired many with a similar spirit of enterprise. As early as the year 1495, John Cabot, a Venetian, obtained from Henry VII. of England a commission for himself and his three sons, "to navigate all parts of the ocean, for the purpose of discovering islands, countries, regions, or provinces, either of Gentiles or Infidels, which have been hitherto unknown to all Christian people; with power to set up his standard and to take possession of the same as vassals of the crown of England." Such were the terms of this grant, which rivalled the bulls of the papal see in the extent of the power and authority it professed to confer. In pursuance of this commission, John Cabot sailed from England in 1496, carrying with him his three sons. His voyage was intended for the discovery of a north-west passage to China, but terminated by his falling in with the north side of the coast of Labrador, which he traced northerly as far as the 67th degree of latitude. In the succeeding year he made a second voyage on board a ship furnished by Henry VII., and accompanied by four small barks provided by the merchants of Bristol. Of this voyage, Sebastian, his second son, had the direction. On the 24th of June, 1497, he discovered a large island, to which he gave the name of Prima Vista, or The First Seen. It is now called Newfoundland. He then changed his course, steering to the north; but meeting with land in that direction, and finding no appearance of a passage to India, which he was in search of, he tacked about and stood to the south, following the coast as far as Florida. In 1502 he again visited Newfoundland, and on his return carried several of the natives of the island home to England, where they were exhibited to Henry VII.

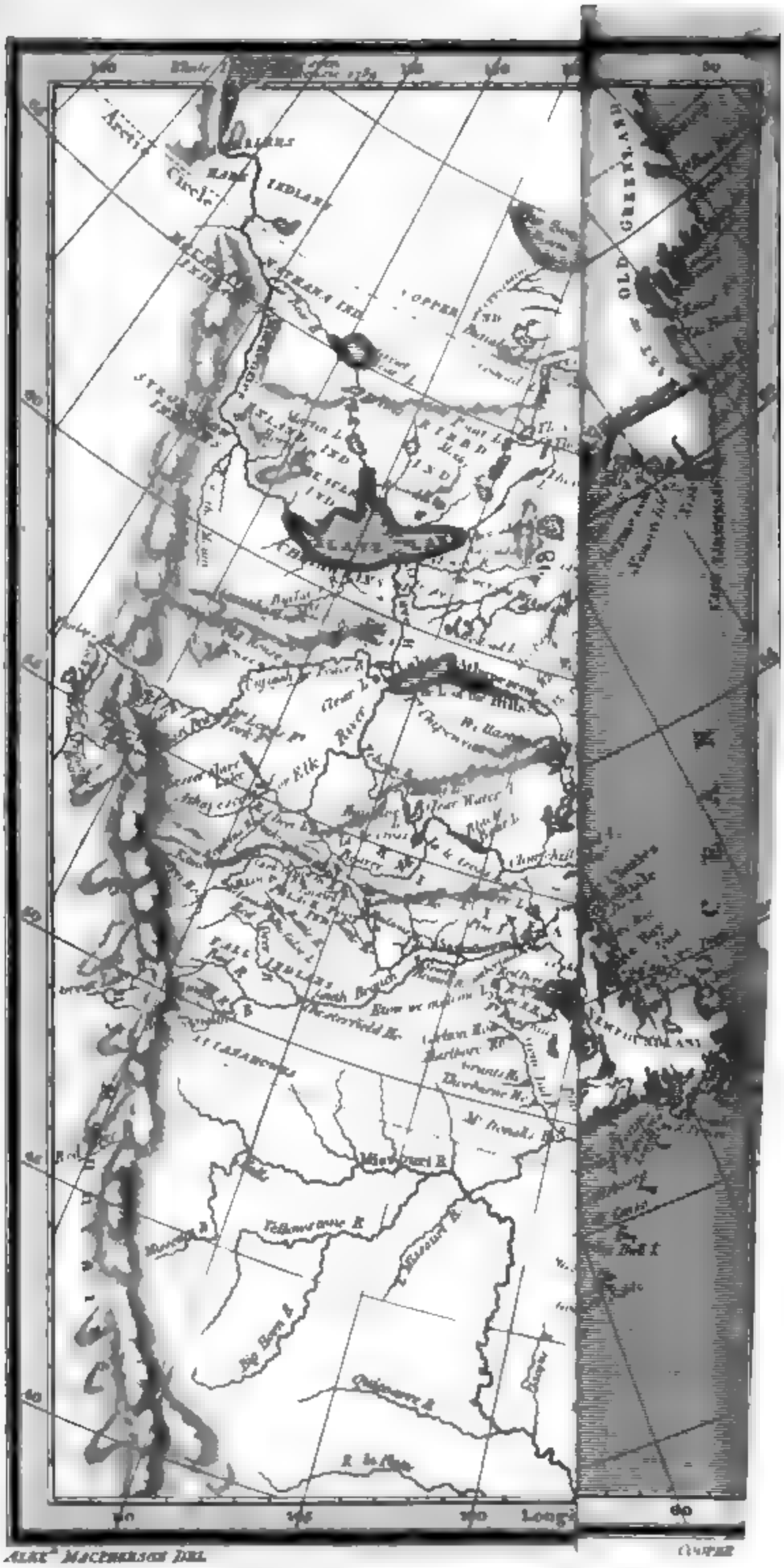
Eleven years afterwards, Ponce de Leon, a Spaniard, sailed from Puerto Rico northwardly, and discovered the continent in 30° 8′ north latitude. He landed on *Easter* day, whence, according to some, Florida derives its name; but, according to others, it was so called from the verdure and bloom with which at that season the country was covered. For many years the name was applied to the whole of the continent.

Several years now elapsed without any further progress being made in the discovery of North America. The French, who had not displayed the same spirit of enterprise as their neighbours, entered the lists in 1524. In that year Francis I. sent John Verrazani, a Florentine, to America, for the purpose of making discoveries. He traversed the coast from lat. 28° to 50° north; but

in a second voyage, some time after, was unfortunately lost. In 1525, Stephen Gomez, the first Spaniard who came upon the North American coast with a view to discovery, sailed from Groyn in Spain to Cuba and Florida, thence northward to Cape Razo, in lat. 46° N. in search of a northern passage to the East Indies. In the spring of 1534, a fleet was fitted out at St. Maloes, in France, by direction of Francis I., with the design of attempting discoveries. The command of the fleet was given to James Cartier. He arrived at Newfoundland in May of this year. Thence he sailed northwardly, and on the day of the festival of St. Lawrence he found himself in the midst of a broad gulf, which he named the St. Lawrence. He gave the same name to the river which empties into it. In this voyage he sailed as far north as lat. 51°, expecting in vain to find a passage to China. In the following year he sailed up the river St. Lawrence as far as the Falls. He called the country New France; built a fort, in which he spent the winter, and returned the following spring to France. On the 12th of May, 1539, Ferdinand de Soto, with 900 men, besides sailors, sailed from Cuba, having for his object the conquest of Florida. On the 30th of May he arrived at Spirito Santo, from whence he travelled in various directions, and, after exploring a vast extent of country, and even reaching, as is supposed by some, the river Susquehannah, died on the bank of the Mississippi, aged 42 years. Cartier, in the next year, made a third voyage to Canada, built a fort, and began a settlement in 1541 or 1542, which he called *Charlebourg*, four leagues above Port St. Croix. He soon afterwards broke up the settlement, and sailed for Newfoundland. In 1542 Francis La Roche was sent to Canada by the French king, with 200 men, women, and children, but returned with his colony the next spring. In 1550 a number of adventurers sailed for Canada, but were not afterwards heard of. No other attempt appears to have been made to settle Canada during this century. In 1562, a French squadron under the command of John Rebalt, arrived on the coast of Florida, and discovered a river, which is supposed to be the St. Mary's. As he coasted northwards, he discovered several other rivers, one of which he called Port Royal.

The attempts to find out a N. E. passage to India having failed, the English sent out, in 1676, Captain Frobisher, to find a N. W. passage. The first land which he made was a cape, which he named Qeeen Elizabeth's Foreland. In coasting northerly, he discovered the straits which bear his name. The two following years he made a second and a third voyage,, which produced no material discovery. In the same year, Sir Francis Drake, being on a cruise against the Spaniards in the Pacific Ocean, landed on the continent of North America, northward of California, took possession of a harbour, and called the surrounding country *New Albion*. Three years afterwards, Sir Humphrey Gilbert obtained

a patent from Queen Elizabeth for lands not yet possessed by an Christian prince, provided he would take possession within six years. In 1583 he sailed to Newfoundland, and took formal possession of the continent of North America, in the name of the crown of England. In pursuing his discoveries, he lost one of his ships on the shoals of Sable, and on his return home a storm overtook him, in which he was unfortunately lost. In 1584, a patent was granted by Elizabeth to Sir Walter Raleigh, by the authority of which, he sent out a colony the next year. They arrived on the coast, and anchored a few leagues west of the Roanoke. Here they landed, and took possession of the country on behalf of Queen Elizabeth, calling it, in honour of her, Virginia. This colony returned to England in 1586, with Sir Francis Drake. Another attempt was made, in the year last mentioned, to establish a colony in Virginia, but with similar ill success. A third attempt made in 1587, also failed; the colonists perished miserably, having either died of famine or been massacred by the Indians. In 1602 Bartholomew Gosnold, with 32 persons, made a voyage to *North Virginia*, as it was then called, and discovered and gave names to Cape Cod, Martha's Vineyard, and Elizabeth Islands. Attempts were made to form a settlement in the vicinity, but without success; and it is believed that, at the beginning of the 17th century there was not one European family settled on all the vast extent of coast from Greenland to Florida. In 1608, Bartholomew Gilbert, in a voyage to South Virginia, in search of the colony which was left there in 1587, landed near Chesapeake Bay, where in a skirmish with the Indians, he was unfortunately slain. In the same year, the king of France granted by patent to M. de Mons all the country from the 40th to the 46th degree of north latitude under the name of *Acadia*. In 1605, George's Islands and Pentecost Harbour were discovered by Captain Weymouth, who soon afterwards entered a large river, now supposed to be the Kennebec or Penobscot. In 1606, James I. divided Virginia into two colonies the northern and southern, which were granted to different companies. The next year, M. de Champlain sailed up the St. Lawrence, and founded Quebec. In 1608, the first permanent settlement was effected in the present state of Virginia. James-town was the first English town in America. Henry Hudson, a native of England, but at the time in the service of the Dutch East India Company, discovered, in 1609, and sailed up, the river which has since borne his name. In 1614, Captain Smith explored the coast of Massachusetts, and thence southerly; and on his return home to London drew a map of the country, which he called New England, a name which has superseded that of North Virginia. In 1616, William Baffin discovered the great northern bay which bears his name. Four years afterwards, the first permanent settlement was effected in New England. In 1627, a colony of Swedes and Fins came over, and made the first setth


Arctic Circle
Mackenzie R.
Peel R.
Liard R.
Athabasca R.
Slave R.
Great Bear L.
Great Slave L.
Athabasca L.
Lake Winnipeg
Lake Winnipegosis
Lake Manitoba
Red River
Assiniboine R.
Saskatchewan R.
Missouri R.
Yellowstone R.
Big Horn R.
Platte R.
Arkansas R.
R. La Platte
Lake of the Woods
Lake Superior
Lake Michigan
Lake Huron
Lake Erie
Lake Ontario
Hudson's Bay
Hudson's Straits
Baffin's Bay
Davis's Straits
Old Greenland
Melville I.
Banks Land
Prince of Wales Land
Boothia Land
Southampton I.
Cumberland I.
Akpatok I.
Resolution I.
Mansfield I.
Nottingham I.
Coats Land
Mill I.
Southern Indians
Esquimaux
Chipewyans
Crees
Assiniboines
Blackfeet
Minetares
Arapahoes
Kiawas
Comanches
Pawnees
Osages
Missouris
Mandans
Sioux
Chippeways
Ottawas
Iroquois
Hurons
Shawanese
Delawares
Cherokees
Creeks
Choctaws
Chickasaws
Natchez
Illinois
Miamis
Kickapoos
Sacs
Foxes
Winnebagoes
Menomonies
Potowatamies
Ioways
Kansas
Omahas
Ricaras
Crows
Flatheads
Nez Percés
Snake Indians
Utahs
Navajos
Moquis
Apaches
Mexicans
Texas
Louisiana
Florida
Georgia
Carolina
Virginia
Kentucky
Tennessee
Ohio
Indiana
Illinois
Missouri
Arkansas
Mississippi
Alabama
Michigan
Wisconsin
Iowa
Minnesota
Kansas
Nebraska
Dakota
Oregon
California
Utah
New Mexico
Indian Territory
Longitude
Alex.r Macpherson Del.

ment on the Delaware river. In the reign of Charles I., in 1633, Lord Baltimore, a Roman Catholic, obtained a grant of land upon Chesapeake Bay, and soon afterwards, with a number of persons of that persuasion, came over and settled it. The next settlements in point of time were those of Connecticut and Rhode Island, which were peopled principally by emigrants from Massachusetts. New Jersey was granted in 1664, by Charles II. to the Duke of York, and made a distinct government. Five years afterwards, the settlement of the Carolinas commenced. In 1682, William Penn, with a colony of Quakers, arrived in Pennsylvania; and in 1732, Georgia was settled by General Oglethorpe. Louisiana was colonized from France about the beginning of the 18th century.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

LOWER CANADA.

Situation, Boundaries, and Divisions.

Lower Canada lies between 45° and 52° N. lat., and between 64° and 82° W. long. It is bounded on the north by the territory of the Hudson's Bay Company, or East Maine; east by the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and part of the Labrador coast; south by New Brunswick and the United States; and west by Upper Canada, from which it is separated principally by the Uttawas river, and a line drawn from the head of the river in lake Temiscaming due north to Hudson's Bay. It is divided into the districts of Montreal, Three Rivers, Quebec, and Gaspe, which were subdivided by a proclamation of the government in 1792, into the following 21 counties, viz., Bedford, Buckingham, Cornwallis, Devon, Dorchester, Effingham, Gaspe, Hampshire, Hertford, Huntingdon, Kent, Leinster, Montreal, St. Maurice, Northumberland, Orleans, Quebec, Richlieu, Surrey, Warwick, and York. The minor divisions are, 1st., the seignories, or the original grants of the French government under the feudal system, which are again partitioned out into parishes. 2dly., The townships, or grants of land made by the English government since the year 1796, in free and common soccage.

Rivers.

The St. Lawrence passes through the whole length of the province in a north-east direction, and discharges itself into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, by a mouth 90 miles wide. It is navigable for ships of the line 400 miles to Quebec, and for ships drawing 14 feet water, to Montreal, 580 miles.

Uttawas River rises in Lake Temiscaming, or Timmiskamain, in lat. 47° 30′ N. long. 80° 40′ west; and, running at first south-east, and then east, falls into the river St. Lawrence just above Montreal, after a course of 500 miles, during nearly the whole of which it forms the boundary between Upper and Lower Canada. The navigation is obstructed by numerous rapids.

The Saguenay is a large river which rises in lake St. John, in 48° 20′ N. lat. and 72° 30′ W. long. and falls into the St. Lawrence, in lat. 48° north.

The St. Maurice falls into the St. Lawrence on the north side, at Trois Rivieres, about half way between Quebec and Montreal.

The Chaudiere falls into the St. Lawrence six miles above Quebec, after a northerly course of 100 miles. It is not navigable, owing to numerous rapids and falls, of which the most remarkable are those four miles from its mouth.

Climate, Soil, and Productions.

The climate is favourable to health in an eminent degree. Heat and cold are indeed felt in their extremes, but they are not oppressive. The cloudless sky and pure dry air of winter make the cold both pleasant and healthful. No general description will convey an adequate idea of the soil of Lower Canada. In the part of the province south of the St. Lawrence, a triangular district, included between the St. Lawrence, the Chaudiere, and the parallel of 45° N. lat. consists of excellent land, laid out in townships, and in many parts settled and cultivated, which bids fair to become the most flourishing part of the province. From the Chaudiere to the sources of the St. John, the land is much broken, and of an indifferent quality. From the sources of the St. John to the gulf of St. Lawrence, the country has been but partially explored, but has every appearance of sterility. On the north side of the St. Lawrence, a ridge of heights commences at the eastern extremity of the province, and runs along the margin of the river, from 64° to 71° W. long.: it then leaves the river, and taking a south-west direction, strikes the Uttawas river, about 38 leagues above its confluence with the St. Lawrence; enclosing between it and the two rivers a level, well-watered, and beautiful country. On the north side of the ridge just described, lies the remaining part of Lower Canada, which has been so little explored that it is only known to be covered with immense forests. The principal productions are wheat and lumber.

Population.

The population of Lower Canada has rapidly increased within a few years. In 1759, when it was conquered from the French, it was estimated at 70,000; in 1775 it had only increased to 90,000; but in 1814, a capitation showed no less than 335,000, of whom 275,000 were descendants from the original French settlers, and the remainder English, Scotch, Irish, Americans, &c.

Chief Towns.

Quebec is situated in lat. 46° 50′ N. and long. 71° 10′ W. on the north-west side of the St. Lawrence, on a promontory formed by that river and the St. Charles. The ridge of land which terminates in this promontory runs from east to west, and separates the rivers St. Lawrence and St. Charles. Its general breadth is from one to two miles. It has Cape Diamond, which rises boldly 345 feet above the level of the water, on the north; and across it, at the north-east or lower end, the town of Quebec is built. The fortifications, extending across the breadth of the Peninsula, shut in the ground on which the city stands, the circuit of which is about 2¾ miles. The town is divided into two parts, the Upper and Lower. The Lower town is situated immediately under Cape Diamond, nearly on a level with the water. The Upper town is on the rock 200 feet above, and the communication with the Lower town is maintained by a winding strait, at the top of which is a fortified gate. In its present state, Quebec may rank as a fortress of the first consequence: the citadel on the highest part of Cape Diamond presents a formidable combination of powerful works, from which a strong wall, supported by batteries in different places, runs to the edge of the precipice, along which it is continued to the gateway leading to the Lower town, which is defended by heavy cannon, and the approach to it up Mountain-street, both enfiladed and flanked by many guns of large caliber; thence a line of defence connects with the grand battery, a work of great strength, armed with a formidable train of 24-pounders, and commanding the basin and passage of the river St. Lawrence, which is here only a mile wide. The basin of Quebec is very spacious, being sufficient to contain 100 sail of the line. The population of the city, in 1815, was estimated at 18,000.

Montreal, the second town of the province in size, but the first in commercial importance, is situated on the south side of the island of Montreal in the river St. Lawrence, which is navigable to this place for vessels drawing 14 feet water. The harbour is not large, but is always secure: the greatest disadvantage is the rapid of St. Mary, about a mile below the town, the current of which is so powerful that without a strong north-east wind, ships cannot stem it, and are sometimes detained even for weeks, about two miles only from the place where they are to deliver their cargoes. The population of the town, in 1820, was estimated at 20,000. *Trois Rivieres*, situated on the north bank of the St. Lawrence, at the mouth of the river St. Maurice, contains 2500 inhabitants.

Commerce.

The principal exports consist of lumber, pot and pearl ashes, peltry, wheat, flour, Indian corn, pulse, salt provisions, fish, and

other articles, which employ generally about 150,000 tons of shipping. In return are imported wines, rum, sugar, molasses, coffee, tobacco, salt, coals, and British manufactures. In 1821, the amount of the imports of Lower Canada was 2,185,196 dollars.

Religion.

The prevailing religion is the Roman Catholic, under the direction of two bishops, nine vicars-general, and about 200 curates and missionaries.

Government.

The government is under the direction of a governor, lieutenant-governor, executive council, and legislative council, who are appointed by the king; and a house of assembly, who are elected by the people. For the defence of both the Canadas, a regular military establishment is maintained by the British government, which was estimated, in 1815, at from 27,000 to 30,000 men.

UPPER CANADA.

Situation, Boundaries, and Divisions.

Upper Canada is situated between 42° and 52° N. lat. and between 73° 30′ W. and indefinite boundaries to the westward. It is bounded north by the territory of the Hudson's Bay company; north-east and east by Lower Canada; south-east and south by the United States; on the west and north-west no limits have been assigned to it.

It is divided into eight districts, viz., the Eastern, Johnstown, Midland, Newcastle, Home, Niagara, London, and Western. These are again subdivided into 23 counties and 159 townships. The townships contain, in all, 9,694,400 acres, of which 3,000,000 are granted in free and common soccage, 2,769,828 are reserved for the crown and clergy, and 3,924,572 still remain to be granted. These townships are laid out along the banks of the St. Lawrence, lake Ontario, lake Erie, and lake St. Clair, and extend back for a distance varying from 40 to 50 miles.

Lakes and Rivers.

Lakes *Ontario*, *Erie*, *St. Clair*, *Huron*, and *Superior*, lie on the southern and western boundaries of the province.

Nepissing lake, 36 miles long and 15 broad, discharges itself into the north side of lake Huron through French river.

Simcoe lake communicates with the eastern part of lake Huron, through Severn river.

The *Shallow* lakes lie to the east of lake Simcoe, and communicate through a short river with Rice lake.

Rice lake discharges its waters through Trent river into the bay of Quinti, which opens into lake Ontario near Kingston.

Grand river is a large stream, which falls into lake Erie, near its eastern extremity.

The *Thames* rises near the sources of Grand river, and flows south-west into lake St. Clair.

Soil and Climate.

The soil throughout is scarcely excelled by any portion of North America. In the rear of the townships are large tracts of land stretching far to the north, covered with immense forests, and little known except to the Indians; but it has been ascertained that they contain much rich soil. The climate is salubrious. The winters are shorter and milder than in Lower Canada, and the spring opens usually from six weeks to two months earlier than at Quebec.

Population.

The population of Upper Canada has increased with great rapidity. In 1783 it did not exceed 10,000 souls, but in 1814 it was 95,000. It is composed principally of emigrants from the United States, and a few English, Irish, and Scotch. The most populous and improved part of the colony is along the banks of the St. Lawrence and the eastern part of lake Ontario.

Chief Towns.

Kingston, the largest town, is advantageously situated at the eastern extremity of lake Ontario. During the last 20 years it has attained to considerable mercantile importance. It is now the centre of commerce between Montreal and all the settlements along the lakes to the westward. It possesses one of the best harbours on the lake, and is the station of the British navy on lake Ontario. Ships of war of the first rate have been constructed here. Population between 2 and 3000.

York, the capital is situated on the north-west coast of lake Ontario, and has an excellent harbour, formed by a large peninsula, and sufficiently capacious to contain a considerable fleet. Population between 2 and 3000.

Government.

The government of Upper Canada is administered by a lieutenant-governor, (who is almost always a military officer,) a legislative council, an executive council, and a house of assembly. The legislative council consists of not less than seven members, who are appointed by mandamus from the king, and hold their seats, under certain restrictions for life. The executive council is composed of six members. The house of assembly consists of 25 members, who are returned from the respective counties, and the duration of the assembly is limited to four years.

NOVA SCOTIA.

Situation, Boundaries, and Divisions.

Nova Scotia is situated between 43° 30′ and 46° N. lat. and 61° and 66° W. long. It is a narrow peninsula, more than 300 miles long, stretching from south-west to north-east.

It is bounded north by the gulf of St. Lawrence; north-east by the island of Cape Breton, from which it is separated by the gut of Canso; west by the bay of Fundy; north-west by the province of New Brunswick; and on all other sides by the Atlantic ocean. It is divided into nine counties, viz., Halifax, Hants, King's, Annapolis, Shelburne, Queen's, Lunenburg, Sydney, and Cumberland.

Soil.

The north-east part of the province presents a gloomy and barren aspect, but the counties to the south-west of Halifax, and along the bay of Fundy, have a rich soil, and produce good crops of grain.

Population.

The population is estimated at above 100,000; the great body of the people are principally emigrants from New England. After these the Scotch and Irish settlers are most numerous.

Chief Towns.

Halifax, the capital, is situated on the west side of Chebucto bay, near the middle of the southern coast. It has a spacious and commodious harbour, of a bold and easy entrance, and open at all seasons of the year. Here 1000 of the largest ships might ride with safety. On the north side of the harbour is the king's navy yard, completely built, and supplied with stores of every kind for the royal navy. Population 15,000.

Liverpool, on the Atlantic coast, 45 miles south-west of Halifax, has considerable trade.

Pictou, on the gulf of St. Lawrence, 100 miles north-east of Halifax, has a fine harbour, and exports great quantities of lumber.

Windsor, 45 miles north-west of Halifax, has a college, which has been handsomely endowed by the legislature.

Religion.

The established religion is that of the church of England.

NEW BRUNSWICK.

Situation and Boundaries.

New Brunswick is situated between 43° and 48° N. lat. and 64° 30′ and 67° 45′ W. long. It is bounded north by Lower Canada; east by the gulf of St. Lawrence; south-east by Nova Scotia and the bay of Fundy; and west by Maine and Canada.

Bays and Rivers.

The principal bays are, *Passamaquoddy* bay, which separates the province from Maine; the bay of *Fundy*, which separates it from Nova Scotia; *Chignecto* bay, which is an arm of the bay of Fundy; and *Merramichi* and *Chaleur* bays, which communicate with the gulf of St. Lawrence.

St. John's river, the principal one in the province, rises in Maine, and, pursuing a circuitous course, enters New Brunswick, and discharges itself into the bay of Fundy. It is navigable for sloops 80 miles, and for boats 200.

Miramichi river, which falls into Miramichi bay, is famous for its salmon fishery.

Soil and Productions.

The lands on the rivers, especially on St. John's river and its branches, are very fertile, and abound with fine timber: and this article, together with cod fish, salmon, and herring, which are found in abundance in the rivers and near the coasts, constitute the principal exports from the province.

Population.

The population of New Brunswick is estimated at more than 60,000.

Chief Towns.

Fredericktown, formerly called St. Anne, is the capital of the province. It is situated at the head of Sloop Navigation, on St. John's river, 80 miles from its mouth, and contains 500 inhabitants.

The city of *St. John's*, situated at the mouth of the river of the same name, is the largest town, and contains upwards of 2000 inhabitants.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

Newfoundland is an island on the east side of the gulf of St. Lawrence, separated from the coast of Labrador on the north by the straits of Belleisle, between lat. 46° 45′ and 52° north,

and between 53° 10′, and 59° west; being 381 miles long, and about 900 in circumference. The coasts are subject to fogs, attended with almost continual storms of snow and sleet; the sky being usually overcast. The interior of the island has never been explored. The country near the shore is hilly, and the soil barren; the coasts are high and bold, and abound with fine harbours. Newfoundland owes all its importance to the fisheries which are carried on upon its shores, and upon the banks which lie to the south-east of the island. The *Grand Bank*, which lies 100 miles from the south-east extremity of the island, is 300 miles long, and 75 broad; and the depth of water upon it varies from 15 to 60 fathoms. No less than 3000 sail of small craft, belonging principally to Great Britain and the United States, were recently employed in these fisheries. In 1813, the export in fish and oil amounted to 1,000,000*l.* sterling. The population of the island is very fluctuating, depending entirely on the state of the fisheries. In 1813, when they were most prosperous, it amounted to nearly 70,000. *St. John's*, the capital, is on the south-east coast of the island, and contained, in 1815, about 12,000 inhabitants; but in 1816 and 1817, three dreadful fires laid nearly the whole town in ashes.

CAPE BRETON

Is situated between Newfoundland and Nova Scotia, and extends from 45° 52′ to 47° 5′ N. lat. and from 59° 42′ to 61° 30′ W. long. from London. It is about 100 miles long by 80 broad.

The face of the country is covered with numerous lakes and forests. The soil is very poor, and unfit for agriculture. The climate is cold, foggy, and unwholesome.

The inhabitants probably do not exceed 1000, and are chiefly engaged in the fisheries. The principal towns are Sydney and Louisburg.

PRINCE EDWARD'S ISLAND, OR ST. JOHN'S,

Is situated in the gulf of St. Lawrence, about thirty miles to the westward of Cape Breton, and to the north of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, from which it is divided by a narrow strait. It is 110 miles long by 30 broad.

The soil is rich and fertile; but the climate is cold, foggy, and damp: consequently, the settlements are very thin. Probably, the population does not exceed 5000. The chief towns are, Princetown, Richmond, Charlotte, and Stukely.

To the north and east of these islands there is a group, called the Magdalen Islands; and in the mouth of St. Lawrence river is the island of Anticosti. These islands are entirely unsettled.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

CANADA.

The French appear to have availed themselves of the information derived from Cabot's voyage to North America before any other nation. We hear of their fishing for cod on the banks of Newfoundland very early in the sixteenth century. About 1506, one Denys, a Frenchman, is said to have drawn a map of the gulf of St. Lawrence; and two years afterwards, Aubert, a master of a vessel belonging to Dieppe, carried over to France some of the natives of Canada. Several years, however, passed away before public attention was again turned to it: at last, in 1524, Francis I. sent four ships, under Verazani, a Florentine, to prosecute discoveries in this country. The particulars of his first expedition are not known. He returned to France; and the next year undertook a second, which appears to have produced no beneficial result. On a third voyage he and all his company perished. In April, 1534, James Cartier, of St. Maloes, sailed by commission from the king with two small ships and 122 men; and, on the 10th of May, came in sight of Newfoundland; but the earth was covered with snow, and great quantities of ice were about the shore. Six degrees to the south he discovered a harbour, which he called St. Catharine's. Returning to the northward, he sailed almost round Newfoundland. In latitude 48° 30′ north, he discovered and named the Baye des Chaleurs, or Bay of Heats, and the gulf of St. Lawrence. Having sailed to the 51st degree of latitude in the vain hope of passing to China, he returned to France without making a settlement. In the following year, having obtained the royal authority, he sailed a second time from France, with three ships, accompanied by a number of young men of distinction, who were desirous of making their fortunes under his guidance. Discovering now the river of Canada, which gradually obtained the name of the St. Lawrence, he sailed up this noble stream three hundred leagues to a great and swift fall; formed alliances with the natives; took possession of the territory; built a fort, and wintered in the country, which he called New France. He at this time discovered Hochelaga, a large Indian settlement, which he called Montreal. The French were well received here, but were soon infected with the scurvy, of which disease twenty-five of their number died. The next spring Cartier returned with the remains of his crew to France. This was the first attempt of the French to form a settlement in America. The representations made by Cartier, on his return, were not of such a nature as to excite great eagerness to esta-

blish a colony here. In 1540, a nobleman of Picardy, de la Roque, lord of Roberval, fitted out two ships at his own expense for prosecuting discoveries in this country; but, not being ready for embarkation himself, he sent Cartier with five ships before him, with a royal commission as captain-general. Cartier commenced his third voyage in May, and landed at Newfoundland in August. Roberval not arriving, he proceeded to Canada; and on a small river, four leagues above port St. Croix, he built a fort, and began a settlement, which he called Charlebourg. Roberval followed him; but returned to France soon afterwards for additional recruits. In 1549, he again embarked with a great number of adventurers; but neither he nor any of the company were ever afterwards heard of. This melancholy event threw so great a damp over the spirit of colonizing, that for fifty years no further attempt was made to form a settlement in Canada; and even those who had been left behind by Roberval were suffered to remain without supplies. At last Henry IV. appointed the Marquis de la Roche lieutenant-general of Canada and the neighbouring countries. In 1598, he landed on the isle of Sable, which he absurdly imagined to be a suitable place for the establishment of a colony, though it was without any port, and produced no other crop than briers. Here he left about forty malefactors, the gleanings of the French jails. After cruising for some time on the coast of Nova Scotia, without being enabled to relieve these unfortunate settlers, he returned to France, where he is said to have died of a broken heart. His colony must have perished had not a French ship been wrecked on the island, from which a few sheep were driven ashore. With the boards of the ship they erected huts; and while the sheep lasted they lived upon them, feeding afterwards upon fish. Their clothes wearing out, they made garments of seal-skins, and in this miserable condition spent seven years, when Henry IV. ordered them to be brought home to France; and, on seeing their miserable appearance, was so much moved, that he forgave them their offences, and presented each with fifty crowns to begin the world anew. In 1600, one, Chauvin, a commander in the French navy, made a voyage to Canada, from which he returned with a profitable cargo of furs. The public now began to turn more attention to this country. An armament was equipped, and the command given to Pontgran. He sailed in 1603, and took with him Samuel Champlain, who had been a captain in the French navy. In 1608, the city of Quebec was founded; and from this period the establishment of a permanent French colony commenced. The settlement was for many years in a feeble condition, and was often in danger of being totally exterminated by the Indians. The French, however, concluded a treaty of peace with them; and finally, by their address, obtained the entire control over them, to the great

inconvenience of the neighbouring English settlements. In 1628, a company of French merchants obtained a patent for the exclusive trade with Canada. The next year, an English expedition, under Sir David Keith, took possession of Quebec; but it was surrendered again to the French by the treaty of St. Germain's. In 1663, the charter of the company of merchants was taken away, and new privileges were granted for forty years to the West India Company. From this period Canada appears to have remained in a state of tranquillity until 1690, when a bold attempt was made by the people of New England to reduce it to subjection to the crown of England. An armament was equipped for this service, and the command given to Sir William Phipps. The effective men, to the number of between 1200 and 1300, landed a little below the town of Quebec, and were fired on from the woods by the French and Indians. Having found the place too strong for them, they re-embarked with precipitation, and returned to Boston. The attempt was renewed in 1711 by a powerful force of British veteran troops, assisted by about 4000 provincials and Indians. Such were the difficulties and losses, however, experienced in passing up the river, that the design was abandoned by the British officers, to the great mortification of the provincial troops. Canada continued in the occupation of the French without any further molestation until the breaking out of the war between France and England in 1756. Great preparations were then made on both sides for attack and defence. In 1759, the British government formed the project of attempting the conquest of Canada by three different but simultaneous attacks. One division of the army was to ascend the St. Lawrence, and lay siege to Quebec; the central and main body was to be conducted against Ticonderoga and Crown Point; the third was to proceed against Niagara,—and, after the reduction of that place, to descend the St. Lawreuce to Montreal. The division which ascended the St. Lawrence was commanded by General Wolfe, and was completely defeated in its first operations by the French. Their great superiority of force, however, enabled the English to obtain possession of Quebec, after a gallant resistance on the part of the French, whose brave commander, Montcalm, had been killed in the action. The English general, Wolfe, was also killed. Soon afterwards the whole province of Canada was subdued by the English forces, and was confirmed to Great Britain by the treaty of 1763.

In 1775, Canada was invaded by a body of provincial troops, under General Montgomery; Montreal was taken, and a gallant but unsuccessful attempt was made on Quebec, in which the brave Montgomery was killed. No other attempt was made on this province during the revolutionary war. We have few records of Canadian history from this period until the late war between the United States and England. Upper Canada then became the

theatre of a sanguinary contest. The American troops were unable, however, to make any permanent conquests, and the province has since remained subject to Great Britain.

NOVA SCOTIA AND NEW BRUNSWICK.

The origin of the French settlement on the isle of Sables is mentioned in the preceding sketch. Few or no English settlements of importance existed in Nova Scotia in 1749, when a large expedition sailed from England. In 1755, an English armament sailed against the French possessions, and having taken the principal post, resorted to the cruel measure of expelling all the French inhabitants, to the number of 7000, who were landed in different parts of the American colonies. Many of them arrived in Philadelphia, where they were received with kindness and liberality. In 1763, Nova Scotia was formally ceded to England by the treaty of Paris, and has since remained a British colony.

NEWFOUNDLAND

Was discovered by Cabot in 1497. In 1610, John Guy, with 39 other persons, began a settlement on this island. By the treaty of Utrecht in 1713, Newfoundland was acknowledged to belong to England.

CAPE BRETON.

The French made the first actual settlement on this island in the year 1712. They gave it the name of *Isle Royale*. The fortification of Louisbourg was begun in 1720, and about that period population increased with rapidity. Cape Breton remained in possession of the French until 1745, when it was captured by a body of troops from New England, under General Pepperell. Since that year it has been under the dominion of the British crown.

PRINCE EDWARD'S.

This island, like Cape Breton, was settled by the French, and has experienced the same fortunes. In 1745, on the capture of Cape Breton, the inhabitants, who then amounted to about 4000, submitted to the British, under whose government it has since remained.

THE UNITED STATES.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

THE territory of the United States is situated between 24° 20′ and 49° N. lat. and 10° east, and 48° 25′ W. long. It is bounded north by the British possessions; east by the Atlantic Ocean; south by the Gulf of Mexico; south-west by the Spanish possessions; and west by the Pacific Ocean. The boundary on the side of the Spanish dominions, according to the treaty with Spain, ratified in 1821, begins on the Gulf of Mexico, at the mouth of the river Sabine, and proceeds along the west bank of that river to the 32d degree of N. lat.; thence by a line due north to the river Arkansas; thence along the south bank of the Arkansas to its source, and thence due north or south, as the case may be, to the parallel of 42° N. lat. and then along that parallel to the Pacific Ocean. On the side of the British possessions, the boundary begins in the Atlantic Ocean, at the mouth of the river St. Croix, and proceeds up that river to its source; thence due north to the highlands, which separate the waters falling into the St. Lawrence from those which fall into the Atlantic; thence along those highlands in a south-west direction to the parallel of 45° N. lat.; thence along that parallel to the river St. Lawrence, and thence up that river and through the great lakes Ontario, Erie, Huron, and Superior, to the most north-western point of the lake of the Woods. By the treaty with Great Britain, in 1819, the boundary line proceeds from the last-mentioned point due north or south, as the case may be, to the parallel of 49° N. lat., and thence due west along that parallel to the Rocky Mountains. The boundary between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Ocean remains unsettled. Including the Floridas, which have been ceded by Spain, the territory of the United States extends, in mean length, about 2500, and in mean breadth 830 miles, the area being 2,076,400 square miles, or 1,328,896,000 acres.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

This vast country is intersected by two principal ranges of mountains; the Rocky Mountains in the west, which run across the territory in a direction nearly parallel with the coast of the Pacific Ocean, at the distance of several hundred miles; and the Alleghany Mountains in the east, which run nearly parallel with

the Atlantic coast from Georgia, through Tennesse, Virginia, and Pennsylvania, to New York. The immense valley, included between these two ranges of mountains, is intersected by the Mississippi river, which runs from north to south through the whole length of the United States. The country west of the Mississippi, with few exceptions, is a wilderness inhabited by savage Indians, and beyond the meridian of 17° W. long. from Washington, the whites have scarcely a solitary settlement; but the country east of the Mississippi is, to a considerable extent, cultivated and populous. The most remarkable feature in the face of the country is the low plain, from 50 to 100 miles wide, which extends along the Atlantic coast from the Hudson to the Mississippi. Beyond this plain the land rises towards the interior, till it terminates in the Alleghany mountains. The rest of the country east of the Mississippi is agreeably diversified with hills and valleys, plains and mountains. The soil of the low country, except on the banks of creeks and rivers, is sandy and barren; but the remainder of the country has generally a strong fertile soil, capable of supporting a dense population. The principal production of the states south of Virginia and Kentucky is cotton. Tobacco is raised in large quantities in Maryland and Virginia. Wheat is the staple production of the middle and western states. Rice is cultivated to a considerable extent in Georgia and the Carolinas, and the sugar cane flourishes in Louisiana. In the eastern states a considerable portion of the soil is devoted to pasturage.

Sea-Coasts, Bays, Sounds, and Lakes.

The territory of the United States is washed by three seas,—the Atlantic Ocean on the east, the Gulf of Mexico on the south, and the Pacific Ocean on the west.

The principal bays and sounds on the Atlantic border are. *Passamaquoddy* Bay, which lies between Maine and the British province of New Brunswick; *Massachusetts* Bay, between Cape Ann and Cape Cod, on the coast of Massachusetts; *Long Island* Sound, between Long Island and the coast of Connecticut; *Delaware* Bay, which sets up between Cape May and Cape Henlopen, and separates New Jersey from Delaware; *Chesapeake* Bay, which communicates with the ocean, between Cape Charles and Cape Henry, and extends in a northern direction for 200 miles through the states of Virginia and Maryland; and *Albemarle* Sound, and *Pamlico* Sound, on the coast of North Carolina. There are no large bays or sounds on the coast of the Gulf of Mexico, or of the Pacific Ocean.

All the large lakes are on or near the northern boundary, where they form a connected chain, extending through a distance of more than 1000 miles. The first in the chain is lake *Superior*, the largest body of fresh water on the globe, being 350 miles long, and its mean breadth 100. It discharges its waters at its south-

east extremity, through the straits of St. Mary, into lake Huron.

Lake *Huron* is 220 miles long from east to west, and its mean breadth 90; and is estimated to contain 20,000 square miles. It is connected on its north-west side with lakes Superior and Michigan, and discharges itself at its southern extremity through St. Clair river into lake St. Clair.

Lake *St. Clair* is 90 miles in circumference, and discharges itself into lake Erie through Detroit river. The bottom of the lake is said to be a perfect plain, the depth being invariably 21 feet, except near the shore.

Lake *Erie* is about 230 miles long, and its mean breadth 45. It discharges itself at its north-east extremity through Niagara river into lake Ontario.

Lake *Ontario* is about 180 miles long, and its mean breadth 40. It discharges itself into the ocean through the river St. Lawrence, which issues from it at its north-east extremity.

Lake *Michigan*, the largest lake which lies wholly within the United States, is 300 miles long, and its mean breadth about 50. On the north-east it communicates with lake Huron through the straits of Michillimackinac, and on the north-west it branches out into two bays, one called Noquet's, and the other Green bay.

Lake *Champlain* lies between the States of New York and Vermont. It is 128 miles long, and from half a mile to 16 miles broad, and discharges itself at its northern extremity through the river Sorel into the St. Lawrence.

Rivers.

The principal rivers of the United States may be divided into four classes. *First*, the Mississippi and its wide-spread branches, which drain the waters of the whole country included between the Alleghany and Rocky Mountains; *secondly*, the rivers east of the Alleghany Mountains, all of which discharge themselves into the Atlantic Ocean; *thirdly*, the rivers south of the Alleghany Mountains, which discharge themselves into the gulf of Mexico; and *fourthly*, the rivers west of the Rocky Mountains, all of which discharge themselves through the Columbia into the Pacific Ocean.

The *Mississippi* rises west of lake Superior, in lat. 47° 47′ north, amidst lakes and swamps, dreary and desolate beyond description; and, after a south-east course of about 500 miles, reaches the falls of St. Anthony, where it descends perpendicularly 16 feet, and where are 58 feet of rapids. From these falls it pursues, at first, a south-easterly, and then a southerly direction; and, after form-

ing the boundary between Missouri, Arkansas territory, and Lou siana on the west, and Illinois, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Mi sissippi on the east, discharges itself through many mouths int the gulf of Mexico. It is nearly 2000 miles long, and is navigabl for boats of 40 tons to the falls of St. Anthony. The followin are the principal tributaries of the Mississippi from the east:

1. The *Ouisconsin*, a rapid river, which joins it between th parallels of 42° and 43° north latitude.

2. The *Illinois*, a navigable river, which rises in the nortl west part of Indiana, and, after a circuitous course of 400 mil through the state of Illinois, joins the Mississippi near lat. 38 40′ north.

3. The *Ohio*, which is formed by the union of the Allegha and Monongahela rivers at Pittsburg, in the western part of Pen sylvania. It flows in a south-westerly direction for 945 mile separating the states of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois from Virgin and Kentucky, and falls into the Mississippi in 37° north lat. I current is very gentle, and no where broken by any considerabl falls, except at Louisville, in Kentucky, where the water descend 22½ feet in two miles, producing a very rapid current; yet boat have, notwithstanding, frequently ascended. The chief tribu taries of the Ohio are, the *Wabash*, a fine navigable river, whic rises in the north-east part of Indiana, and flowing in a south westerly direction falls into the Ohio, after a course of 400 miles during the last half of which it forms the boundary between In diana and Illinois; the *Cumberland*, which rises in the mountain on the eastern boundary of Kentucky, and running into Tennesse makes a circular bend, passes again into Kentucky, and joins th Ohio after a course of 600 miles, for 500 of which it is navigable and the *Tennesse*, which is formed by several streams from th western parts of Virginia and the Carolinas, which unite a littl west of Knoxville in the state of Tennessee, and runs at fir south-west into Alabama, where it turns and runs north-we through Tennessee into Kentucky, and joins the Ohio, 10 mil below the mouth of the Cumberland.

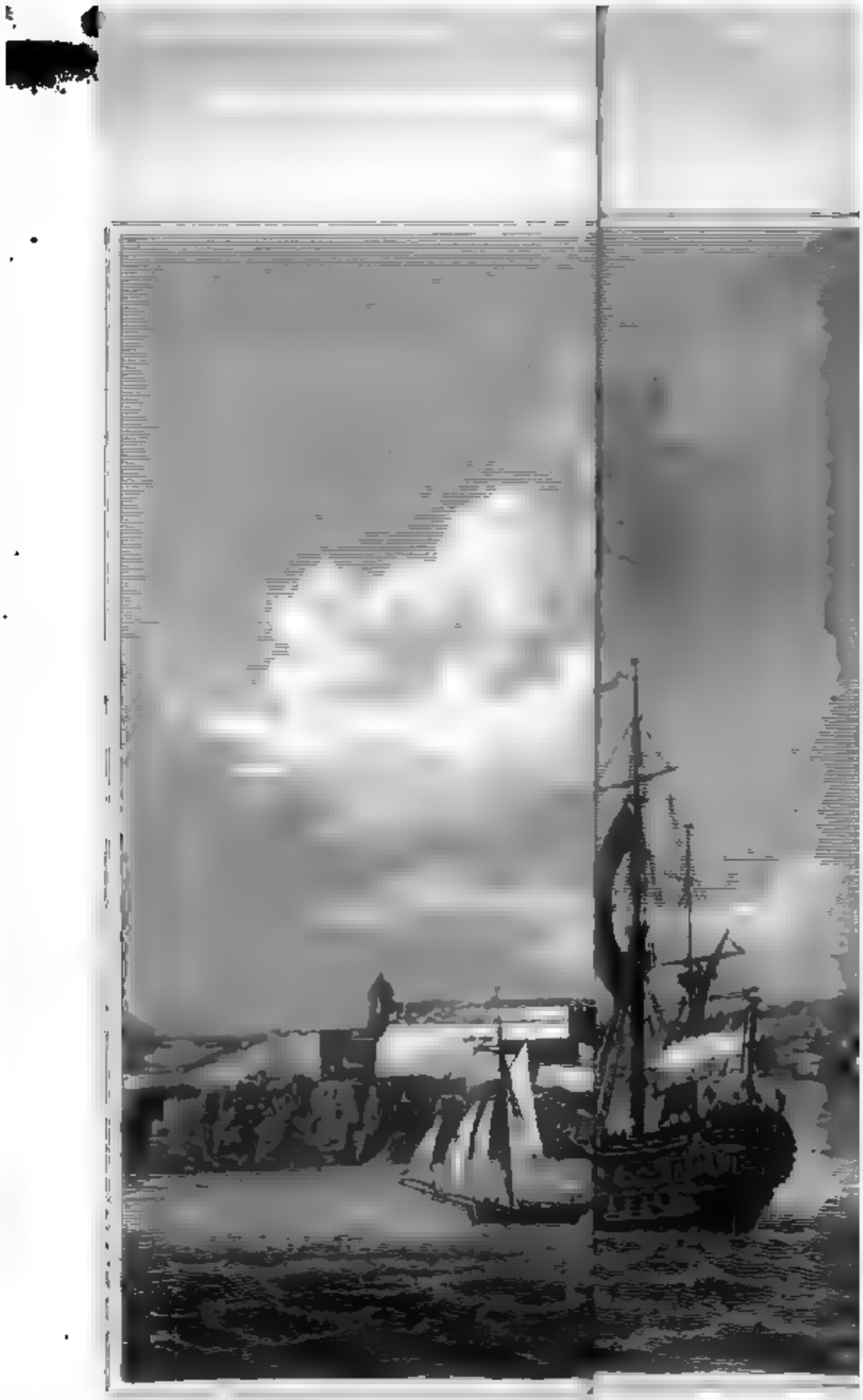
4. The *Yazoo*, which rises in the northern part of the state Mississippi, and, running south-west, joins the Mississippi 1 miles above Natchez.

The following are the principal tributaries of the Mississi from the west:

1. The *St. Peter's*, which joins it about nine miles below the fa of St. Anthony, after a south-east course of several hundred mil

2. The river *des Moines*, which joins it near the parallel of 4 N. lat. after a south-east course of more than 800 miles.

3. The *Missouri*, which is formed by three branches, call Jefferson's, Madison's and Gallatin's rivers, all of which rise an



unite in the Rocky Mountains. From the confluence of these streams to the Great Falls, the course of the river is northerly; thence to the Mandan villages easterly; and from the Mandan villages to the junction with the Mississippi, it runs first south and afterwards south-east. The whole length from the highest navigable point of Jefferson's river to the confluence with the Mississippi, is, by comparative course, about 2500 miles, and to the gulf of Mexico nearly 3500; during the whole of which distance there is no cataract or considerable impediment to the navigation, except at the Great Falls, which are above 2000 miles from the Mississippi. At these falls, the river descends in the distance of 18 miles 362 feet. The principal tributaries of the Missouri are, the *Yellowstone*, which rises in the Rocky Mountains, and joins it after a north-easterly course of nearly 600 miles; the *Platte*, which rises in the Rocky Mountains, and, after an easterly course of nearly 800 miles, joins the Missouri in lat. 41° north; and the *Kansas*, which joins it near lat. 39° north, after an easterly course of more than 600 miles.

4. The *Arkansas*, which rises in the Rocky Mountains, and, pursuing a south-easterly course, forms for some distance the boundary between the United States and Spanish settlements, after which its course lies principally in Arkansas territory till it joins the Mississippi. Its length is more than 1300 miles.

5. *Red* river, which rises in the Rocky Mountains, below Santa Fe, and, after a south-east course of more than 1000 miles, falls into the Mississippi in lat. 31° north.

The following are the principal rivers east of the Alleghany Mountains:

1. The *Connecticut*, which rises in the highlands, separating the United States from Lower Canada, and running south, divides New Hampshire from Vermont, and passing through Massachusetts and Connecticut, falls into Long Island sound. It is navigable for sloops 50 miles, to Hartford, and by means of canals and other improvements has been rendered passable for boats 250 miles further.

2. The *Hudson*, which rises west of lake Champlain, and, pursuing a southerly course of more than 300 miles, falls into New York bay. It is navigable for ships to Hudson, 130 miles; and for large sloops 30 miles further, to Albany, near the head of the tide.

3. The *Delaware*, which rises in New York, and flowing south separates Pennsylvania from New York and New Jersey, and falls into Delaware bay, after a course of 300 miles. It is navigable for ships of the line 40 miles, to Philadelphia; and for sloops 35 miles further, to the head of the tide, at Trenton falls.

4. The *Susquehannah*, which rises in New York, and, pur-

suing a southerly zigzag course through Pennsylvania, falls into the head of Chesapeake bay, near the north-east corner of Maryland. During the last 50 miles, the navigation is obstructed by an almost continued series of rapids.

5. The *Potomac,* which rises in the Alleghany Mountains, and, after forming, during its whole course, the boundary between Maryland and Virginia, falls into Chesapeake bay. It is navigable for ships of the greatest burden to the city of Washington, about 200 miles from the ocean; but in the upper part of its course there are numerous obstructions, many of which have been overcome by canals.

6. *James* river, which rises in the Alleghany Mountains, and, pursuing a course south of east wholly in Virginia, falls into the southern part of Chesapeake bay. It is navigable for sloops to Richmond, where the Great Falls formerly presented an obstruction; but a canal has been made around them, and the river is now navigable for batteaux 230 miles above the city.

7. The *Savannah,* which forms the boundary between South Carolina and Georgia, and falls into the Atlantic in lat. 32° north. It is navigable for large vessels to Savannah, 17 miles; and for boats to Augusta, about 130 miles further.

The following are the principal rivers which rise south of the Alleghany Mountains, and fall into the Gulf of Mexico:

1. The *Appalachicola,* which discharges itself into the western part of Apalachy bay, in Florida. It is formed by the union of the *Chatahouchy* and *Flint* rivers, the former of which rises in the northern part of Georgia, and, flowing south, receives Flint river at the south-west extremity of Georgia. During the latter part of its course, the Chatahouchy forms the boundary between Georgia and Alabama.

2. The *Mobile,* in Alabama, which discharges itself into Mobile bay. It is formed by two large rivers, the *Alabama* and *Tombeckbee,* which unite near lat. 31° north, after having pursued, each, a separate course of many hundred miles.

The principal rivers west of the Rocky Mountains are the Columbia and its branches.

Columbia river rises in the Rocky Mountains, near lat. 55° north, and, running south-west, falls into the Pacific Ocean in lat. 46° 15′ north, after a course of 1500 miles. Its principal tributaries are, *Clark's* river, *Lewis's* river, and the *Multnomah* or *Wallaumut,* all of which join it on the left bank. Vessels of 300 tons may ascend the Columbia to the mouth of the Multnomah, 125 miles; and large sloops to the head of the tide, 60 miles further.

Inland Navigation.

Numerous canals have been proposed for connecting the great rivers, bays, and lakes, in various parts of the country, some of which are already completed, and others in a course of execution. The principal are the following:

1. The *Middlesex canal,* which lies wholly in Massachusetts. It is 31 miles long, and connects Boston harbour with Merrimack river; thus opening an easy communication between Boston and the interior of New Hampshire. It was completed in 1804.

2. The *Champlain canal,* which lies wholly in New York, is 22 miles long, and connects lake Champlain with the Hudson. It was completed in 1820.

3. The *Erie canal,* extending from lake Erie to the Hudson, 350 miles, is one of the greatest works of the kind ever undertaken in any part of the world. It is wholly in the state of New York, and will probably be completed in 1823, at an expense of 5,000,000 dollars.

4. A canal has been proposed to connect James's river with the Ohio. The board of public works in Virginia have recently reported in favour of its practicability and expediency.

5. The *Chesapeake* and *Albemarle canal* lies partly in Virginia and partly in North Carolina, and connects Chesapeake bay with Albemarle Sound.

6. The *Santee canal,* 22 miles long, is wholly in South Carolina, and connects Santee river with Charleston harbour.

7. A canal for sloops from Massachusetts bay to Buzzard's bay, across the isthmus which connects the peninsula of cape Cod with the continent, has been proposed, and a company has been incorporated by the legislature of Massachusetts for carrying it into execution.

8. A canal for sloops has been proposed through the centre of New Jersey, designed to connect, with the aid of intervening streams, New York bay with Delaware river. A company was incorporated in New Jersey many years ago for this purpose, and a survey of the intended route was made, from which the practicability of the plan was ascertained.

9. A canal has been commenced across the isthmus, which separates Delaware river from Chesapeake bay.

10. A canal has been commenced connecting the Schuylkill with the Susquehannah river.

11. Two canals have been proposed for connecting rivers which fall into lake Erie with branches of the Ohio, and congress has granted 100,000 acres of land for carrying each of these plans into execution.

12. A canal has been proposed to connect the head waters of Illinois river with lake Michigan, and congress has also appro-

priated 100,000 acres of land towards defraying the expense o this project. Besides these, there are numerous other canals o minor importance, particularly round the falls in the great rivers.

Climate.

The territory of the United States, extending over 24 degrees o latitude, presents, of course, a great variety of climate. A genera remark, however, may be made, that the whole of the country eas of the Rocky mountains is much colder than in the same parallel in Europe; and the difference has been commonly estimated a equivalent to eight or ten degrees of latitude. The countr between the Alleghany mountains and the Mississippi, is generall more temperate than to the east of them. By recent observation it appears that south-west winds are most prevalent, which tempe the climate, and render the weather more mild and equable although both heat and cold occasionally go to great extremes In the flat country of the southern states, the summers are hot an unhealthy; the months of July, August, and September are her denominated the sickly season, but the rest of the year is generall mild and pleasant. In New England, the climate is healthy, bu in the spring of the year bleak and piercing east winds prevail which are very disagreeable. In Florida, the climate is favourabl to the production of tropical fruits: and it is supposed that coffee cocoa, and sugar may be raised there abundantly. The sugar-can flourishes in Louisiana as high as the parallel of 30° N. lat. Th vine is cultivated successfully in Indiana, and it may also be cul tivated in some parts of Virginia, the Carolinas, Kentucky, an Tennesse. Beyond the Rocky Mountains the climate is similar t that of the west of Europe in the same parallel.

Civil Divisions and Population.

The confederacy originally consisted of 13 members; but, b the formation of new states, the number is now increased to 24 the names, extent, and population of which are given in the follow ing table: the 13 original states are New Hampshire, Massa chusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia.

States.	*Square miles.*	*Pop. in* 1820.	*Pop. on a sq. m.*	*Slaves in* 1820
Maine, ...	32,000	298,335	9	None
New Hampshire, .	9,280	244,161	26	None
Vermont, ...	10,212	235,764	23	None
Massachusetts, . .	7,800	523,287	67	None
Carried forward		1,301,547		

States.	*Square miles.*	*Pop. in* 1820.	*Pop. on a sq. m.*	*Slaves in* 1820.
Brought forward,		1,301,547		
Rhode Island, . . .	1,360	83,059	61	48
Connecticut, . . .	4,674	275,248	59	97
New York, ...	46,000	1,372,812	30	10,088
New Jersey, . . .	6,900	277,575	40	7,557
Pennsylvania, . . .	43,950	1,049,458	24	211
Delaware, ...	2,068	72,749	35	4,509
Maryland, ...	10,800	407,350	38	107,398
Virginia, ...	64,000	1,065,366	17	425,153
North Carolina, . .	43,800	638,829	15	205,017
South Carolina, . .	30,080	502,741	17	258,475
Georgia, ...	58,200	340,989	6	149,656
Alabama, ...	50,800	127,901	3	41,879
Mississippi, ...	45,350	75,448	2	32,814
Louisiana, ...	48,220	153,407	3	69,064
Tennessee, ...	40,000	422,813	10	80,097
Kentucky, ...	39,000	564,317	14	126,732
Ohio, ...	39,000	581,434	15	None
Indiana, ...	36,250	147,178	3	190
Illinois, ...	59,000	55,211	1	917
Missouri, ...	60,300	66,586	1	10,222
Territories.				
Michigan, ...	54,000	8,896		None
Arkansas, ...	121,000	14,273		1,617
District of Columbia	100	33,039	330	6,377
Total,		9,638,226		1,538,118

The population of the United States in 1790, was 3,929,326; in 1800, 5,305,666; in 1810, 7,239,903; and in 1820, 9,638,226, of whom, 1,531,436 were slaves. The population increases very regularly at the rate of about 3 per cent. per annum, doubling in less than 25 years. The inhabitants consist of whites, negroes, and Indians. The negroes are generally slaves, and are principally confined to Maryland and the states south of the Potomac and Ohio rivers. All the whites are of European origin, principally from the British dominions. The New Englanders, Virginians, and Carolinians are almost purely British. Next to the British are the Germans and Irish, who are very numerous in the middle states, particularly in Pennsylvania. Next to these are the Dutch, who are most numerous in New York. The French constitute nearly half the population of Louisiana. Very little is known about the Indians west of the Mississippi. The four principal tribes on the east of the Mississippi are the Creeks, Choctaws, Cherokees, and Chickasaws. These tribes

live within the limits of Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Tennessee.

Commerce.

The commerce of the United States consists principally in the exchange of agricultural produce for the manufactures of other parts of the world, and the productions of tropical climates. The whole value of the exports in 1821 was 64,974,382 dollars, of which 10,478,000 dollars was specie and 43,671,894 dollars domestic produce. The principal article exported is cotton, the quantity of which has been increasing for more than 30 years. In 1790, the amount exported was only 100,000 pounds; in 1795, 1,300,000; in 1800, 17,789,803; in 1804, 35,034,175; and in 1817, 85,649,328 pounds, the value of which was 22,628,000 dollars. In 1821, the value was 20,157,000 dollars.—Next in importance to cotton is wheat and flour, of which the amount exported in 1817 was 1,479,198 barrels, and the value 18,482,000 dollars. In 1821, the value was only 4,476,000 dollsra. Tobacco, lumber, rice, pot and pearl ashes, Indian corn, fish, beef, and pork, are also exported in large quantities. The principal articles imported may be arranged in the following order: manufactured goods, principally from Great Britain; sugar, rum, wines, molasses, brandy, coffee, and teas. The shipping belonging to the United States, in 1821, was 1,262,618 tons. It is owned principally in New England and New York: the states south of the Potomac own only one-eighth part.

Government.

The United States are a federal republic. Each of the states is independent, and has the exclusive control of all concerns merely local; but the defence of the country, the regulation of commerce, and all the general interests of the confederacy, are committed by the constitution of the United States to a general government. The legislative power is vested in a congress, consisting of a senate and house of representatives. The senate is composed of two members from each state, chosen by their legislators for six years: the representatives are chosen by the people biennially, each state being entitled to a number proportioned to its free population; and, in the slave-holding states, every five slaves are allowed to count the same as three freemen. The president and vice-president are chosen for four years, by electors appointed for the purpose; and each state appoints as many electors as the whole number of its senators and representatives. The salary of the president is 25,000 dollars per annum, of the vice-president 5000 dollars. The principal officers in the

executive department are, the secretary of state, the secretary of the treasury, the secretary of war, the secretary of the navy, the attorney-general, and the postmaster-general. The salary of each of the secretaries is 6000 dollars a year, and that of the postmaster-general 4000 dollars.

Revenue, Debt, Army, and Navy.

The revenue of the United States in 1821 was 14,264,000 dollars. Above nine-tenths of the revenue has been usually derived from duties on imports. The sale of public lands also yields a considerable sum. The internal revenue and direct taxes on houses and lands yield very little, being resorted to only in cases of emergency. The public debt, contracted in support of the war of independence, amounted in 1791 to 75,463,467 dollars. During the long peace between 1783 and 1812, the country was prosperous, and the debt was gradually reduced to 36,656,982 dollars. The war of 1812-13 and 14 increased it again more than threefold, and in 1817 it was 112,107,862 dollars. It has since been a little reduced, and is now 93,424,000 dollars. The army in 1820 consisted of 10,000 men, distributed among the numerous posts along the maritime and inland frontier; but it has since been considerably reduced. The navy consists of 11 ships of the line, 9 frigates, and 50 smaller vessels; of these, 4 ships of the line and 37 smaller vessels are on the great lakes.

Religion.

In the United States there is universal liberty of conscience; but the prevailing religion is the Christian, of various denominations. The principal are presbyterians and congregationalists, who have together more than 2500 congregations: the Baptists have more than 2000 congregations; the Friends have more than 500 societies; and the Episcopalians about 300. The Methodists also are very numerous. The Baptists and Methodists are found in all parts of the United States; the Congregationists are almost wholly in New England; the Presbyterians are scattered over the middle and southern states; the Friends are most numerous in Pennsylvania and the adjoining states; and the Episcopalians in New York, Connecticut, Maryland, and Virginia. The Roman Catholics are the leading denomination in Maryland and Louisiana. German Lutherans, German Calvinists, and Moravians, are also numerous in the middle states.

TABLE I.

Exhibiting the different Classes of the Population, according to the Census of 1820.

STATES.	Whites.	Slaves.	Free Blacks.	Total*.	Foreigners not naturalized.	PERSONS ENGAGED		
						Agriculture.	Commerce.	Manufactures
Maine	297,340	None.	929	298,335	1,680	55,031	4,297	7,[illegible]
New Hampshire	243,220	None.	786	244,161	124	22,394	1,008	8,[illegible]
Vermont	234,846	None.	918	235,761	935	50,051	776	8,[illegible]
Massachusetts	513,139	None.	6,740	523,287	3,405	63,400	13,391	33,[illegible]
Rhode Island	79,413	48	3,554	83,030	237	12,559	1,162	6,[illegible]
Connecticut	267,181	97	7,870	275,248	589	50,518	3,561	17,[illegible]
New York	1,332,744	10,088	29,279	1,372,812	15,101	247,046	9,113	60,[illegible]
New Jersey	257,109	7,557	12,460	277,575	1,729	40,812	1,830	15,[illegible]
Pennsylvania	1,017,094	211	30,202	1,049,456	10,728	140,601	7,863	60,[illegible]
Delaware	55,282	4,509	12,958	72,749	331	12,250	533	2,[illegible]
Maryland	260,223	107,398	39,730	407,350	3,776	79,185	4,771	16,[illegible]
Virginia	603,074	425,148	36,889	1,065,366	2,142	276,422	4,500	22,[illegible]
North Carolina	419,200	205,017	14,612	638,829	415	174,196	2,551	11,[illegible]
South Carolina	237,440	258,475	6,826	502,741	1,205	161,506	2,[illegible]	8,[illegible]
Georgia	189,566	149,656	1,763	340,985	453	101,185	2,120	2,[illegible]
Alabama	85,451	41,879	571	127,901	162	30,648	458	1,[illegible]
Mississippi	42,176	32,814	458	75,448	181	22,035	204	[illegible]
Louisiana	72,383	69,064	10,476	153,487	3,145	53,041	6,551	6,[illegible]
Tennessee	339,925	80,097	2,739	422,813	312	101,919	692	7,[illegible]
Kentucky	434,644	126,732	2,759	564,317	529	132,161	1,817	11,[illegible]
Ohio	870,572	None.	4,723	581,434	3,495	110,991	1,450	10,[illegible]
Indiana	145,756	190	1,230	147,178	833	61,315	425	3,[illegible]
Illinois	53,798	917	457	55,211	308	12,393	228	1,[illegible]
Missouri	55,999	10,222	347	66,568	497	14,247	405	1,[illegible]
Michigan Territory	8,891	None.	174	8,896	686	1,409	302	[illegible]
Arkansas Territory	12,579	1,617	30	14,273	34	3,613	79	[illegible]
District of Columbia	23,614	6,377	4,048	33,939	564	863	512	3,[illegible]
GRAND TOTAL	7,861,937	1,539,113	233,537	9,638,226	53,653	2,065,490	72,307	389,[illegible]

* Besides the persons enumerated in the preceding columns, the numbers in this column incl those who are entered in the census under the description of "All other persons except Indi not taxed." They amount only to 4631, for the whole United States.

TABLE II.—*Exhibiting the Total Population of the several States at each of the four Nati Enumerations, with the Increase and Rate of Increase between the different Periods.*

STATES.	POPULATION.				Increase from 1790 to 1820.	RATE OF INCREASE		
	In 1790.	In 1800.	In 1810.	In 1820.		From 1790 to 1800.	From 1800 to 1810.	Fr 181 18
						per cent	per cent	per
Maine	96,540	151,719	228,705	298,335	201,795	57.2	50.7	
New Hampshire	141,885	183,858	214,460	244,161	102,276	29.6	16.6	
Vermont	85,339	154,465	217,895	235,764	150,425	80.5	41.0	
Massachusetts	378,787	422,845	472,040	523,287	144,500	11.6	11.6	
Rhode Island	68,825	69,122	76,931	83,059	14,234	0.4	11.4	
Connecticut	237,946	251,002	261,942	275,248	37,302	5.5	4.3	
New York	340,120	586,050	959,049	1,372,812	1,032,692	72.9	63 6	
New Jersey	184,139	211,149	245,562	277,575	93,436	14.3	16.3	
Pennsylvania	434 373	602,545	810,091	1,049,458	615,085	38.6	34.4	
Delaware	59,094	64,273	72,674	72,749	12,655	8.7	13.0	
Maryland	319,728	349,692	380,546	407,350	87,622	6.8	11.4	
Virginia	747,610	886,149	974,622	1,065,366	317,756	17.6	16.7	
North Carolina	393,751	478,103	555,500	638,829	245,079	21.4	16.2	
South Carolina	249,073	345,591	415,115	502,741	253,668	38.6	20.1	
Georgia	82,548	162,686	254,433	340,989	258,441	97.0	56.1	
Alabama		6,850	21,892	127,901			219.6	8
Mississippi			75,448					
Louisiana			76,556	153,407				1
Tennessee	35,691	105,602	261,727	422,813	387,122	196.0	147.8	
Kentucky	73,677	220,959	406,511	564,317	490,640	200.0	83.8	
Ohio	3,000	45,365	230,760	581,434	578,434	1400.0	400.0	1.
Indiana		4,875	24,520	147,178			403.0	5
Illinois		215	12,282	55,211			5600.0	3
Missouri			20,845	66,568				2
Arkansas Territory				14,273				
Michigan Territory		551	4,762	8,896			76.4	
District of Columbia		14,093	24,023	33,039			70.5	
GRAND TOTAL	3,929,326	5,306,446	7,239,903	9,638,226	5,708,900	35.1	34.0	

TABLE.—*Shewing the Estimated Value of the Domestic and Foreign Produce exported from the United States to Foreign Countries, during each Year, from 1790 to 1821.*

YEARS. Year ending Sept. 30.	DOMESTIC PRODUCE.	FOREIGN PRODUCE.	TOTAL.	YEARS. Year ending Sept. 30.	DOMESTIC PRODUCE.	FOREIGN PRODUCE.	TOTAL.
	Dollars.	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*		*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*
1790	*12,123,094	19,082,016	20,205,165	1806	41,253,727	60,282,236	101,536,963
1791	*11,407,225	17,604,816	19,012,941	1807	48,699,592	59,643,508	108,343,150
1792	*12,451,860	18,301,238	20,753,098	1808	9,433,545	12,997,414	22,430,959
1793	*15,005,144	†10,443,828	26,109,572	1809	31,405,702	20,707,531	52,203,235
1794	*19,815,741	†13,210,492	33,020,233	1810	42,366,675	24,391,395	66,757,070
1795	*26,793,684	†19,193,788	47,980,472	1811	45,294,043	16,022,700	61,316,838
1796	40,764,697	26,300,000	67,064,697	1812	30,032,169	6,495,127	36,527,230
1797	29,850,206	27,000,000	56,850,206	1813	25,008,152	2,847,845	27,855,997
1798	28,527,097	33,000,000	61,527,097	1814	6,782,371	143,169	6,927,441
1799	33,142,522	45,323,000	78,065,522	1815	45,974,403	6,583,350	52,557,753
1800	31,540,903	39,130,877	70,971,780	1816	64,781,896	17,138,556	81 920,452
1801	47,473,204	46,642,721	94,115,925	1817	68,313,500	19,358,009	87,671,509
1802	36,708,180	35 774,971	72,483,160	1818	73,854,437	19,426,696	93,281,133
1803	42,205,861	13,304,072	55,509,933	1819	50,976,538	19,165,054	70,142,521
1804	41,467,477	36,231,597	77,699,074	1820	51,683,648	18,008,829	69,091,869
1805	42,387,902	53,179,019	95,566,021	1821	43,671,864	21,302,438	64,974,302

* Estimated at three-fifths of the whole. † Estimated at two-fifths.

TONNAGE.

TABLE.—*Shewing the Amount of Tonnage belonging to each of the United States in 1795 and 1821, distinguishing the Amount employed in the Foreign Trade, Coasting Trade, and Fisheries; also the Proportion of Shipping belonging to each State, compared with the whole United States.*

STATES.	1795.					1821.				
	Registered Tonnage employed in Foreign Trade.	Enrolled and Licensed Tonnage employed in Coasting Trade.	Enrolled and Licensed in the Fisheries.	TOTAL.	Proportion.	Registered Tonnage employed in Foreign Trade.	Enrolled and Licensed Tonnage employed in Coasting Trade.	Enrolled and Licensed in the Fisheries.	TOTAL.	Proportion.
	Tons.	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*p.cent*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*p.cent*
Maine	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	67,274	55,582	.....	122,856	9.7
New Hampshire	13,402	1,665	536	15,602	2.0	17,285	3,230	2,820	23,335	1.9
Massachusetts ..	171,748	59,413	22,536	250,697	34.7	180,251	96,431	40,287	316,969	25.0
Rhode Island ...	26,227	6,068	240	27,223	3.6	29,382	9,427	499	39,314	3.1
Connecticut.....	28,549	11,190	743	35,482	4.7	14,242	29,025	2,257	45,724	3.7
New York.....	93,321	35,949	33	129,303	17.3	115,612	128,210	513	244,035	19.2
New Jersey.....	627	8,318	.....	8,947	1.2	460	34,064	.....	34,533	2.8
Pennsylvania ..	83,093	7,324	.....	90,940	12.2	59,456	24,117	.....	83,573	6.7
Delaware	1,209	2,774	.....	4,004	.5	161	9,882	.....	10,043	.8
Maryland.....	48,007	24,470	.....	72,477	9.3	44,850	80,290	.....	125,140	9.9
Dist of Columbia	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	11,051	13,020	.....	24,077	2.0
Virginia	31,707	20,806	.....	52,635	7.0	16,709	46,328	.....	63,326	5.0
North Carolina	12,691	6,279	.....	18,879	2.5	20,136	15,720	.....	38,964	3.1
South Carolina	25,453	4,465	.....	29,918	4.0	15,177	14,767	.....	29,264	2.3
Georgia.....	3,548	756	.....	4,304	.6	8,193	5,469	.....	13,662	1.2
Mississippi	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,340	3,891	.....	6,131	.5
Louisiana	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	14,325	24,490	.....	38,815	3.1
Kentucky & Ohio	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	322	276	.....	598	.1
Michigan Terr.	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	304	271	.....	575	
TOTAL	539,479	184,397	24,093	747,969	100	610,029	588,614	55,373	1,202,018	100

TABLE I.—*Shewing the Receipts at the Treasury of the United States, for each Year, from the Commencement of the present Government, to 1821.*

YEARS.	Imports and Tonnage.	Internal Revenue.	Loans and Treasury Notes.	Miscellaneous Receipts.	Aggregate Amount of Receipts.	Excess of Receipts over Expenditures	Excess of Expenditures over Receipts
	Dollars.	*Dollars.*	*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*
1791	4,399,472	311	361,391	10,107	4,771,342	973,905	.....
1792	3,433,070	208,003	5,102,405	17,525	8,772,458	.....	199,461
1793	4,255,306	340,348	1,797,272	46,280	6,150,195	.....	29,782
1794	4,801,065	304,138	4,007,950	326,701	9,439,855	308,202	.....
1795	5,556,461	337,755	3,296,424	170,117	9,315,758	.....	635,281
1796	6,567,787	354,413	330,000	1,297,026	8,749,229	272,502	.....
1797	7,348,640	725,348	70,000	413,783	8,758,780	132,993	.....
1798	7,106,061	609,843	200,000	176,765	8 179 170	.....	404,447
1799	6,610,449	637,848	5,000,000	93,515	12,546,812	1,544,416	.....
1800	9,080,932	1,637,314	1,565,280	130,502	12,413,976	461,444	.....
1801	10,750,778	1,833,552	.....	381,123	12,915,455	672,078	.....
1802	12,438,235	1,036,306	.....	1,501,251	14,995,793	1,735,300	.....
1803	10,479,417	473,491	.....	111,278	11,064,007	.....	194,286
1804	11,098,565	620,647	.....	107,034	11,926,307	.....	788,806
1805	12,936,487	608,245	.....	15,960	13,560,693	.....	37,416
1806	14,667,698	884,528	.....	7,604	15,559,831	530,724	.....
1807	15,845,521	823,205	.....	84,113	16,308,619	5,165,726	.....
1808	16,363,550	680,169	.....	11,970	17,000,681	207,059	.....
1809	7,296,020	300,690	.....	117,160	7,773,473	.....	5,093,753
1810	8,583,369	600 688	3,750,000	170,602	12,134,214	.....	1,175,780
1811	13,313,222	1,008,173	.....	295,052	14,422,634	530,029	.....
1812	8,958,777	809,128	12,837,000	97,737	22,630,922	359,911	.....
1813	13,224,923	667,351	26,184,125	253,006	40,324 844	1,334,224	.....
1814	5,998,772	5,072,979	23,237,256	420,068	34,878,432	.....	3,669,463
1815	7,282,942	8,280,541	35,254,320	6,073	51,983,946	25,761,866	.....
1816	27,500,769	7,181,176	.....	2,072,327	36,743,374	13,197,233	.....
1817	17,547,340	4,512,287	.....	2,328,164	24,387,082	9,429,444	.....
1818	21,828,451	1,211,972	.....	2 054,475	26 095,296	12,522,131	.....
1819	17,116,702	308,291	.....	4,010 702	21,435 700	5,307,485	.....
1820	12,449,556	135,456	.....	2 669 537	15,254,546	1,080,143	.....
1821	13,009,000	60,000	.....	1,186,080	14,254,000	7 854,616	.....

TABLE II.—*Shewing the Expenditure of the United States, for each Year, from the Commencement of the present Government, to 1821, and specifying the amount for the Military, Naval, and Indian Departments, Public Debt, &c.*

YEARS.	Military Establishment.	Indian Department.	Naval Department	*Foreign Intercourse	†Civil List.	TOTAL.	Expenditure on account of Public Debt.
	Dollars.	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*
1791	632,804	27,000	579	14,733	1,043,021	3,797,436	6,287,940
1792	1,100,792	13,618	53	78,766	572,005	6,962,049	7,273,605
1793	1,130,249	27,292	.....	80,500	460,316	6,479,977	5,819,585
1794	2,630,007	13,042	61,403	146,303	640,205	9,041,502	5,778,602
1795	2,486,910	22,475	410,502	912,085	522,963	10,131,240	6,064,411
1796	1,269,263	113,563	274,764	184,959	606,458	8,367,776	5,824,282
1797	1,930,462	62,306	382,631	669,788	679,370	6,025,977	5,702,421
1798	2,000,522	16,470	1,381,317	457 429	736,454	8,583,016	3,900,294
1799	2,466,946	29,302	2,856,081	271,374	863,466	11,002,306	4,506,978
1800	2,560,878	31	3,448,716	305,267	1,806,455	11,952,531	4,378,369
1801	1,072,944	9,809	2,111,424	105,676	801,624	12,273,378	7,279,798
1802	1,221,149	52,000	918,561	550,925	907,443	13,270,467	9,530,084
1803	882,065	.....	1,213,230	1,110,834	794,892	11,259,083	7,709,444
1804	938,923	53,000	1,160,822	1,156,032	1,054,446	12,615,113	8 171,287
1805	705,301	141,000	1,507,509	2,706,126	1,052,423	13,595,369	7,369,669
1806	1,393,585	75,000	1,649,831	1,760,421	1,211,390	15,021,190	8,989,284
1807	1,369,285	104,825	1,722,004	577,825	1,199,560	11,293,202	6,207,720
1808	3,011,434	72,975	1,584,077	204,232	1,206,808	16,787,702	16,360,345
1809	3,479,772	213,583	2,427,758	166,305	1,149,231	13,857;226	6,452,354
1810	2,389,943	82,025	1,654,342	91,300	1,105,231	12,360,994	6,008,994
1811	2,172,238	61,975	1,965,566	264,901	1,177,420	13,692,604	6,909,394
1812	12,983,796	72,845	3,999,363	347,703	1,126,786	22,270,121	4,440,022
1813	10,747,813	72,358	9,446,606	289,961	1,906,484	30,190,520	11,109,133
1814	20,587,906	10,204	7,311,200	177,170	2,120,969	36,047,915	7,900,543
1815	15,796,704	111,750	6,600,000	220,601	1,210,645	25,823,699	12,920,253
	Military and Indians.			Civil, Diplomatic, and Miscellaneous.			
1816	16,529,000		3,007,927	3,109,405		23,346,341	23,716,566
1817	6,91 ,816		3,314,474	3,306,249		14,000,530	23,411,462
1818	6,795,263		2,958,000	3,800,806		13,363,069	12,372 267
1819	9,195.062		3,927,540	3,044,613		16,068,215	0 424,172
1820	7,943,068		3 732,762	2,328,573		14,224,403	20 749,011
1821	5.169,463		3.303,507	2,462,717		10,920,174	6,.304,112

* Including Barbary Powers. † Including Miscellaneous Items.

STATISTICAL

Exhibiting the Value of Articles of every Description of Imports fro
Vessels arriving from, and departing to, each Foreign Country, an

COUNTRIES.	VALUE OF IMPORTS.		
	In American Vessels.	In Foreign vessels.	Tot
Russia	1,852,199	.....	1,852
Prussia	.....	1,309	1
Sweden	658,335	101,418	759
Swedish West Indies	601,706	8,310	610
Denmark and Norway	10,156	.....	10
Danish West Indies	1,958,738	24,836	1,983
Holland	1,788,754	150,190	1,938
Dutch West Indies and American Colonies	833,737	27,193	860
Dutch East Indies	134,300	.....	134
England, Man and Berwick	21,691,813	1,489,040	23,180
Scotland	865,173	354,919	1,220
Ireland	533,756	152,398	686
Gibraltar	1,032,564	201,600	1,234
British African Ports	6,581	.....	6
Newfoundland and British Fisheries	213	.....	
British East Indies	1,530,799	.....	1,530
British West Indies	646,305	280,951	927
British American Colonies	459,199	31,214	490
Other British Colonies	.....	924	
The Hanse Towns and Ports of Germany	703,869	226,200	930
French European Ports on the Atlantic	4,079,330	414,587	4,493
Ditto, on the Mediterranean	434,311	61,712	496
Ditto, West Indies and American Colonies	900,610	.....	900
Ditto, East Indies	.....	.....	
Bourbon and Mauritius	10,022	.....	11
Hayti	2,207,559	38,688	2,246
Spanish European ports on the Atlantic	242,057	11,008	253
Spanish European ports on the Mediterranean	280,376	7,992	288
Teneriffe and the other Canaries	265,080	.....	265
Manilla and Philippine Islands	114,861	.....	114
Floridas	174,960	14,678	189
Honduras, Campeachy, &c.	210,673	5,402	216
Cuba	5,661,979	922,870	6,584
Other Spanish West Indies	620,899	5,710	626
Spanish South American Colonies	1,100,259	7,856	1,114
Portugal	351,701	4,415	356
Madeira	187,701	2,588	190
Fayal and the other Azores	137,982	.....	137
Cape de Verd Islands	63,612	424	64
Coast of Brazil and other Portuguese Am. Col.	605,126	.....	605
Italy and Malta	972,383	.....	972
Trieste and other Austrian ports on the Adriatic	229,792	.....	229
Turkey, Levant, &c.	389,697	5,998	395
China	3,111,951	.....	3,111
Asia.....generally	123,921	.....	123
West Indies, ditto	3,737	.....	3
Europe, ... ditto	.....	.....	
Africa, ... ditto	129,943	.....	129
South Seas	34,428	.....	34
North-West Coast of America	.....	.....	
Uncertain ports, places, &c.	.....	2,532	2
TOTAL	58,025,899	4,359,925	62,385

—*Shewing the Amount of the Public Debt, on the 1st of January, in each Year, from 1791 to 1822.*

Amount.	Years.	Amount.	Years.	Amount.	Years.	Amount.
Dollars.		*Dollars.*		*Dollars.*		*Dollars.*
75,189,974	1799	75,300,999	1807	57,731,845	1815	99,834,410
78,373,767	1800	81,633,325	1808	64,748,298	1816	123,016,375
77,287,097	1801	82,000,167	1809	56,732,379	1817	115,807,895
75,996,170	1802	78,754,569	1810	53,156,532	1818	99,107,346
78,149,937	1803	74,721,922	1811	47,865,079	1819	92,848,177
81,542,272	1804	85,363,643	1812	45,035,133	1820	88,999,333
80,034,023	1805	80,534,059	1813	56,987,459	1821	89,214,236
78,494,165	1806	74,542,957	1814	80,986,291	1822	93,434,000

POST-OFFICE ESTABLISHMENT.

—*Shewing the Number of Post-Offices, the Extent of the Post-Roads, the Revenue & Expenses of the Establishment, for each Year, from the Commencement of the present Government, to the Year* 1821.

	Number of Post-offices.	Amount of Postages.	Compensation to Postmasters.	Incidental Expenses.	Transportation of the Mail.	Nett Revenue.	Extent in Miles of Post-roads.
		Dollars.	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	
1	75	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
1	75	37,935	8,198	1,861	22,081	5,795	1,875
	80	46,294	10,312	3,092	23,193	9,597	1,905
5	195	67,444	16,518	5,282	32,731	12,913	5,642
1	209	104,747	21,646	5,600	44,734	32,707	5,642
1	450	128,947	17,150	9,812	53,005	38,974	11,564
1	453	160,020	30,272	12,202	75,350	42,727	13,207
5	496	195,067	35,736	14,353	81,489	53,488	13,207
7	554	213,909	47,109	13,623	80,382	53,884	16,180
1	619	232,997	56,035	16,035	107,014	53,803	16,180
7	677	264,846	63,936	14,804	100,475	76,606	16,180
1	903	280,804	60,243	16,107	128,644	60,510	20,817
1	1,025	320,443	79,338	23,363	152,480	65,292	22,309
1	1,114	327,045	85,587	21,659	174,671	45,129	25,315
1	1,208	351,823	93,170	24,064	205,110	29,459	25,315
1	1,405	389,450	107,716	24,231	205,555	51,948	20,550
1	1,558	421,373	111,532	26,180	239,635	44,006	31,678
1	1,710	446,106	119,765	25,894	267,803	32,533	33,431
1	1,948	476,763	129,041	32,093	292,751	24,879	33,755
1	1,044	460,564	128,653	28,876	385,409	.....	34,633
1	2,012	506,631	141,579	22,516	332,917	8,022	34,913
1	2,300	551,693	140,436	18,565	327,966	55,715	36,406
1	2,403	567,247	159,244	20,699	319,180	55,146	36,406
1	2,610	646,208	177,423	22,117	340,626	109,043	39,378
2	.....	703,155	221,843	20,605	438,559	22,143	39,348
1	.....	738,380	231,354	17,170	475,602	3,244	41,736
5	2,004	1,043,065	211,901	18,441	487,779	294,944	43,980
6	3,260	961,782	265,544	16,508	521,970	157,760	46,976
7	3,459	1 002,973	303,916	23,410	589,189	66,458	52,069
8	3,618	1,130,235	346,429	24,793	664,611	94,403	59,473
9	4,000	1,204,737	375,828	21,153	717,881	89,876	68,906
0	4,500	1,111,927	352,295	26,206	781,425	.....	73,492
1	4,976	1,029,101	331,882	33,181	806,418	.....	70,808

HISTORICAL MEMOIR OF THE UNITED STATES, FROM THEIR SETTLEMENT TO THE YEAR 1822.

1. *Before and during the Revolution.*

THE history of North America, previous to the landing of Europeans, is involved in total obscurity. At the period of the discovery of the countries now occupied by the United States, it was traversed rather than inhabited by various bands of uncivilized men, whose traditionary stories, while they referred only to a period comparatively recent, commemorated little more than the emigration of a tribe from one district to another, and served rather to perplex than to elucidate their barren annals. With these scanty materials, however, ingenious men have contrived to build up systems respecting the origin and progress of population in America; which differ from each other, and all of them, perhaps, from the actual circumstances. The consideration of these theories is however necessarily excluded from this brief outline. It may be sufficient to remark, that undoubted evidence exists that the valley of the Mississippi was once inhabited by a race of men greatly superior in civilization and the arts, to the wandering tribes whom the first Europeans encountered. How and when this unknown race passed away will probably never be ascertained.

If the early history of this country is obscure, that which follows the epoch of discovery is sufficiently distinct. The foundations of the American republics were laid in the day-time of science and intellect. There is no dark age in the history of the United States. The founders were generally educated and lettered men, who, though in many instances differing from each other on points of theology, were alike in their attachment to freedom, and to that universal diffusion of knowledge by which freedom is best supported. When the settlement of the United States commenced, the art of printing had just begun to feel and put forth its strength. The press, although occasionally restricted by the arbitrary edicts of the British government, has shed a broad and certain light upon all the actions of our ancestors, and left their posterity little to desire on the score of information respecting them. From the year 1497, when the continent of North America was first seen by Europeans, more than a century elapsed before any permanent settlement was effected on its shores. The greater part of the territory of the United States east of Florida, was originally called Virginia, in honour of Elizabeth of England, the virgin queen, as poets and courtiers styled her; who, following the practice of other European monarchs, granted large tracts of country, without respect to the rights of the aboriginal possessors. The earliest settlement, in pursuance of these grants, was made within the limits of the present state of Virginia, in 1607, under the

authority of James I. Seven years afterwards a colony of Dutch commenced a settlement upon the present island of New York, and retained possession until 1664, when it was surrendered to an armament fitted out by Charles II. Massachusetts was settled in 1620, by a body of Puritans from England. The next settlement, in order of time, was that of Delaware, by the Swedes. Connecticut and Maryland were colonized contemporaneously; the former by emigrants from Massachusetts, in 1633; the latter by a party of Roman Catholics from England, under Lord Baltimore. Religious persecution drove a number of persons from Massachusetts, and led to the founding of Rhode island, in 1635. New Hampshire was settled in 1637, principally from the same cause. In 1663, some of the Virginian settlers laid the foundation of North Carolina, which was followed by the settlement of South Carolina, in 1670. New Jersey, on which the Dutch and Swedes had made partial settlements early in the seventeenth century, was not effectually colonised until after the year 1670. In Pennsylvania also a small body of Swedes had planted themselves at an early period. The settlement increased slowly, until the arrival, in 1681, of William Penn, with a numerous company of Quakers, whom the prospect of relief from persecution induced to emigrate. The last settled of the original thirteen states was Georgia, founded in 1732, by general Oglethorpe.

The history of all new colonies is necessarily one of hardship and suffering. In the case of most of the American settlements, however, the ordinary evils were augmented by the vindictive hostility of the natives, who saw with indignation the tide of Christian dominion gradually overflowing their land, and who used every means that nature had supplied them with, to stay the progress of the wave. Their most sagacious chiefs, from Philip of Pokanoket to Tecumseh, have endeavoured to unite the different tribes in a common purpose of opposition, but without much success. The superior arts of the Europeans generally triumphed in the engagements of bodies of men; but it was in the surprisal and assault upon individuals or families that Indian hostility was most effective. The settlements of Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Maine, and Virginia, especially, were for a great number of years the theatres of sanguinary conflicts. In Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, and Maryland, a system of policy more humane and prudent conciliated the savages, and advanced the prosperity of the settlements. Another fruitful source of disquiet to the colonies was the adjoining settlements in Canada. The British and French provinces, which would otherwise, it is probable, have remained at peace with each other, were compelled to take part in the unceasing wars of the mother countries, and wasted their young strength in supporting projects of European aggrandizement, in which they themselves were but remotely interested. This grievance fell with the greatest weight upon the colonies of New York and New England. The influence which the governors of Canada have

always possessed over the Indians, enabled the French to direct the full force of savage hostility against the English colonists, (as the British, since their possession of Canada, have done against the United States.) The frontiers were, during every war, a scene of desolation and bloodshed. The colonists saw, that nothing short of the expulsion of the French from Canada would be sufficient to ensure their repose. They devised frequent plans for the conquest of that province, and urgently called on the British government for assistance. The aid they received was feebly and reluctantly given. In 1690, commissioners from the eastern and middle colonies met at New York, to concert measures for an expedition against the French colonies. The enterprise failed, through the tardiness of the British admiral. Similar attempts were made in 1692 and 1696, but from similar causes they also were unsuccessful. At the beginning of the eighteenth century, the colonies enjoyed a short period of repose. The renewal of the war in Europe, however, brought upon them again all the horrors of Indian and French hostility. New York and New England had previously been the chief theatre of Indian incursions; but the extension of their settlements on the Ohio gave the French an opportunity of leading the savages against the frontier inhabitants of Pennsylvania and Virginia. The colonies of South Carolina and Georgia were equally harassed during the first half of the eighteenth century, by the Spaniards and southern Indians. In the year 1745, a resolute and successful attack was made upon the strong fort of Louisbourg, in the island of Cape Breton, by a small body of New Englanders, headed by William Pepperell, a merchant of Boston.

After the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, the colonies were for a short period unmolested, until the conflicting pretensions of the two nations to lands in the Ohio produced another contest. To enable themselves more effectually to resist their enemies, some of the colonies proposed about this time the formation of a federal government, to be administered by a grand council chosen by the provincial assemblies. The British ministry, however refused to accede to the project, without such modifications as would have given them the absolute control over the general congress; and the colonies being equally averse to this alteration, the plan was abandoned. The year 1755 was rendered memorable by the defeat of the British general Braddock, whose army was saved from entire ruin by the skill of Washington, then a colonel of provincial militia, and by the courage of the colonial troops. In 1758, fort Duquesne, now Pittsburg, was taken by the British and provincial troops. Louisbourg, which had been restored to France, was also taken: and the tide of success set so strongly in favour of the British, that in the succeeding years Quebec and the whole of Canada were conquered. The American colonies, now relieved in a great measure from a state of harassing warfare, began to acquire with rapidity wealth and population. Their

improved condition attracted the notice of the mother country; who, forgetful that the colonies had struggled almost unaided through their difficulties, many of which difficulties had arisen from her absurd and oppressive regulations, assumed the credit of their thriving appearance, and resolved to provide some remuneration for her fancied exertions in their behalf.

The inhabitants of Great Britain laboured at this time under a load of taxation, part of which burden they determined to transfer to the Americans. The first step taken in pursuance of this resolution, was to impose a stamp duty on instruments of writing executed in the provinces. An act was accordingly passed to this effect by the British parliament, in 1765. It was resisted from the first moment by the colonies. Delegates from the several provinces assembled at Philadelphia, who with great unanimity agreed upon a declaration of rights, and a statement of their grievances. The people at large entered into associations against the importation of British manufactures, which, notwithstanding their previous dependance for clothing upon England, were adhered to almost universally. This determined resolution compelled the British ministry to repeal the obnoxious act. The concession was received with gratitude, and for a short period tranquillity and prosperity prevailed. The intention of subjecting the colonies to the payment of taxes was not, however, abandoned. In 1767, an act was passed, laying duties on certain articles imported into the colonies. The latter, equally determined in their resolution not to submit to what they rightly deemed an oppressive and unlawful measure, refused to recognise the right. The British government at length repealed all the duties, except those upon tea. To counteract the design of collecting this duty, the inhabitants of the provinces entered into an agreement not to import or consume the article. For some time matters remained in suspense, without any direct opposition to the laws. At length, a large quantity of tea being sent to Boston, it was seized by the people and thrown into the sea. When intelligence of this proceeding reached England, measures of the most vindictive character were resolved upon. An act was passed for closing the port of Boston, and other acts directed against the charter of Massachusetts, evincing a resolution on the part of Great Britain, which, if submitted to, would have proved fatal to the liberties of America. The flame of indignation broke forth in all parts of the continent. Even those provinces the most remote from Massachusetts, and which had experienced practically none of the evils of which that province complained, were zealous and ardent in the common cause. Massachusetts assembled a provincial congress, voted to raise men and money, and recommended a general assembly of the provinces to be held at Philadelphia. According to this recommendation, a congress of delegates convened in August, 1774; and, after approving of the proceedings in Massa-

chusetts, and pledging themselves not to import from or export
Great Britain, concluded their session by addressing an earn
and firm, but respectful, remonstrance to the British governme
The latter, still resolving to force the colonies to submission, s
over a large additional military force, and passed laws restrain
the trade of all the colonies, except North Carolin
and New York. By this exception they hoped to
union among the provinces: but the expectation was
colonies spurned an advantage offered to them at tl
their sisters. In the mean time warlike preparations
in Massachusetts, as well as on the British side, an
perceived that a contest was unavoidable.

Lexington in Massachusetts was the scene of the
between the Americans and English. Some military
been deposited at Concord, about eighteen miles f
General Gage, the British commander, sent a bod
gulars, on the 18th of April, 1775, to obtain possess
Intelligence of their intentions had previously reached
and the alarm was given by the ringing of bells, and
guns. At Lexington the British fell in with a sm
seventy militia men, upon whom they fired, and kille
wounded several. The fire was returned by the milit
retreated. At Concord the British found another pa
upon whom they again fired. Having succeeded i
the stores, they commenced their retreat, in the progr
they were reinforced by Lord Percy, with 900 men.
retreat the Americans kept up a constant fire; an
British party effected their return to Boston, it was
273, in killed, wounded, and prisoners. A strong r
arrived soon afterwards from England, and was pa
tioned in the town of Boston, while the New En
occupied different posts in the vicinity. An import
called Bunker's Bill, near Boston, was taken posse
partial entrenchments were thrown up by the provin
night of the 16th of June. The number of militia
whom the post was occupied, was about 1500. A
next day a body of three thousand British regulars
dislodge them. The provincials reserved their f
British had approached to within one hundred yards
when they discharged it with such destructive ef
column retreated in the utmost confusion. Twice
disciplined patriots put to flight a body of veteran
their own number. At the third onset, the powder
ricans began to fail, their position was raked by the
British field-pieces, their redoubt was assailed on three sides
once, and, having in vain endeavoured to oppose the bayonets
the British with the buts of their discharged guns, they were co
pelled to abandon the post. Their retreat was effected in go

over Charleston neck. In this glorious action the Ame- killed or wounded upwards of 1000 of the enemy. Their loss did not exceed 400, but among the killed was General ren, whose death was greatly and universally lamented.

he Continental Congress, which convened again at Philadel- the 10th of May, now determined to raise forces in the he United Colonies. On the 15th of June, they unani- ected George Washington, then a member from Virgi- nander-in-chief of the troops. On the 2d of July, he Cambridge, and took command of the forces stationed Vith these undisciplined troops, ill supplied with the of war, Washington undertook the siege or rather the of Boston. Towards the close of this year, a gallant but npt was made upon Canada, by a body of provincials, nerals Montgomery and Arnold. The former invaded y the lakes, while the latter ascended the Kennebec, and narch through the wilderness, during which the men t excessive toils and privations, they succeeded in reach- ec. Here they found themselves without the means of n a regular siege, and after a month's delay, they at- o carry the place by escalade. Two attacks were made y Montgomery and Arnold. The former was killed antly leading his men. The latter was wounded. Many nericans were killed or captured, after a great display of nd the remainder were driven from the walls. The was then abandoned, and the survivors with difficulty he United States. The British remained in possession until March, 1776, when they embarked on board of the sailed for Halifax. General Washington then moved his thward, and established his head-quarters at New York. these affairs were in progress, Congress had vainly at- to obtain a repeal of those edicts which the British go- had directed against the freedom of America. They l themselves to the king, to the parliament, and to the Finding their remonstrances fruitless, these illustrious ans, than whom none of loftier spirit or more steadfast er upheld the liberties of a country, declared the colonies independent, and established a general government. This ct took place on the 4th of July, 1776.

e 23d of August, British troops to the number of 24,000, ded by Sir William Howe, landed on Long Island, about es from New York. The American forces at this time d in number to about 17,000, and those principally raw A partial engagement took place near Brooklyn, on the n which the British, by their numbers and discipline, were rious. Washington, deeming it inexpedient to risk a general , retired from New York Island, which was entered by the

British on the 14th of September. The retreat of the Americans was continued through Jersey and across the Delaware into Pennsylvania. Fort Washington, the only post left on New York Island, was attacked on the 12th of November, and surrendered, after an obstinate resistance. The garrison, consisting of 2700 men, fell into the hands of the enemy. Fort Lee, on the Jersey shore, opposite, was also taken, but the garrison effected their escape. In addition to these misfortunes, great numbers of the militia, whose term of service had expired, returned to their homes, and the remainder were dispirited by the success of the enemy, and destitute of almost every article of comfort. The British pursued with rapidity, but were unable to reach the Delaware before the retreating army had crossed. The pursuit was then given up, and the main body of the enemy cantoned in the vicinity of the river. During the autumn and part of the winter of 1776, the prospects of the United States wore a most gloomy aspect. The once formidable army of Washington was reduced, by desertion, disease, and the expiration of the term of service, to a handful of half-naked and disheartened men; while the invaders were numerous, well organized, and flushed with success. The idea of submission was, however, spurned both by Congress and the army; and the enterprise of Washington soon gave a brighter aspect to affairs. Detachments of Hessian troops had been stationed at Trenton, Bordentown, and Princeton. Upon one or more of these points he resolved to make an attack. Accordingly, on Christmas eve he crossed the Delaware, surprised the post at Trenton, and, after a short resistance, took 1000 prisoners. A few days afterwards, having sent his prisoners to Philadelphia, he eluded the main body of the British, captured or destroyed a large party at Princeton, and finally compelled the enemy to evacuate the principal part of New Jersey. During the spring of 1777, his masterly manœuvres prevented the enemy, though possessing a vastly superior force, from advancing to Philadelphia by land. General Howe therefore changed his plan of operations, and determined to attack the city from the south. He sailed for the Chesapeake, and landed at the head of Elk. Washington, as soon as the arrival of the fleet in the Chesapeake was known, pushed forward with his army, and fronted the enemy at Chad's Ford, on the Brandywine. The British, not daring to attack the Americans in front, crossed at a ford higher up, and assailed the right of Washington's army. After a short but warm contest, the Americans retreated, with the loss of 1200 men, the British losing about half that number. Washington, convinced by the result of this engagement, that general battles were to be avoided in the undisciplined state of his army, now left Philadelphia to its fate. On the 26th of September, Sir William Howe entered the city. His army was principally stationed at Germantown, about six

miles from Philadelphia. Washington, whose lofty spirit was never discouraged by adverse fortune, determined to make an attack upon this post. The plan was well conceived, but accidental causes rendered it unsuccessful. A severe action took place, in which the loss of the Americans was double that of the British.

During the progress of these operations, events had occurred in the northern part of the United States, eminently beneficial to the American cause. For the purpose of opening a communication between New York and Canada, and cutting off the intercourse between the eastern and southern states, a force of upwards of 10,000 men, under general Burgoyne, advanced by way of Lake Champlain towards Albany, in June, 1777. Their first operations were highly successful. Ticonderoga, garrisoned by above 3000 men, surrendered after a short siege; and, notwithstanding the obstacles thrown in his way by the provincials, Burgoyne reached the Hudson, within 36 miles of Albany. The aspect of affairs, however, soon changed. The American army, under General Gates, was stationed in his front, and the patriotism of the people rendered supplies of provisions very precarious. A body of Hessians, in number about 500, which had been despatched by Burgoyne to seize some stores of provisions at Bennington, was attacked by General Starke, with about an equal number of the neighbouring militia. The greater part of the Hessian detachment was captured, and many were killed or wounded. A reinforcement, which was sent by Burgoyne, met with the same fate from the hands of these gallant yeomanry. After vainly endeavouring to retreat, and after two actions, in which his best troops were defeated by the Americans, General Burgoyne surrendered his whole army, at Saratoga, on the 17th of October. This memorable event proved of the utmost importance to the cause of independence. It gave confidence to the people, afforded a supply of the munitions of war, and produced a powerful effect upon the dispositions of foreign governments. Soon after the intelligence reached Europe, a treaty of alliance was concluded between the United States and France. in pursuance of which a fleet and army were despatched to the assistance of the Americans. Fortunately for the British, the French fleet had an unusually long passage to the Delaware; otherwise, it is probable that Sir William Howe's army, which continued in the vicinity of Philadelphia until June, 1778, would have shared the fate of Burgoyne's. The preceding winter had been spent by Washington and his army in a hutted encampment at Valley Forge. Here they endured, with the most heroic fortitude, sufferings and privations under a small part of which mere mercenaries would have sunk. Their stubborn resolution bore them out; and on the retreat of the British, they advanced with alacrity in pursuit. Their numbers and state of discipline, how-

ever, were not such as to authorize Washington to lead them int a general engagement; and, except at Monmouth, when a partia action took place, to the advantage of the Americans, the Britis reached New York without much loss. During the remainder o the year 1778, no other event of importance occurred, than a attempt on Rhode Island by the Americans, under General Sulli van; which failed, owing to the want of a promised co-operatio on the part of the French admiral.

The year 1779 was chiefly passed by the British in marauding excursions. Plunder and revenge appeared to be their object and havoc, and misery, and desolation marked their footsteps Their excesses awakened a fierce spirit of resentment in the Ameri can people, and added to the numbers of the republican army. Th principal operations of the hostile armies were in the southern states. Savannah was captured by the enemy; but an attemp on Charleston was gallantly repulsed. The only event of import ance in the north, was the capture of the strong post at Stone Point, which was carried by assault by a small party of Ameri cans, headed by the gallant General Wayne.

In 1780, the war was continued with vigour in the south. A large force was despatched by the British to Carolina. Charles ton was compelled to surrender, and a great part of the countr overrun by the invaders. To relieve the inhabitants, Congres despatched General Gates with a respectable force. He unfor tunately resolved to fight a general action, and was totally defeate by Lord Cornwallis, at Camden, where many brave and faithfu soldiers perished. He was succeeded in the command by Genera Greene, whose talents soon restored hope to the Americans. B dint of great exertions, he collected together the appearance of a army, with which he was enabled to make head against the British In September of this year, a traitorous attempt on the part o General Arnold to deliver up the important post of West Poin to the British, was fortunately counteracted. Arnold escaped t the enemy; but Major Andre, a British officer, the accomplic of his treason, was taken, and deservedly hanged.

In January, 1781, a brilliant victory was obtained by Genera Morgan, at the Cowpens, with an army inferior in force to th British, and composed in a great measure of militia. The British however, triumphed over the Americans, in a battle fought at Guil ford, in March; but the victory was dearly bought. Cornwallis shortly afterwards moved his army into Virginia, and Greene re turned to South Carolina; where, after suffering a partial check near Camden, he gained a decisive and glorious victory, at Eutaw Springs. Cornwallis in the mean time having received reinforce ments, marched to York Town in Virginia, where he threw up entrenchments. Washington, who with the French army had been threatening New York, suddenly broke up his encampment, and marched to the south, to attack Cornwallis. The Chesapeake wa

blockaded by the French fleet; and on the 30th of September, the investment of the British posts took place. After a siege of seventeen days, in the course of which several of the British out-posts were carried by assault, their whole army, amounting to upwards of 17,000 men, surrendered prisoners of war. This event was decisive of the contest. An expedition against New London was made, by a force under Arnold, to whom the British had given a command; but nothing further of importance occurred during the remainder of the war. The British government, finding that all its efforts to reduce its former colonies to submission were ineffectual, reluctantly acknowledged their independence, by a treaty signed on the 23d of September, 1783.

2. *From the Treaty of Peace of* 1783 *to* 1822.

THE successful issue of a conflict with so powerful a nation as Great Britain, was highly flattering to the national pride of the people of the United States, and gave them an elevated rank in the eyes of foreign nations. The mere establishment of their independence, however, they soon found was far from being sufficent to ensure their prosperity. The expenses of the war had created a debt of many millions, which remained to be paid; an excessive issue of paper currency had taken place, and produced the necessary consequences upon the public wealth and morals; and the system of confederation, which, even with the enthusiasm by which it was upheld during the war, had been found inefficient, now, when the impulse arising from a common danger no longer operated, became merely a nominal bond. The recommendations of Congress, though supported by the most cogent reasons, were generally disregarded: the country was drained of its specie to pay for foreign goods; the value of the public stock sunk to two shillings in the pound, in consequence of the want of funds to pay the interest; and every thing indicated a dissolution of the confederacy and approaching anarchy. This alarming state of things excited in the friends of order an earnest desire for a change in the confederation. At the instance of the legislature of Virginia, commissioners from five of the states assembled at Annapolis, in 1786; who, having taken the subject of the commercial difficulties into consideration, proposed a meeting of delegates from each state, for the purpose of revising the confederation. On the 19th of May, 1787, they convened at Philadelphia; and, on the 17th of September, laid before Congress the result of their labours. They declared that in all their deliberations they had kept steadily in view the consolidation of the union in which is involved the public prosperity and safety, and they expressed an ardent wish that the constitution they had formed might promote the lasting welfare, and secure the freedom and happiness of the country so dear to all. These views and desires were happily accomplished. By that admirable constitution, the ties of union between the states were

drawn closer, the republic was rendered more formidable to other nations, and the general government gained the requisite power and authority in its internal concerns, without drawing too largely upon the liberties of the people. Public opinion, however, was divided on the question of its adoption or rejection. The subject was discussed with great warmth and ability on either side. Conventions were called in each state. In some the ratification of the constitution was obtained with difficulty, and it was not finally adopted by the little state of Rhode Island until after the lapse of two years. Eleven states having ratified it, the government went into operation in 1789.

However discordant the opinions of the American public in relation to the constitution, there was but one sentiment with regard to the individual by whom the office of president should be first filled. All eyes were turned upon him by whom the liberties of the country had been vindicated in the field, and who, at the close of the contest, had retired to private life, without a stain upon the purity of his character. Washington was unanimously chosen president, and accepted the office with unfeigned reluctance. John Adams was chosen vice-president. The beneficial effects of the new system of government, administered as it was by such men, was soon perceived. Trade revived, confidence was restored, and the condition of the people sensibly improved. During the war that arose out of the French revolution, the United States remained neutral. The wise policy of Washington discouraged all proceedings tending to involve the country in a contest with either party.

The feelings of a large portion of the community were warmly enlisted on the side of France, and would have urged the nation into hostilities with England. The neutral course pursued by the government met with opposition; and increased the hostility of the two parties, which, under the names of republicans and federalists, have so long divided the nation. In consequence of the hostility of the Indians, who, after defeating General St. Clair, were finally routed and dispersed by General Wayne, some additional regiments were raised, to support which an excise was laid on whisky. An insurrection broke out in some of the western counties of Pennsylvania, which, however, the energy and prudence of the government soon suppressed. Washington was unanimously re-elected to the presidency in 1793; and, on the approach of the period at which this second term expired, declined a re-election in a farewell letter, which breathes the purest patriotism and the warmest affection for his beloved country. He was succeeded in office by John Adams, a distinguished actor in the revolution. During his presidency, the French revolutionary government, disappointed in the object of engaging the United States in the war with England, pursued a course of insult and aggression towards them, which ended in actual hostilities. The American administration had forborne for a long time, but at length adopted

measures of retaliation and defence. A provisional army of regular troops was established, and the navy was increased by several frigates. Washington was appointed by the unanimous consent of the senate Lieutenant-General and Commander-in-chief of the Armies of the United States. This illustrious citizen died shortly afterwards, leaving behind the character of the most pure and faultless of patriots. When information of his death reached Congress, resolutions expressive of the national grief for a public loss were adopted; and it was recommended to the people of the United States to wear crape for thirty days, a measure which was universally adopted. Hostilities between the United States and France continued only a few months, and were altogether confined to the ocean. Two severe and well-fought actions took place between frigates, in both of which the Americans were victorious; the first between the frigate Constellation of 38 guns, and the French frigate L'Insurgente of about equal force, in which the latter was captured; the second was between the same American frigate and La Vengeance, of superior force, which made her escape in the night, after having, it was believed, struck her colours.

In 1801, a revolution took place in the administration of public affairs. The republican party having become the majority, succeeded in elevating their candidate, Mr. Jefferson, to the presidency, in opposition to Mr. Adams. During the first term of his official career, the United States enjoyed a singular degree of commercial prosperity, while the benefits of free institutions were visible in the elevated character and happy condition of the people. The European war, a cessation of which had taken place, was renewed, after a short breathing time, in 1803. The principal belligerents, whose wide-spread schemes of hostility towards each other had, during the administration of preceding presidents, occasionally depredated on neutrals; began, about 1806, to display a more offensive demeanour. By their neutral position the United States had gained a great accession of wealth, and excited the jealousy of the English, who saw them becoming the carriers of produce between France and her colonies. To counteract this commerce the law of nations was disregarded, and neutral rights violated by the British government. For the purpose of cutting off the entire trade with France, they declared the greater part of the French coast in a state of blockade, without pursuing the ancient mode of stationing a naval armament to enforce it. The emperor Napoleon retaliated by an edict of a similar nature, the execution of which was evidently impracticable in the state of the French marine. The English then issued their memorable orders in council, by which they presumed to forbid any trade whatever with France or her dependencies; and in a subsequent decree Napoleon declared all neutral vessels denationalized which should suffer themselves to be visited by an English vessel of war. In these hostile proceedings the English were plainly the aggressors. They had, besides, outraged the

national dignity of the United States by an unprovoked attack upon the frigate Chesapeake; by the frequent impressment of American seamen; and by the hostile and insulting demeanour of their vessels of war stationed at the mouths of the American harbours to enforce their orders in council. Remonstrances were tried in vain; and Congress resolved that the nation could not submit, without a surrender of independence. The country was not, however, prepared for war: and although the aggressions of the English far surpassed those of France in violence and magnitude, yet the wrongs inflicted by the latter could not be passed over without notice. A system of restrictions upon commerce, which should operate towards both belligerents, was therefore attempted. In December, 1807, an embargo was laid on all American vessels, the restrictions of which were enforced by several subsequent acts. After the experience of upwards of a year, and when it was supposed by many that this measure was producing the desired effect in Europe, Congress, yielding to the earnest petitions of the commercial interest, repealed the embargo law, and substituted an act interdicting the commercial intercourse with both Great Britain and France; but giving to the president authority to remove the restriction in case of an amicable arrangement. In the year 1809, Mr. Jefferson having declined a re-election, James Madison was chosen president, and, at the same time, George Clinton was re-chosen vice-president. In April an arrangement was made with Erskine, the British minister, by which the latter engaged, on the part of his government, for the repeal of the obnoxious orders, and the president consented on the other hand to the renewal of the commercial intercourse between the two countries. The British government, however, did not think proper to ratify this act of their minister, on the ground of its having been concluded without sufficient authority. The non-intercourse with Great Britain was consequently renewed. Mr. Erskine was succeeded in his functions of ambassador by Jackson, memorable for having been the diplomatist at the attack upon Copenhagen. This person having, soon after the commencement of his correspondence with the secretary of state, offered a gross insult to the government, the president declined any further correspondence with him, and desired his recal. His government subsequently recalled him, but only to promote him to another station. In August, 1810, the French government officially announced to the American minister at Paris, that the Berlin and Milan decrees would cease to operate on the 1st November ensuing. The president accordingly issued a proclamation on the 2d of November, declaring that the intercourse between the United States and France might lawfully be renewed. In May, 1811, the British sloop of war Little Belt, one of the many armed vessels which that government had stationed on the American coast to harass the American commerce, had the audacity to fire upon the United States' frigate President. A few

shot from the latter were sufficient to cripple her. In November of the same year, an action was fought at Tippecanoe, between an army of regulars and militia commanded by Governor Harrison, and a large body of Indians, in which the latter were defeated, with the loss of upwards of 170 killed and wounded.

The system of restrictions upon commerce was continued until 1812, when the increasing outrages of Great Britain called for more decided and effective measures. With a view to hostilities, the president was authorized to augment the number of the regular army. Volunteers were accepted, and the few frigates belonging to the navy were ordered to be fitted out. War was declared on the 18th of June, 1812, having been recommended by the president in a message to both houses. Notwithstanding the length of time in which hostilities had been meditated, they were commenced with a very imperfect state of preparation on the part of the Americans. An addition to the regular army of twenty-five thousand men had been authorized; but few of them had been enlisted, and few persons were found sufficiently acquainted with military science to act as officers. The volunteers and militia were undisciplined, however zealous and patriotic. In consequence of these imperfect preparations, and the want of sufficient foresight in other respects on the part of the government, the initial operations of the war were marked by singular ill-success. An army, composed principally of volunteers and militia, under the command of General Hull, invaded Canada from the Michigan territory, in July; and, after a brief possession of a portion of the enemy's country, fell back to Detroit. The British having the command of the lake, immediately cut off his communication with the state of Ohio, from which he had derived his supplies. Two attempts made to open the route failed of success. In this situation a British force, under General Brock, advanced against the American troops; and, without waiting an attack, General Hull surrendered his army prisoners of war. He was afterwards tried by a court-martial, and condemned to be shot. The president approved the sentence, but remitted the punishment in consequence of the age and revolutionary services of the general. On the Niagara frontier the operations of the Americans were almost equally unfortunate. About 1000 troops, commanded by General Van Rensselaer, crossed the river in November, and attacked the British at Queenstown. They were at first successful, having beaten the enemy with the bayonet; but not receiving the expected reinforcements, and their retreat to the opposite shore being cut off, they were, after a long and obstinate engagement, compelled to surrender.

The disappointment arising from the failure of these military enterprises, was amply counterbalanced by the glorious success of the American flag on the ocean, the previous, and, as it had seemed, the peculiar theatre of British triumph. On the 20th of August,

1812, the United States' frigate Constitution fell in with the British frigate Guerriere of about equal force. The latter advanced to the conflict, confident in the reputation of the British arms, and anticipating an easy triumph over her opponent; but in the short space of thirty minutes, the well-directed fire of the Constitution placed her in a sinking state, and she was forced to surrender, with the loss of 100 men killed, wounded, and missing. On board the Constitution seven only were killed, and seven wounded. This brilliant exploit was followed by others of a similar nature. On the 25th of October, the frigate United States, commanded by captain Decatur, engaged the British frigate Macedonian, and, after an action of an hour and a half, the duration of which was prolonged by the manœuvres of the enemy, compelled her to surrender, with the loss of upwards of 100 killed and wounded. The Macedonian was sent into the United States, and added to the navy. In November, the British sloop of war Frolic was captured by boarding, after a severe engagement with the American sloop of war Wasp, of inferior force. About thirty were killed, and fifty wounded, on board of the Frolic: the American loss was four killed and five wounded. Before the close of this year, another brilliant victory added lustre to the American arms. The frigate Constitution being off the coast of Brazil, encountered the British frigate Java, carrying an equal number of guns, but having a larger number of men, there being on board, besides her original crew of 400 men, 100 supernumeraries, and several military passengers. A warm action ensued, which continued about an hour, when the fire of the Constitution reduced her opponent to an unmanageable wreck, and she struck her colours. Her loss was very great, sixty having been killed, and one hundred and twenty wounded. Of the crew of the Constitution nine were killed, and twenty-five wounded. It being found impossible to bring the prize into port, she was destroyed by the captors. Not long afterwards, the sloop of war Hornet, commanded by captain James Lawrence, fell in with and captured the British sloop of war Peacock of superior force, after an action of only eight minutes. Besides these triumphs of the public vessels of the United States, many gallant exploits were performed by privateers, of which we have not room to give even an outline.

The military operations of the year 1813 were productive of alternate success and reverses. The north-western frontier, on which the arms of the republic had met with a signal disaster, was again the theatre of misfortune and bloodshed. After the capture of Hull's army, the government immediately called out detachments of the militia and volunteers from Kentucky, Ohio, and Pennsylvania, and placed the whole under the command of General Harrison. The arrangements of this officer were well concerted to obtain the object proposed in the first instance, the recovery of Detroit. In pursuance of his plans, General Winches-

ter was sent forward to the rapids of Miami, with about 800 men, with directions to commence the building of huts. Early in January he arrived at this post, and formed a fortified camp; but hearing of an intended attack upon Frenchtown, at the river Raisin, by the Indians, he moved forward to that place. Here, on the morning of the 22d of January, he was suddenly attacked by a large force of British and Indians, commanded by Colonel Proctor. The Americans were surrounded and surprised, and though they fought with coolness and courage, it was soon perceived to be in vain to contend with the enemy's superior numbers. To preserve those who had not already fallen, their general surrendered them prisoners of war, to the number of about 500. After the battle, the English commenced their march to Malden, leaving the unfortunate prisoners in charge of the Indians, with whose ferocious disposition they were well acquainted. A most barbarous massacre ensued, and of those who escaped the tomahawk or the flames, many were sold into captivity. No effort was made by the British to save these unfortunate soldiers, although Colonel Proctor had expressly engaged that they should be protected. On the Ontario frontier the American arms enjoyed a brief advantage. York, the seat of government of Upper Canada, being abandoned by the enemy, was taken possession of by troops under the command of General Dearborn, on the 27th of April. When the Americans were within a short distance of the British works, after they had driven before them the best of the enemy's troops with the bayonet, an explosion took place from a magazine previously prepared for the purpose, by which about one hundred were killed, among whom was the commander of the detachment, General Pike, an officer of distinguished military talents and bravery, whose loss was deeply lamented. His troops, undismayed by the fall of their leader, or the new species of enemy they had to contend with, gave loud cheers, and pushed forward to avenge his death. Having destroyed or removed most of the public stores, the army evacuated York.

On the 27th of May, a detachment proceeded to attack Fort George, which surrendered after a sharp contest, in which a superior force of British regulars were beaten by the American advance. During the absence of General Dearborn with the troops from Sacket's Harbour, an attempt was made upon that post by a formidable force under Sir George Prevost. They were received, however, with so much coolness and good conduct by General Brown, with a small body of militia, volunteers, seamen, and regulars, hastily collected, that they betook themselves to flight, leaving behind them their wounded and prisoners. At the Beaver Dams, near Fort George, a detachment of Americans, under the command of Generals Chandler and Winder, were surprised at night by a British party, and both the generals ingloriously captured. On the borders of Lake Erie, the cam-

paign opened with an attack by the British upon Fort Sandusky, in which they were repulsed with loss, by the gallant commander, Major Croghan. After the defeat and capture of General Winchester, General Harrison concentrated his forces at the Rapids, where he erected a fort; which, after the Governor of Ohio, received the name of Fort Meigs. The allied forces advanced to this place, and commenced a siege in May, 1813. They were fortunately unsuccessful. Notwithstanding the repulse of a body of Kentuckians, who, descending the river to the relief of the fort, were defeated by the enemy, the siege was raised without any great loss having been incurred by either party. In the mean time, great exertions had been making to gain the ascendency on Lake Erie. The American squadron, commanded by Commodore Perry, consisted of nine vessels carrying fifty-six guns: the British, of six vessels with 69 guns. On the morning of the 10th of September, the two squadrons encountered each other. The action was long and well contested, and, at one period, the principal American vessel had struck her colours. A bold and unusual manœuvre of the American commander, however, decided the fortune of the day. After an action of three hours, the whole British squadron surrendered, not a single vessel escaping. This glorious victory relieved the entire north-western frontier from the presence of the enemy. General Harrison hastened to take advantage of the facilities it afforded. He embarked his main army on board of the American squadron, and landing on the Canadian shore, immediately marched in pursuit of the enemy. Near the river Thames an action was fought on the 5th of October, which terminated in the total defeat and dispersion of the British army. Six hundred prisoners, principally regular troops, and several pieces of cannon, were taken. With this action ended the important occurrences of the war on the north-western frontier.

During the early part of the war, the Atlantic frontier enjoyed comparative peace. In the spring of 1813, a series of devastating hostility began on the shores of the Chesapeake, which reflected no honour on the British arms. The chief actor in these scenes was Admiral Cockburn, whose exploits will long be remembered in this quarter. After plundering farm-houses and rifling churches, the enemy's troops were employed on a bolder scale. With the hope of obtaining possession of Norfolk, an attack was made on Craney Island, which fortunately eventuated in the total defeat of the invaders. The small town of Hampton was, however, taken, and given up to violation and plunder. During the remainder of this year, the British in the Chesapeake were chiefly employed in threatening Washington and Baltimore. Admiral Cockburn pursued, on the shores of the Carolinas, the same system of pillage and devastation that he had previously practised in the Chesapeake. On the ocean, the American frigate Chesapeake

gas, in consequence of the unfortunate death of her commander, and the disabled state of most of the officers, captured by the British frigate Shannon, of somewhat superior force and equipment: and the sloop of war Argus was taken by the British ship Pelican, of superior force; but on the other hand, the British sloop of war Peacock of 20 guns was taken by the Hornet of 18, and the Boxer of 16 guns was taken by the American brig Enterprise of similar force. In the latter part of this year, a formidable expedition was fitted out for an attempt on Montreal. The object was to be effected by the union of two divisions, one of which was to advance from Plattsburg under General Hampton, and the other to descend the St. Lawrence under General Wilkinson. The former made a short incursion into Canada, when, in consequence of a disagreement between the two generals, he returned within the boundary line. The expedition under Wilkinson after proceeding a short distance down the river, and having encountered, without much success, a body of the enemy, found the obstacles greater than were anticipated, and abandoned the attempt. The army then went into winter quarters. Early in the spring, General Wilkinson made another incursion into Canada, which ended unsuccessfully. He was soon afterwards superseded in the command, which was given to General Lard. On the Niagara frontier, events occured which retrieved the character of the American arms. Great pains had been taken to improve the discipline of the troops, and prepare them to encounter the veteran soldiers of the enemy. The command was assigned to General Brown, who had distinguished himself at Sackett's Harbour. On the 2d of July, the troops crossed, and having captured Fort Erie with its garrison, proceeded to attack the British position at Chippewa. The respective forces were about equal in numbers. On the 5th of July, a very obstinate and well-fought battle took place, which terminated in favour of the Americans, who carried all the British positions by the bayonet, and finally converted their retreat into a disorderly flight. Another still more warmly-contested battle occurred on the 25th of the same month. The enemy having been reinforced, advanced towards the American position, and was attacked by General Scott near the falls of Niagara. After a great display of valour, the enemy, beaten by the bayonet, was forced to retreat with great loss. The American force, however, was so much weakened, that it fell back to Fort Erie. The British advanced to lay siege to the fort, but their operations proved unsuccessful. An attempt to carry it by assault was defeated with great slaughter, and, in a sally upon the besiegers' lines, the Americans gained great advantages. The operations on this frontier during the remainder of the war were of minor consequence. On the northern frontier, the arms of the republic obtained a glorious triumph. The whole British squadron on Lake Champlain surrendered, after a warm contest, to an

American squadron of inferior force. A powerful mi
dition, commanded by Governor Prevost, was rep
attack on Plattsburg, and compelled to abandon its vie
this year, the British government availed itself of its po
to pillage and lay waste the Atlantic frontier. In th
August, a body of about 4500 men was landed near W
and took possession of that place. After destroying
public buildings, they retired without molestation. T
arising from this event was in some measure retrieved,
feat of the enemy in a similar attempt upon Baltimor
ocean, the reputation of the American flag continued
tained. The frigate President was, however, captured
dron of the enemy, and the Essex by two vessels of su
after a most desperate engagement, and great slaught
capture of the Epervier, the Avon, the Reindeer, the
Levant, and the Penguin, proved, that in actions betw
of equal force the Americans were uniformly succe
military operations of the war were closed by an attack
Orleans, by a formidable and well-appointed British a
was defeated by the consummate skill of General Ja
the bravery of the western militia. Peace, which h
some time in negotiation, was concluded at Ghent,
of December, 1814.

Immediately after the ratification of peace with E
government resolved to chastise the insolence of Al
had taken advantage of the English war to prey o
commerce. A squadron was accordingly despatched,
modore Decatur; who, after capturing a frigate a
war, compelled the Dey to sign a treaty, renouncing
practice of holding American prisoners in slavery.
treaty was concluded with Spain, by which that pow
cede Florida to the United States. After many vexa
on the part of the Spanish crown, the treaty was fin
and the American troops took possession of the territ
In 1822, the Congress of the United States, by an al
mous vote in each house, recognised the independ
late Spanish provinces in America.

F

CHRONOLOGY

OF

THE UNITED STATES:

Exhibiting the principal Events of their History, from the Revolution of 1776 *to* 1822.

1776.

March 17. The British evacuate Boston.
May 5. The American army raises the siege of Quebec, and soon after evacuates Canada.
July 4. Congress declares the independence of the colonies.
July 5. The present constitution of Virginia adopted.
July 28. The British repulsed in an attack upon Sullivan's Island, near Charleston.
Aug. 14. The present constitution of Maryland adopted.
Aug. 22. The British army lands on Long Island.
Aug. 27. The battle of Flatbush, on Long Island, in which the Americans are defeated.
Sept. 14. New York evacuated by General Washington.
The colonies first styled *United States* by a resolution of congress.
Sept. 26. Commissioners sent by congress to France.
Oct. 12. Arnold defeated by General Carleton at Champlain.
Oct. 28. Battle of White Plains.
Nov. 16. The British take Fort Washington.
Nov. 18. The Americans evacuate Fort Lee.
Nov. 28. General Washington retreats across the Delaware.
Dec. 8. The British take possession of Rhode Island.
Dec. 12. Congress adjourns to Baltimore, and gives Washington full powers.
Dec. 13. General Lee taken prisoner by the British.
Dec. 26. Battle of Trenton: 900 Hessians taken prisoners,

1777.

Jan. 3. Battle of Princeton: the British defeated.
March 23. Stores at Peek's Kill destroyed by the British.
April 20. The present constitution of New York established.
April 26. The British destroy the stores at Danbury.
May 23. Colonel Meigs destroys British stores at Sagg Harbour.
July 6. General Burgoyne takes Ticonderoga.
Aug. 6. General Herkimer defeated by the Indians.
Aug. 16. Battle of Bennington, in which General Stark attacks the British, and gains a complete victory.
Sept. 11. Battle of Brandywine. The Americans defeated.
Sept. 19. Battle near Stillwater, between Gates and Burgoyne.
Sept. 20. General Wayne surprised by the British.

Sept. 27. The British take possession of Philadelphia.
Oct. 4. Battle of Germantown: the result indecisive.
Oct. 6. Forts Clinton and Montgomery taken by the British.
Oct. 7. Second battle of Stillwater. The British defeated.
Oct. 17. Convention of Saratoga, by which Burgoyne surrenders.
Oct. 22. The British defeated at Red Bank.
Nov. 16. Fort Mifflin attacked by the British.
Dec. 18. The constitution of North Carolina adopted.

1778.

Feb. 6. A treaty of alliance concluded with France.
March. The American frigate Randolph, of 32 guns, blown up in an engagement with the Yarmouth of 64 guns.
June. Congress rejects the propositions of the British commissioners.
June 18. Philadelphia evacuated by the British.
June 28. Battle of Monmouth: the British defeated.
A French fleet arrives off the coast of America.
July 1. Massacre of the Americans at Wyoming.
Aug. 29. Battle on Rhode Island: the British repulsed.
Sept. 28. Colonel Baylor's regiment surprised by the British.
Dec. 29. The British capture Savannah, after defeating the Americans under General Howe.

1779.

Jan. General Lincoln takes command of the southern army.
March 3. The Americans under General Ash defeated at Briar's Creek.
April. The British march towards Charleston.
May 12. The British besiege Charleston, but are forced to raise the siege.
June 20. General Lincoln attacks the British at Stony Ferry, without success.
May. The British make a descent on the coast of Virginia, and take Portsmouth and Norfolk.
July 5. Newhaven plundered by the British.
July 7. The towns of Fairfield, Green-Farms, and Norwalk, burnt by the British.
July 16. Stony Point taken by storm by the Americans, under General Wayne.
July 19. The British post at Paulus Hook surprised by Major Lee.
Aug. 29. General Sullivan defeats the Indians of the Six Nations.
Sept. 23. Two British frigates taken by Paul Jones.
Oct. 4. The French and Americans lay siege to Savannah.
Oct. 9. An unsuccessful attempt made to storm Savannah.

1780.

Jan. Sir Henry Clinton sails with a large expedition against South Carolina.

March 2. The constitution of Massachusetts adopted.
March 21. The British lay siege to Charleston, South Carolina.
April 14. The American cavalry at Monk's Corner surprised.
May 12. Sir Henry Clinton bombards Charleston, which is forced to surrender.
May 29. Colonel Buford defeated at the Waxhaws by the British Colonel Tarleton.
June. Sir Henry Clinton returns to New York, leaving about 4000 men in Carolina, under Lord Cornwallis.
June 23. An action takes place at Springfield, in New Jersey, in which the Americans are forced to retreat.
July 12. Gen. Sumpter defeats a party of royalists at Williamson's.
Aug. 6. The Prince of Wales's regiment cut to pieces by General Sumpter at the Hanging Rock.
Aug. 16. Battle of Camden, in which the Americans are defeated with great loss.
Sept. 21. The British Major Andre taken. Arnold escapes.
Oct. 7. Action at King's Mountain, 800 British prisoners taken.
Nov. 20. General Sumpter defeats Colonel Tarleton.

1781.

Jan. 1. Revolt of the Pennsylvania line, which is very soon quelled.
Jan. 17. The British defeated at the Cowpens, by Gen. Morgan.
March 15. Battle of Guilford. The Americans retreat.
April 25. Battle of Camden. The Americans repulsed.
Sept. 5. Indecisive naval engagement between the French and English off the Capes of Virginia.
Sept. 6. New London burnt by the British, under the command of Arnold.
Sept. 8. Battle of Eutaw Springs, in which the British are defeated with the loss of 1000 men.
Sept. 14. General Washington reaches Williamsburgh, and commences operations against Cornwallis.
Sept. 30. Yorktown invested by the Americans and French.
Oct. 19. Convention of Yorktown, by which Cornwallis's army surrenders to Washington.
Dec. 31. The bank of North America established. Charter confirmed by Pennsylvania, April 1, 1782.

1782.

May 21. Gen. Wayne defeats a body of the British near Savannah.
Oct. 8. Treaty of amity and commerce concluded between the United States and Holland.
Nov. 5. The *America,* the first 74 gun ship of the United States, launched at Portsmouth, New Hampshire.
Nov. 30. Provisional articles of peace agreed upon.
Died this year Major-general Charles Lee.

1783.

Feb. 5. The Independence of the U. S. acknowledged by Sweden.
Feb. 15. Treaty of amity and commerce concluded with Denmark.
March 22. Congress commutes the half pay of the officers of the army to full pay for five years.
March 24. Spain formerly acknowledges the independence of the United States.
July. Russia acknowledges the independence of the United States.
Sept. 23. The definitive treaty of peace between the United States and Great Britain signed at Paris.
Oct. 18. Congress issues a proclamation for disbanding the army.
Nov. General Washington issues his farewell orders to the army.
Nov. 25. The city of New York evacuated by the British army.
Dec. 4. General Washington bids adieu to the officers of the army.
Dec. 23. General Washington resigns his commission to congress.
The abolition of slavery completely effected in Massachusetts.
The Society of Cincinnati established by the American officers.
The inhabitants of Lower Canada amount to 113,000.
Died, this year, Major-general Lord Stirling, aged 57, and James Otis, famous as a political writer.

1784.

Feb. The ship Empress of China, sails from New York for Canton, being the first voyage from the United States to China.
An act of the legislature of Connecticut passed, declaring that no negro or mulatto child, born within the state after the 1st of March, 1784, should be held in servitude longer than until the age of 25.
The number of negroes imported into South Carolina in 1783 and 1784, is 6562.
St. John's College at Annapolis, in Maryland, founded.
A Roman Catholic college founded at Georgetown, on the Potomac.
The Massachusetts bank incorporated.

1785.

A treaty of amity and commerce concluded between the United States and Prussia.
The University of Athens, in Georgia, founded by the legislature.
Virginia appoints commissioners to meet those of other states, to form commercial regulations.

1786.

Aug. 22. A convention of delegates from the county of Hampshire, in Massachusetts, meets to obtain a redress of grievances. The counties of Worcester, Berkshire, and others, assemble for the same purpose.
A body of insurgents, amounting to 1500, assembles under arms

at Northampton, Massachusetts, and prevents the courts of justice from proceeding with their business.

Sept. 2. The governor of Massachusetts issues a proclamation against the insurgents.

Sept. 14. The first meeting of the commissioners at Annapolis, for the purpose of adopting commercial regulations.

The insurgents of the counties of Worcester and Middlesex, Massachusetts, prevent the courts of justice from sitting.

General Cobb counteracts the designs of the insurgents in Bristol.

Sept. 20. A body of insurgents surround the legislature of New Hampshire, for the purpose of compelling the emission of paper money, but soon disperse.

Portland in the District of Maine incorporated.

The town of Harrisburg, in Pennsylvania, founded.

The number of inhabitants in Massachusetts 356,542.

The inhabitants of the state of New York amount to 238,897.

Columbia, the seat of government of South Carolina, founded.

Died this year, Major-general Greene, aged 47, and James Oglethorpe, the founder of Georgia.

1787.

Jan. A body of troops ordered out by the legislature of Massachusetts, and placed under the command of General Lincoln.

Jan. 25. The insurgents, under Shays, make an attack on the arsenal at Springfield, but are defeated by General Shepard.

Feb. General Lincoln surprises the main body of the insurgents at Petersham, defeats them, and takes many prisoners.

March 10. The legislature of Massachusetts appoints commissioners to offer conditions to the insurgents.

The insurrection in Massachusetts completely overcome.

May 25. The convention for the purpose of revising the Federal Constitution meets at Philadelphia.

Sept. 17. The states represented in the convention, unanimously agree upon a new constitution.

Oct. 4. Congress resolves that the new constitution be submitted to a convention in each state.

New York cedes a large body of land to Massachusetts.

South Carolina cedes the western territory of that state towards the Mississippi, to the United States.

Columbia College in the city of New York incorporated.

Baltimore contains 1959 houses, nine churches, and 164 warehouses and stores.

A great fire destroys 100 houses in Boston.

Dec. 7. The convention of Delaware ratifies the new constitution.

Dec. 12. The new constitution adopted by the convention of Pennsylvania.

Dec. 18. The convention of New Jersey adopts the constitution.

1788.

Jan. 2. The constitution adopted by the convention of Georgia.
Jan. 9. The convention of Connecticut ratifies the constitution.
Feb. 6. Constitution adopted by the convention of Massachusetts.
April 28. The constitution adopted by the convention of Maryland.
May 23. Convention of South Carolina adopts the constitution.
June 21. Convention of New Hampshire adopts the constitution.
June 26. The constitution ratified by the convention of Virginia, after ardent debates.
July 26. The convention of New York ratifies the constitution.
The black cotton seed introduced into Georgia from the Bahama Islands.
Died, this year, John Ledyard, of Connecticut, a celebrated traveller.

1789.

March 3. Delegates from the several states assemble at New York.
George Washington elected president, and John Adams vice-president.
April 30. President and vice-president inaugurated at New York.
The first Roman Catholic bishop consecrated in the United States.
The seat of government of South Carolina removed to Columbia.
Nov. 21. Convention of North Carolina ratifies the constitution.
The first Roman Catholic church founded in Boston.
Died, this year, Lord Howe, commander of the British fleet in the American war, aged 74; General Knyphausen, of the Hessians, aged 59; James Varnum, a Major-general in the American army; and Ethan Allen, of Vermont.

1790.

The first census of the people of the United States taken. The number of inhabitants 3,929,526, of whom 695,655 are slaves.
April. Congress passes an act accepting a cession from North Carolina of its western lands.
May 20. A territorial government established in the western territory south of the Ohio.
May 29. The convention of Rhode Island ratifies the constitution.
Sept. 2. The present constitution of Pennsylvania adopted, by a convention held at Philadelphia.
Aug. 30. A treaty of peace concluded with the Creek Indians.
Sept. 30. General Harmar defeated by the Indians, with the loss of 180 men.
Dec. Vermont and Kentucky authorized by congress to form state constitutions.
The first American vessel that circumnavigated the globe returns to Boston.
The present constitution of South Carolina adopted.
The Connecticut Society for the abolition of slavery formed.

April 17. Died, Benjamin Franklin, aged 85, at Philadelphia.
May 29. Died, General Israel Putnam, aged 72, William Livingston, governor of New Jersey, and James Bowdoin, late governor of Massachusetts.

1791.

Feb. 18. Vermont admitted as an independent state into the union.
March 3. The subscribers to the bank of the United States incorporated by congress.
Congress establishes a mint at Philadelphia.
Nov. 4. General St. Clair defeated by the Indians, with the loss of about 600 killed and missing, and 200 wounded.
A college founded at Burlington, in Vermont.
The exports of New York amount to 2,505,465 dollars.
The militia of S. Carolina amount to 25,435!
The first folio and the first quarto edition of the English Bible published this year.
The revenue of the United States this year 4,771,200 dollars, and the expenditure 3,797,436.
The exports from the United States this year 19,012,040 dollars.

1792.

June 1. Kentucky admitted into the union as a state.
An act passed by the legislature of Connecticut for enlarging the powers, and increasing the funds of Yale college.
The present constitution of Delaware adopted.
The present constitution of New Hampshire adopted.
The banks of New Hampshire and Pennsylvania, and the South Carolina bank established. Union bank of Boston incorporated.
The exports from Charleston, South Carolina, this year, estimated at 2,917,979 dollars.
Revenue of the United States, this year, estimated at 3,700,000 dollars.
The amount of tonnage on which duty was paid, 800,261 tons, of which 549,279 are American, and 209,246 British.
The exports from the United States this year, 20,753,097 dollars.
Died this year, Henry Laurens, formerly president of congress, and Lieutenant-general Burgoyne.

1793.

March 4. George Washington again inaugurated president, and John Adams vice-president.
April 29. President Washington issues a proclamation of neutrality in the wars between the European powers.
The taxable inhabitants of Pennsylvania amount to upwards of 90,000, those of Philadelphia to 7088.
The yellow fever desolates Philadelphia; about 3500 persons die of the disease.

The Wesleyan methodists in the United States amount this year to more than 60,000; the baptists to 73,471.

The entries at the port of New York are 2064, of which 683 are from foreign ports.

The exports from the United States this year, are, 26,109,572 dollars, of which 3,676,412 are from Massachusetts, 2,934,370 from New York, 6,958,736 from Pennsylvania, 3,687,119 from Maryland, 2,984,317 from Virginia, and 3,195,874 from South Carolina.

Died this year, John Hancock, formerly president of congress, Arthur Lee, Roger Sherman of Connecticut, and John Manly.

1794.

March. Congress passes an act for fortifying the principal ports, and for providing a naval armament to cruise against the Algerines.

June 26. A treaty concluded between the U. S. and the Cherokees.

July. An insurrection breaks out in the western counties of Pennsylvania, caused by the duties on distilled spirits.

Aug. 7. President Washington issues a proclamation, requiring the insurgents to disperse.

Aug. 20. General Wayne defeats the Indians at the Miami, who suffer great loss. The loss of the Americans in killed and wounded is 133.

Sept. General Washington calls out the militia to suppress the insurrection in Pennsylvania.

Oct. General Washington proceeds with the militia to Bedford, in Pennsylvania.

Oct. 24. The insurgents submit to the government.

Nov. 11. Treaty between the United States and the Six Nations of Indians concluded.

Nov. 19. Treaty of amity and commerce between the United States and Great Britain concluded.

Dec. 2. Treaty concluded with the Oneidas and other Indians.

The exports from the United States this year were 33,026,233 dollars, foreign and domestic.

The entries at the port of New York this year are 2,314.

Died this year, John Witherspoon, aged 72; Richard Henry Lee, formerly president of congress, aged 65; Gen. Sullivan, aged 54, and Baron Steuben, aged 61.

1795.

Feb. 19. General thanksgiving observed throughout the U. States.

Aug. A treaty of peace concluded at Greenville, between the United States and the Wyandots and other Indians.

Oct. A treaty of peace concluded with Spain.

Nov. 28. A treaty concluded between the United States and Algiers.

The legislature of Georgia passes an act for the sale of its western lands.
Exports of the U. States amount this year to 47,989,472 dollars.
Richmond, in Virginia, contains about 4000 inhabitants.
Imports into Baltimore this year are in value 5,811,379 dollars.
Died this year, Francis Marion, a distinguished officer of the revolution.

1796.

June 1. Tenessee admitted into the union as a state.
June 20. A great fire destroys 300 houses in Charleston, S. C.
Nov. 25. 350 buildings destroyed by fire in Savannah.
Albany contains 862 houses, and 6021 inhabitants.
President Washington addresses a farewell letter to the people of the United States, and declines a re-election.
Congress votes the supplies necessary for carrying the British treaty into effect.
Post at Detroit delivered up by the British, according to treaty.
Exports this year, from the United States, are 67,064,097 dollars.
Died this year, Samuel Huntington, formerly president of congress, aged 64; David Rittenhouse, aged 64; and General Anthony Wayne.

1797.

Jan. A treaty of peace between the United States and Tripoli, concluded.
March 4. John Adams inaugurated president, and Thomas Jefferson vice-president.
The French government refuses to receive the American envoy.
June 5. A new embassy to France appointed, consisting of Charles Cotesworth Pinkney, Elbridge Gerry, and John Marshall.
July 7. An act of congress declares the existing treaties with France to be no longer obligatory.
Oct. The Constitution frigate launched at Boston.
The revenue of the post-office, this year, is 46,000 dollars.
The yellow fever again prevails in Philadelphia.
The exports from the United States, this year, are 51,294,710 dolls.

1798.

May. Congress passes an act to raise a provisional army, and an act to protect the commerce of the United States.
June. An act passed to authorize merchant vessels to defend themselves against depredations.
July 13. George Washington appointed lieutenant-general, and commander-in-chief of the additional army.
Oct. 2. Castle William, at Boston, ceded to the United States.
Oct. 25. The Commissioners of the United States and Great Britain determine the boundary line of the St. Croix.

Nov. Upwards of 130 dwelling-houses destroyed by fire in Wilmington, N. Carolina, where in the preceding April upwards of 50 had been destroyed.
Transylvania University in Kentucky founded.
In Philadelphia, 3645 persons die of the yellow fever this year; in New York, 1310 persons of the same disease.
Number of vessels in the American navy are 13, carrying 300 guns.
The exports of the United States, this year, are 61,327,411 dolls.

1799.

Feb. 10. The United States frigate Constellation, of 38 guns, Capt. Truxtun, captures the French frigate L'Insurgente of 44 guns.
March 26. A treaty of peace between the United States and Tunis concluded.
July 11. A treaty of peace between the United States and Prussia concluded.
Dec. 14. Died George Washington, aged 68.
A new embassy appointed to France, consisting of Oliver Ellsworth, William R. Davie, and William Vans Murray.
The American navy consists of 42 vessels, carrying 950 guns.
The seat of government of Pennsylvania removed to Lancaster.
The militia of the United States estimated at upwards of 854,000, and the seamen at 63,500.
The exports from the United States are 78,665,522 dollars.
The duties which accrued this year are 13,610,814 dollars.
Died, this year, Patrick Henry, a distinguished patriot.

1800.

The second census of the people of the United States is taken. The inhabitants are in number 6,305,482.
May 13. Congress passes an act for disbanding the provisional army.
Seat of government of the United States removed to Washington.
The Mississippi territory erected into a distinct government.
A part of the north-western territory erected into a temporary government, and called Indiana territory.
The vaccine inoculation introduced into America.
Sept. 30. A convention between the United States and the French republic, concluded at Paris.
The shipping of the United States amount to 939,000 tons.
The revenue from the post-office this year is 80,000 dollars.
The exports from the United States this year are 70,971,780 dollars, and the duties 15,261,279 dollars.
Exported from Charleston, this year, 6,425,863 pounds of cotton, and 75,788 tierces of rice.

1801.

An equal number of votes being given for the president and vice-president, several ballotings take place before a choice is made.

March 4. Thomas Jefferson inaugurated president, and Aaron Burr vice-president.
June 10. War declared against Tripoli by congress.
Exports from the United States, this year, amount to 93,020,513 dollars.
The registered and enrolled tonnage amounts to 974,574 tons.
The duties paid to the United States, this year, are upwards of twenty millions of dollars, and the drawbacks 7,819,093.
Exported from Charleston, this year, 8,301,907 pounds of cotton, and 64,769 tierces of rice.
About 200 newspapers printed in the United States.

1802.

April 28. Ohio admitted into the union by act of congress.
June 16. A treaty concluded between the United States and the Creek Indians.
July. Louisiana ceded by Spain to France.
Oct. The intendant of New Orleans forbids the deposit of American merchandise at that port.
Merino sheep first imported into America from Spain.
The revenue of the United States is 14,995,793, the expenditure 13,270,457 dollars.
The city of Washington contains 4350 inhabitants.
A fire in Portsmouth, New Hampshire, destroys 100 buildings.
The College at Princeton, in New Jersey, destroyed by fire.
The exports from the United States are 71,957,144 dollars.
Died this year, General Daniel Morgan, a distinguished officer of the revolution, aged 66.

1803.

April 30. A convention signed at Paris, by which Louisiana is ceded to the United States for 15,000,000 of dollars.
A treaty concluded at Fort Wayne with the Indians, by which nearly 2,000,000 of acres of land in Indiana are ceded to the United States.
Oct. 31. The United States frigate Philadelphia strikes on a rock in the harbour of Tripoli, and is taken by the enemy.
Dec. Louisiana delivered by the commissioners of Spain to the commissioners of France.
Dec. 20. The French commissioners deliver possession of Louisiana to the United States.
Governor Claiborne assumes the government of Louisiana.
The state of Ohio contains about 76,000 inhabitants.
The foundation of S. Carolina college at Columbia laid.
Exports from the United States amount to 55,800,033 dollars.
Died this year, Samuel Adams, a celebrated patriot of the revolution, aged 73 years.

1804.

Feb. 16. The frigate Philadelphia burnt in the harbour of Tripoli,

by a party of volunteers from the American squadron, headed by Lieutenant Stephen Decatur.

Feb. 22. A great fire at Norfolk, in Virginia, by which 260 houses are destroyed.

Aug. Tripoli bombarded by the American squadron, under Commodore Preble.

The coins struck this year at the mint of the United States are in value more than 370,000 dollars.

Exports from the United States this year are 77,699,074 dollars.

The Middlesex canal in Massachusetts completed.

Brown University in Rhode Island founded.

Died this year, Philip Schuyler, a Major-general of the revolution, and Alexander Hamilton, killed in a duel with Aaron Burr, vice-president of the United States.

1805.

Feb. Judge Chase tried and acquitted by the senate of the United States.

March 4. Thomas Jefferson inaugurated president, and George Clinton vice-president of the United States.

April 27. General Eaton, with 70 Americans and 300 Turks, takes the city of Derne, in Africa.

June. A treaty of peace concluded between the United States and the bashaw of Tripoli.

A treaty of cession concluded at Fort Industry, with the Indians.

Exports from the United States this year, 95,566,021 dollars.

Died this year, in England, Lord Cornwallis, commander of a British army during the American revolution.

1806.

April 25. John Pierce, an American citizen, wantonly killed by a shot fired from the British ship Leander, Captain H. Whitby.

May. The British government captures many American vessels for a breach of the paper blockades.

May 3. President Jefferson issues a proclamation, forbidding certain British armed vessels to enter the ports of the United States, and interdicting supplies to them.

Nov. The emperor Napoleon issues a decree at Berlin, declaring the British islands in a state of blockade.

Exports this year from the United States, 101,536,963.

Disputes arise with the Spanish government respecting the boundaries of Louisiana.

A treaty concluded with England, by Messrs. Monroe and Pinkney, but rejected by President Jefferson.

Died this year, Major-general Gates, at an advanced age.

1807.

Jan. 27. Aaron Burr is arrested for a conspiracy, the supposed objects of which are the separation of the western states, and the conquest of Mexico.

June 22. The American frigate, Chesapeake attacked by the British ship Leopard, in violation of the subsisting peace, and several Americans killed and wounded.

July 2. President Jefferson issues a proclamation, forbidding British vessels of war to enter the ports of the United States.

Sept. Aaron Burr acquitted of the charge of high treason by the petit jury on his trial at Richmond.

Nov. 11. The British government issues orders in council, prohibiting to neutral nations the trade with France.

Dec. 17. The emperor Napoleon issues a decree at Milan, affecting neutrals.

Dec. 22. Congress passes an act laying a general embargo on vessels of the United States.

William Rose arrives in the United States as minister plenipotentiary from England.

Exports this year from the United States, 108,342,150.

1808.

Jan. 1. Commodore Barron, of the Chesapeake, tried by a court-martial, at Norfolk, and sentenced to be suspended for five years. Congress authorizes the president to suspend the embargo in favour of that power which should repeal its decrees.

One of the seamen taken from the Chesapeake, executed at Halifax.

The British government issues a proclamation, claiming the right of impressing its subjects from foreign ships.

Exports from the United States, from Oct. 1, 1807, to Oct. 8, 1808, 22,430,960 dollars.

Great Britain refuses to repeal her orders in council.

Dies this year, Fisher Ames, of Massachusetts.

1809.

March 4. James Madison inaugurated president, and George Clinton vice-president.

April 12. Congress passes an act for raising an additional military force.

The embargo law repealed by congress.

Congress passes an act forbidding commercial intercourse with France and Great Britain.

April 23. A treaty concluded with Mr. Erskine, the British minister, providing for the repeal of the orders in council.

June. The British government refuses to ratify the treaty concluded with the United States.

The non-intercourse law renewed against Great Britain.

Sept. 30. A treaty concluded at Fort Wayne with the Miamies and other Indians, by which the United States obtain 2,600,000 acres of land.

Oct. Mr. Erskine, the British minister, recalled.

Nov. Mr. Jackson, the British minister, dismissed by the president for offensive expressions in his correspondence with the government.

The exports from the United States this year, 52,203,233 dollars.

The total sales of public lands, from 1803 to 1809, are upwards of three millions of acres, amounting to 6,337,093 dollars.

1810.

The third census of the United States taken. The number of inhabitants, 7,239,903.

May 1. Congress passes an act, authorizing the president to suspend the non-intercourse law in favour of that power which should repeal its decrees.

Aug. 5. The Berlin and Milan decrees withdrawn as respects American vessels, from the 1st November ensuing.

Nov. 2. The non-intercourse act suspended as respects France.

The exports of the United States this year, 66,757,970.

1811.

May 16. The British sloop of war Little Belt fires upon the United States' frigate President, Commodore Rodgers.

Sept. 10. A dreadful tornado visits Charleston, S. C.

Nov. 7. Gen. Harrison attacked by the Indians at Tippecanoe, defeats them with great loss, and destroys their town.

Nov. The British government makes reparation for the attack on the Chesapeake.

Territory of Louisiana authorized to form a state constitution.

Congress resolve to increase the army, and to fit out the vessels of the navy.

The exports from the United States this year, 61,316,833 dollars.

1812.

Jan. An act of congress authorizes the president to raise an additional military force of 25,000 men.

The president authorized to accept the services of any number of volunteers, not exceeding 50,000.

A detachment of militia not exceeding 100,000, authorized by congress.

June 18. War declared by the U. S. against Great Britain.

June 23. Great Britain revokes her orders in council.

July 12. General Hull, with an army of volunteers and regulars, invades Canada.

July. Fort Mackinaw captured by the British.

Aug. 9. Battle at Maguaga, in which the British and Indians are beaten.

Aug. 13. The British sloop of war Alert taken by the United States' frigate Essex, Captain Porter.

Aug. 16. The American troops, under General Hull, capitulate to the British.

Aug. 19. The British frigate Guerriere, taken by the United States frigate Constitution, Captain Hull.
Oct. 8. Brigs Detroit and Caledonia cut out from the guns of Fort Erie by a party of American volunteers.
Oct. 13. Unsuccessful attack on Queenstown, by the American troops.
Oct. 14. Abortive expedition of General Hopkins.
Oct. 17. British ship Frolic taken by the U. S. ship Wasp. Both vessels afterwards taken by the Poictiers, 74.
Oct. 25. The British frigate Macedonian taken by the U. S. frigate United States, Captain Decatur.
Dec. 29. The British frigate Java taken by the U. S. frigate Constitution, Captain Bainbridge.
Exports from the U. S. this year, 38,527,236 dollars.

1813.

Jan 13. General Winchester surprised and defeated by the British and Indians, at Frenchtown, on the Raisin.
Feb. 23. The British sloop of war Peacock taken by the American ship Hornet, of inferior force.
March 4. James Madison inaugurated president, and Elbridge Gerry vice-president.
April 15. Mobile taken by a detachment of the American army, under General Wilkinson.
April 27. York, in Upper Canada, taken. General Pike killed.
May 16. The American commissioners, to treat with Great Britain, sail from the United States.
May. Fort Meigs besieged by the British; General Clay defeated in an attempt to raise the siege.
May 27. Fort George, in Canada, taken by the Americans.
May 29. The British defeated in an attempt upon Sacket's Harbour, with great loss.
June 1. The Chesapeake taken by the British frigate Shannon.
June 5. Generals Chandler and Winder surprised by the enemy, and taken prisoners.
June 23. Admiral Cockburn defeated at Craney Island.
June 24. Col. Bœrstler, with a detachment, taken by the enemy.
June 25. Hampton (Virginia) taken by the British.
July 3. Fort Erie taken by the Americans under Gen. Brown.
Aug. 1. The British defeated at Fort Sandusky.
Aug. 14. The U. S. brig Argus taken by the British ship Pelican.
Sept. 4. The British ship Boxer taken by the Enterprise.
Sept. 10. The British fleet on Lake Erie captured by the Americans.
Oct. 5. The British army, under General Proctor, defeated and captured by General Harrison.
Nov. 11. Battle at Williamsburg, in Canada. The expedition against Montreal abandoned.

Dec. 17. An embargo laid by act of congress.
Dec. 19. Fort Niagara taken by the British.
Exports from the United States this year, 27,855,997.

1814.

Jan. 22. Gen. Jackson defeats the Creeks at Tallapoosa.
Jan. 27. The Creeks repulsed by Gen. Floyd, at Fort Defiance.
March 20. The frigate Essex taken by the British frigate Phœbe and sloop of war Cherub, after a desperate and sanguinary defence.
March 27. The Creeks defeated by Gen. Jackson, at Tohopeka.
March 31. Action at La Cole Mill, in Canada.
April 21. The U. S. ship Frolic taken by a British squadron.
April 29. The British ship Epervier taken by the U. S. ship Peacock.
June 28. The British ship Reindeer taken by the U. S. ship Wasp.
July 6. The British defeated at Chippewa, by Gen. Brown.
July 25. Battle of Bridgewater; the British defeated.
Aug. 9. The British defeated in an attempt on Stonington.
Aug. 15. The British repulsed at Fort Erie.
Aug. 24. The Americans defeated at Bladensburgh, and Washington city entered by the British.
Sept. 1. The British ship Avon taken by the Wasp.
Sept. 11. The British squadron on Lake Champlain taken. Battle of Plattsburgh.
Sept. 12. Battle of North Point, near Baltimore: British retreat.
Sept. 17. Sortie from Fort Erie. *Sept.* 19. The siege raised.
Oct. 19. The British defeated at Lyon's Creek.
Nov. 7. Pensacola taken by Gen. Jackson.
Dec. 23. The British invade Louisiana. Gen. Jackson makes a night attack on the enemy.
Dec. 24. Treaty of peace signed at Ghent.
Dec. 28. The British repulsed at New Orleans.
Exports from the United States this year 6,927,441 dollars.

1815.

Jan. 1. The British again repulsed at New Orleans.
Jan. 8. Signal defeat of the British at New Orleans, who lose 2600 men. The Americans lose but 13.
Jan. 15. The United States frigate taken by a British squadron.
Feb. 17. The treaty of peace ratified by the United States.
Feb. 20. The British ships Cyane and Levant taken by the American frigate Constitution.
March 23. The British ship Penguin taken by the Hornet.
March. War declared against Algiers. The army reduced.
April. Massacre of the American prisoners at Dartmoor, Eng.
June 18. An Algerine frigate, of 44 guns, taken by the U. S. ship Guerriere.
Aug. The U. S. ship Franklin, of 74 guns, launched.

of peace concluded with Algiers.
ts from the U. S. this year 52,557,753 dollars.

1816.

The United States Bank established by congress, with a tal of thirty-five millions of dollars.
A negro fort at Apalachicola destroyed by an American party.
A treaty concluded by Gen. Jackson with the Choctaws.
The Indiana territory admitted as a state into the union.
ts from the U. S. this year 84,920,452 dollars.

1817.

. The new bank of the U. S. begins the transaction of busi- at Philadelphia.
4. James Monroe inaugurated president, and D. D. Tomp- vice-president of the U. S.
1. The Mississippi territory admitted into the union.
4. The American troops take possession of Amelia island.
ts from the U. S. this year 87,071,569 dollars.

1818.

The Seminoles defeated by Gen. Jackson.
22. Massacre at the Chehaw town, by order of Capt. Wright.
1. Arbuthnot and Ambrister tried and executed.
28. General Jackson takes possession of Pensacola.
Pensacola restored to Spain by the American government.
. The Illinois territory admitted into the union.
mercial treaty concluded with Sweden and Great Britain.
rts from the U. S. this year 93,281,133 dollars.

1819.

Arkansa territory organized by act of congress.
23. A treaty between the U. S. and Spain for the cession of rida, signed at Washington.
The king of Spain refuses to ratify the Florida treaty.
The Alabama territory admitted into the union.
rts from the U. S. this year 70,142,521 dollars.

1820.

1. A great fire destroys upwards of 400 houses at Savannah.
. Maine admitted into the union as a state.
. The territory of Missouri authorized to form a constitution.
The constitution of Missouri formed.
A convention meets in Massachusetts to amend the con- ution.
fourth census of the United States taken, total population 37,976.
rts from the U. S. this year 69,691,669 dollars.

1821.

Feb. 19. The Florida treaty finally ratified.
March 4. James Monroe inaugurated president, and D. D. Tompkins, vice-president.
March. Congress pass an act for the admission of Missouri on certain conditions.
July 7. Possession of Florida delivered to the United States.
Aug. 10. The admission of Missouri into the union takes place.
Aug. 22. The Spanish commissioner at Pensacola imprisoned by General Jackson.
Exports this year from the U. S. 64,974,382 dollars.

1822.

Feb. The ratio of representation in the house of representatives of the United States fixed at 40,000.

MAINE.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

MAINE is situated between 43° 5′ and 48° 3′ north latitude, and 6° 0′ and 10° 8′ east longitude. It is bounded on the north-west and north by Lower Canada; east, by New Brunswick; south, by the Atlantic Ocean; and west, by New Hampshire. The boundary, on the side of Canada, is the highlands, which separate the waters flowing into the St. Lawrence, from those which flow into the Atlantic; on the side of New Brunswick, it is the river St. Croix, and a line drawn from its source due north, till it meet the said highlands; on the side of New Hampshire, it is the Piscataqua River, and a line drawn from its source north 2° west till it meet the said highlands. The mean length, from south to north, is 235 miles; and the mean breadth about 136. The area is estimated at about 32,000 square miles, or 20,480,000 acres.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

An extensive district in the north-west part of the state, around the great lakes and head waters of the Kennebeck and Penobscot, is mountainous. The rest of the state is generally hilly, and the hills diminish in height on every side, as you recede from the mountains. The south-western part of the state, and the tract of

ountry along the sea coast, from ten to twenty miles wide, is enerally poor, though in some places tolerably fertile. The land n the Kennebeck, and between that river and the Penobscot, is xcellent. East of the Penobscot it is less productive. The nountainous tract in the north-west has a poor soil. The lands n St. John's River, and its numerous branches, are said to be very ertile, but this part of the state is not yet settled. The principal roductions are grass, Indian corn, wheat, barley, rye, and flax. A large portion of the state is yet covered with forests.

Lakes and Rivers.

Umbagog lake is principally in this state, but partly in New Hampshire, It is eighteen miles long, and in some places ten broad. *Moosehead* Lake lies north-east of Umbagog, and is the largest in New England, being twenty-five miles long, by ten or fifteen broad. *Chesuncook* Lake, ten or fifteen miles north-east of Moosehead, is a large body of water. There are several other large lakes still farther north, but very little is known about them, that part of the state not having yet been explored. *Sebago* pond is a large body of water, sixteen miles north-west of Portland. Smaller lakes and ponds abound in every part of the state. The principal rivers, beginning in the west, are, 1. The *Saco* which rises in the White Mountains, in New Hampshire, and flowing south-east into this state, falls into the sea between Saco and Biddeford. It has falls six miles from its mouth, which completely obstruct the navigation. 2. The *Androscoggin*, which rises in Umbagog Lake. The first part of its course is in New Hampshire. After entering Maine, it runs south-east and falls into the Kennebeck, eighteen miles from its mouth. It has falls at Brunswick, which afford a number of fine mill-seats. 3. The *Kennebeck* is the second river in the state in size. It has two principal branches; the eastern rises in Moosehead Lake; the western, called Dead River, rises in the highlands, which separate Maine from Canada, and unites with the eastern branch, about twenty miles below Moosehead Lake. After the junction, the river flows south to the Atlantic. It is navigable for ships, twelve miles, to Bath; for sloops, forty-five miles, to Augusta; and for boats, sixty miles, to Waterville. At Waterville the navigation is interrupted by Ticonic Falls, which afford numerous sites for mills. 4. The *Penobscot* is the largest river in the state. It has two principal branches. The western, and longest branch, rises west of Moosehead Lake in the highlands, which separate Maine from Canada, and flowing east through Chesuncook Lake, unites with the eastern branch about sixty miles north of Bangor. After the junction the river flows south, and falls into the head of Penobscot Bay. It is navigable for ships to Bangor, fifty miles from Owl's Head, at the entrance of the bay. 5. The *St. Croix*, called also the *Passamaquoddy* and *Schoodic*, falls into Passamaquoddy

Bay. It is the boundary between the United States and New Brunswick, from its mouth to its source. 6. The *St. John's*, rises a little north of Chesuncook Lake, and after passing through three great lakes, runs in a north-easterly direction for some distance, and then turning to the south-east, enters New Brunswick, and finally falls into the bay of Fundy. With the exception of two short portages, it is navigable for boats from its mouth to its source, a distance of more than 300 miles.

Climate.

The principal settlements are along the Atlantic coast, which is tempered by the sea air, so that the climate is not materially different from other parts of New England, notwithstanding its northern situation. The winters are long and severe, lasting from about the first of November to the first of April, during a great part of which time the ground is covered with snow, and the rivers with ice. The summers are often very warm, and vegetation rapid; and the climate is healthy.

Civil Divisions and Population.

The state is divided into nine counties, and two hundred and seventeen towns.

Counties.	*Towns*	*Pop. in 1810.*	*Pop. in 1820.*	*Chief Towns.*
York,	22	41,877	46,284	York,
Cumberland,	24	42,831	49,339	PORTLAND,
Lincoln,	33	42,992	52,953	Wiscasset,
Hancock,	21	22,560	31,071	Castine,
Washington,	10	7,870	12,746	Machias,
Oxford,	28	17,630	27,185	Paris,
Kennebeck,	33	32,564	42,632	Augusta,
Somerset,	26	12,910	21,698	Norridgewock,
Penobscot,	20	7,471	13,931	Bangor.
	217	228,705	297,839	

The population of Maine, in 1790, was 96,540; in 1800, 151,719; in 1810, 228,705; and in 1820, 297,839. The most populous parts of the state are the counties on Kennebeck River, and on the sea-coast, particularly in the south-west. The northern half of the state is yet uninhabited, and almost unexplored.

Chief Towns.

PORTLAND, the capital of the state, and much the largest town, is situated on a peninsula in Casco Bay. It is well situated for commerce, having an extensive and thriving back country, and one of the finest harbours on the continent, being deep, safe, capacious, easy of access, and seldom frozen over. The amount of shipping in 1818 was 27,770 tons, and the population in 1820 8581. *Brunswick* is thirty miles north-east of Portland, on the

Androscoggin, at the falls; population, in 1820, 2954. *Bath* is on the west side of Kennebeck River, at the head of winter navigation, sixteen miles from the sea, and thirty-five north-east of Portland. It owns more shipping than any town in the state, except Portland. *Wiscasset* is on the Sheepscot, eight miles north-east of Bath. The river is navigable to this place for the largest vessels, and the harbour is generally open throughout the winter. *Waldoborough*, twenty-two miles east of Wiscasset, has a large amount of shipping employed principally in the coasting trade. *Castine* is on a promontory, on the east side of Penobscot Bay. It has an excellent harbour for any number of ships of the largest size, and is accessible at all seasons of the year. It has great strength from its natural situation; and, if proper batteries were erected, might almost bid defiance to attack. These circumstances, together with its favourable situation for the entry of prizes, and, above all, its geographical position, enabling it to communicate by a few days' sail with Halifax, and by a short route up the Penobscot with Quebec, giving a command of all the intermndiate country from the Penobscot to the St. Croix, render it of the highest consequence as a military station. *Bangor* is a flourishing town, thirty-five miles north of Castine, on the west side of the Penobscot. It is finely situated for commerce, being at the head of navigation, on the largest river in the state. *Machias* is near the south-east corner of the state, on Machias bay, at the mouth of Machias River. It is a thriving town, and exports large quantities of boards, shingles, spars, &c. There are twenty-six saw-mills in the town, which cut, on an average, upwards of 10,000,000 feet of boards annually. *Lubeck*, or *Eastport*, is a new and flourishing town on a peninsula, at the southern extremity of Passamaquoddy Bay. *York* is an ancient town on the coast, near the south-west extremity of the state. *Hallowell* is a flourishing town on Kennebeck River, more than forty miles from its mouth. Vessels of one hundred and fifty tons ascend to this place. *Augusta* is two miles above Hallowell. The most flourishing towns on the Kennebeck, above Augusta, are *Vassalborough*, *Waterville*, and *Norridgewock*.

Manufactures and Commerce.

Lumber is, at present, the great article of export. It is brought down all the rivers in large quantities. The other articles are fish, potashes, beef, and pork. Maine is well situated for commerce. It has an extensive sea-coast, abounding with fine harbours, and is intersected by numerous navigable rivers, which open an easy communication with the interior. Its supply of lumber, and of materials for potashes, is immense; and its resources in the fisheries are inexhaustible. The nearest market for the south-west section of the state is Portland; for the country on the Kennebeck, Hallowell; for the country on the Penobscot, Bangor.

The natural market for the northern half of the state, which is yet unsettled, will be Quebec, in Lower Canada, and Fredericktown, in New Brunswick. The value of the exports from Maine, for the year ending September 30th, 1820, was 1,108,030 dollars. The value of the manufactures in 1810 was 3,741,116 dollars.

Education.

Bowdoin College, in Brunswick, was incorporated in 1794. It has two professors, two tutors, fifty or sixty students, a complete philosophical apparatus, and a library of nearly five thousand volumes. The college is endowed with five townships of land. The *Maine Charity School*, at Bangor, was incorporated in 1814. Its design is to educate young men for the ministry in a shorter time than is usual at other seminaries. It is under the direction of two professors and a preceptor, and in 1818 had nineteen students. There is a *Literary and Theological Institution*, under the direction of the Baptist denomination, at Waterville. It was opened in 1818, with twelve or fifteen theological students.

Religion.

The Congregationalists and Baptists are the most numerous religious denominations; they have each more than one hundred congregations. There are many Roman Catholics in the state.

Government.

The constitution of Maine was adopted by a convention, held at Portland on the 29th of October, 1819, and ratified by the people in the following December. It distributes the powers of government into three distinct departments:—1. The legislative power is vested in a senate and house of representatives, each having a negative upon the other, and both styled the legislature of Maine. The senate is elected annually by districts, each district containing nearly the same number of inhabitants. The house of representatives is also elected annually, and according to the population of each county.—2. The executive power is vested in a governor, who is also elected annually, and is assisted by a council of seven persons, chosen for the same term by the legislature. The governor, with the advice and consent of the council, appoints all judicial and other officers, whose appointment is not otherwise provided for. The governor, singly, has a qualified veto upon legislative acts. If he return a bill or resolution to the legislature, two-thirds of both houses are necessary to give it validity.—3. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court, and such other courts as the legislature may from time to time appoint. All judicial officers, except justices of the peace, hold their offices during good behaviour; but not beyond the age of seventy years. Justices of the peace hold their offices for seven years, if they so long behave themselves well. Every male citizen

of the United States, of the age of twenty-one years and upwards, (excepting paupers, persons under guardianship, and Indians not taxed,) who has lived in the state for three months preceding an election, is entitled to the privilege of an elector.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

THE state of Maine, although visited for the purpose of settlement as early as any of the eastern states, was, for a long time, far behind them in the progress of improvement. The severity of the climate, the mistaken views of the first settlers, and the continued and rancorous hostilities of the neighbouring savages, are among the chief causes of her slow growth. The earliest attempts at settlement appear to have been made by parties of French, about 1604, on the river Kennebeck. In the month of August, 1607, Sir John Gilbert, the heir of his brother, Sir Humphrey, to whom Queen Elizabeth had made a liberal grant of heathen countries, arrived at the mouth of the Kennebeck with two ships, and about 100 men. After passing one winter under great sufferings, those of the party who survived returned to England, representing the country as a cold, barren, mountainous desert. The unfortunate result of this enterprise discouraged any further attempt on the part of the English to settle on the coast of Maine for some years. The French, however, had established themselves on different parts of the coast, east of the St. Croix, and some of their settlements extended westward of that river. The Dutch also appear to have had a settlement at a place called New Castle, which was under the jurisdiction of the government of the New Netherlands. Remains of the town are still to be seen. After the formation of the Plymouth company, to whom a grant had been made by the crown, of the countries lying between the 38th and 45th degrees north, a more regular system of colonization was attempted in this part of America; but, although some trading houses appear to have been established near the Penobscot, no effectual settlement was made until about 1635. In that year, the Plymouth company, finding they were not likely to derive any great advantages from their patent, concluded to divide their lands into shares, with an expectation of receiving from the sovereign a deed in severalty. Patents of confirmation, however, seem only to have been granted to Sir Ferdinand Gorges, who received a grant of the country between the Piscataqua and the Kennebeck, forming a square of 120 miles. The charter granted in 1639 gave him the most ample powers of control over the district, and enabled him to establish his own authority as despotically as he thought proper. His first

step was the appointment of a governor and council for the territory. The frame of government which he contemplated, and the mode of the distribution of the lands, appear to have been according to aristocratic and feudal principles, and little suited the disposition of the English emigrants of the time. The population of the province accordingly seems to have increased slowly, and the stream of emigration was directed to the shores of Massachusetts and Connecticut. A general court appears to have been holden at Sacco in 1640. Government was administered in the name of Sir Ferdinand Gorges, until 1647, when, upon intelligence of his death, the people resolved to take the administration of affairs into their own hands. They elected a governor from among themselves, annually, until about 1652, when the existence of Maine, as a distinct province, ceased, by its incorporation with Massachusetts. In 1628, the Plymouth company granted to Sir Henry Roswell, and others, all that part of New England which is included within a line drawn from the Atlantic Ocean, south of Charles River, and three miles north of the Merrimack, to the South Sea. Charles I. confirmed their patent, and under it the province of Massachusetts was first settled. We have seen that a few trading houses were erected on the coast of Maine previous to the grant to Sir Ferdinand Gorges; but no claim to jurisdiction over the province appears to have been made by the grantees of Massachusetts until after his death. By a new construction of their charter, they contended that their limits extended on the east, to the middle of Casco Bay. The people of Maine were too feeble to oppose this claim, had they been inclined to do so. They submitted voluntarily to commissioners sent by the government of Massachusetts, in 1652. The province was made a county of Massachusetts, and called Yorkshire, County courts were established in a similar manner to those of Massachusetts, and the towns sent deputies to the general assembly, at Boston. In this condition of affairs the province remained until after the restoration of Charles II., when that monarch sent over commissioners to New England, with power "to hear and determine complaints, and to proceed in all things for settling the peace and security of the country." One of the subjects that came before them, was the right to the province of Maine, which was claimed by Gorges, son and heir of Sir Ferdinand. Massachusetts denied the authority of the commissioners to interfere; but, in 1665, they proceeded to Maine, where they decided in favour of Gorges. Having thus separated the province in fact from Massachusetts, they constituted a government under the king, appointed justices of the peace, and exercised other acts of authority. Charles II. shortly afterwards recalled the commissioners, and ordered the assembly of Massachusetts to send deputies to England, to answer the complaints made against their proceedings. After the departure of the commissioners, Massachusetts re-established her

authority over Maine, though not without some difficulty. The general court at first evaded the order to appear before the king; but, finding that judgment would be given against them if an appearance was not entered, they at length sent agents to support their interests. In 1676, it was determined by the king in council, that the line of Massachusetts could not be construed to run more than three miles north of the Merrimack, and consequently Maine was adjudged to Gorges. It is believed that Charles had been for some time in treaty for the purchase of both New Hampshire and Maine, with the view of bestowing them on his son, the Duke of Monmouth. The report of this intention reaching the assembly of Massachusetts, they immediately entered into an agreement with Gorges, for the purchase of his title, at the price of 1200*l.* sterling; and thus obtained an undoubted right to the province. Thenceforward it was governed as a part of Massachusetts. In 1691, a new charter was granted to Massachusetts by William and Mary, which included the province of Maine. At that time, the present state of Maine was divided into two parts, known by distinct appellations. The country lying between the Piscataqua and the Kennebeck River contained the principal settlements, and was exclusively called Maine, while that which lies between the Kennebeck and the St. Croix, was known by the ancient French name Acadie. The province was not then supposed to extend further back from the sea than 120 miles. The territory beyond that distance from the ocean was considered as crown lands. The whole country, from the Piscataqua to the St. Croix, was now granted to Massachusetts.

From its first settlement, until the middle of the 18th century, the inhabitants of Maine suffered grievously from warfare with the Indians. The hostilities of the savages to the whites appear to have been more determined and constant, than in any other quarter of America. They opposed the progress of the settlers, step by step, and with their usual disregard of humanity. In 1675, almost all the settlements were destroyed. From 1692 to 1702, the province presented an uniform scene of rapine and destruction. In 1720, the harassing conflict was renewed, and the settlers suffered severely until 1726, when a treaty was made by Massachusetts with the Indians, which relieved them from hostile incursions for some years. So late as 1744 and 1748, many of the inhabitants were killed or carried off from their towns. Since the year 1749, however, when another treaty was concluded, tranquillity has prevailed. The savages have been greatly reduced in number, and few now remain within the state.

From the period of their union, to the recent division, the history of Maine has been merged in that of Massachusetts. We hear little of it in the annals of the United States, during the revolutionary war, or subsequently. In the last war with England, a portion of the district was compelled to submit to the British

arms, and remained under their control until the treaty of peace. No attempt was made to dislodge the enemy. The blame of this supineness is not to be attributed, perhaps, to the people of Maine. Being under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, they were deprived of the means of defending themselves.

The separation of the district from Massachusetts, and its erection into an independent state, were frequently attempted without success. In October, 1785, a convention met at Portland, for the purpose of considering the subject. In the succeeding year the question was submitted to the people of Maine, to be decided in town meetings, when it was found that a majority of freemen were against the measure. The subject was renewed in 1802, when a majority again appeared averse to a separation. In 1819, numerous petitions having been presented to the legislature of Massachusetts, an act was passed for ascertaining the wishes of the people; in conformity to which, a vote was taken in all the towns. A large majority appearing in favour of a separation, a convention was called under the authority of Massachusetts. A constitution was adopted, which received the approbation of the people, and on the 3d of March, 1820, the District of Maine came an independent state, and a member of the Federal Union.

Governors, &c.

1635, Sir Ferdinand Gorges, proprietary. From 1639, the affairs of the province were administered by a council, until 1646, when, on the death of Gorges, the people determined to take the government into their own hands, and elect their civil magistrates annually.

1646, Edward Godfrey elected governor, and continued to be annually chosen until 1652, when the province submitted to Massachusetts.

1652 to 1820, under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts.

1820, William King.

1821, Albion K. Parris.

Places Remarkable for Battles, Sieges, &c.

1690, *Casco:* The fort attacked and destroyed by a body of Indians—*Cumberland.*

1692, *Wells:* The fort attacked by the French and Indians, who are defeated with loss—*York.*

York: Attacked and destroyed by the Indians—*York.*

1724, *Norridgewock:* A body of Indians surprised, many taken prisoners, and a great number killed—*Somerset.*

1725, *Pickwacket:* Obstinate battle with the Indians, in which the savages are victorious, *May* 8—*Oxford.*

1775, *Falmouth:* Bombarded and laid in ashes by a British squadron, *Oct.* 18—*Cumberland.*

1714, *Eastport:* Taken possession of by a British force, *July* 11—*Cumberland.*

Castine: Taken by a British armament, *Sept.* 1—*Hancock.*

Hampden: The militia and seamen of the frigate John Adams, defeated by the British, and the frigate destroyed, *Sept.* 2—*Penobscot.*

Machias: Taken by a British force, *Sept.* 9—*Washington.*

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

New Hampshire is situated between 42° 42′ and 45° 14′ north latitude, and 4° 29′ and 6° 19′ east longitude. It is bounded on the north by Lower Canada; east by Maine: south-east by the Atlantic Ocean and Massachusetts; south by Massachusetts; and west and north-west by Vermont. Its mean length is 160 miles, and mean breadth 58. Its area is about 9280 miles, or 5,939,200 acres.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

The whole extent of sea-coast is eighteen miles. The shore is generally a sandy beach, and bordering upon it are salt marshes. For twenty or thirty miles from the coast, the country is either level or variegated with small hills and valleys. Beyond this the hills increase in size, and in many parts of the state swell into lofty mountains, particularly in the north, and along the height of land between the Merrimack and the Connecticut. The highest summits between the Merrimack and the Connecticut, are *Grand Monadnock*, near the south-west corner of the state, which is 3254 feet above the level of the sea; *Sunapee* Mountain, near Sunapee Lake, and *Moosehillock*, still further north, the height of which is estimated at 4636 feet. But the *White Mountains* are more celebrated than either of these. They lie about thirty miles north of Lake Winnipiseogee, and are the loftiest mountains in the United States. Mount Washington, the highest summit, was formerly estimated at 10,000 feet above the level of the sea; but more accurate observations have reduced it to between 6 and 7000. The mountains, lakes, valleys, and cataracts of New Hampshire, abound with sublime and beautiful scenery, and have acquired for the state the title of "the Switzerland of America." The soil of New Hampshire is generally fertile. The intervals on the large rivers are the richest, and best fitted for tillage, but the uplands are accounted the best for grazing. The principal

productions are grass, wheat, rye, Indian corn, beef, pork, butter, and cheese.

Lakes and Rivers.

Lake *Umbagog* is partly in this state, but principally in Maine. *Winnipiseogee* Lake, near the centre of the state, is a beautiful body of water, twenty-two miles long, and contains a number of islands. The surrounding country is mountainous, and abounds with romantic scenery. *Squam* Lake lies a few miles north-west of Winnipiseogee. *Sunapee* Lake lies south-west of Winnipiseogee, midway between Merrimack River and the Connecticut. *Androscoggin* River rises in Umbagog Lake, and, after a southerly course of about twenty miles, turns to the east and passes into Maine. The *Saco* rises on the west side of the White Mountains, and running south-east passes into Maine. The *Piscataqua* is the boundary between New Hampshire and Maine, from its mouth to its source. In the first part of its course it is called Salmon Fall River. The *Merrimack* rises in the White Mountains, near the sources of the Saco, and running south, through the centre of the state, passes into Massachusetts, where it turns and runs north-east to the ocean. The *Connecticut* rises in the highlands, which separate New Hampshire from Lower Canada, and running south between New Hampshire and Vermont, passes into Massachusetts. The principal tributaries to the Connecticut, beginning in the south, are the *Ashuelot*, which empties itself near the south-west corner of the state; *Sugar* River, which is the outlet, of Sunapee Lake; *Lower Ammonoosuck*, which rises in the White Mountains, near the sources of the Merrimack, and falls into that river at Bath; and Upper Ammonoosuck, which empties itself at Northumberland. The principal tributaries to the Merrimack, from the west, are the Nashua, which comes from Massachusetts, and empties itself near the southern boundary of the state; the Contoocook, which empties itself at Concord; and Baker's River, which rises in Moosehillock Mountain, and empties itself at Plymouth. The principal branches of the Merrimack, from the east, are Winnipiseogee River, which is the outlet of Winnipiseogee Lake, and Squam River, which is the outlet of Squam Lake. The principal branches of the Piscataqua, are the Swamscot or Exeter River, and the Cocheco, both of which join it near its mouth.

Natural Curiosities.

The White Mountains are frequently visited by travellers; Mount Washington is usually ascended from the south-east. After climbing the side of the mountain for some distance, the forest trees begin to diminish in height, till, at the elevation of about 4000 feet, you come to a region of dwarfish evergreens, about the height of a man's head, which put forth numerous branches, and surround the mountain with a formidable

hedge, a quarter of a mile in thickness. On emerging from this thicket, you are above all woods, at the foot of what is called the bald part of the mountain, which is very steep, and consists of a huge pile of naked rocks. After attaining the summit, the traveller is recompensed for his toil, if the sky be serene, by a most noble and extensive prospect. On the south-east there is a view of the Atlantic Ocean, the nearest part of which is sixty-five miles distant in a right line; on the south, Winnipiseogee Lake lies in full view; on the south-west is the lofty summit of Moosehillock, and far away in the verge of the horizon is the Grand Monadnock. The barren rocks which extend a great distance in every direction from the summit, add a melancholy cast to the grandeur of the scene.

The Notch or Gap, in the White Mountains, is also frequently visited as a curiosity. It is on the west side of the mountains, near the source of Saco River. It is a deep and narrow defile, in one part only twenty-two feet wide. The mountain appears as if cloven down quite to its base, perpendicularly on one side, and on the other at an angle of forty-five degrees. The road which has been made through this pass, is crossed by the River Saco, which rushes rapidly down the side of the mountain, and gives a picturesque effect to the scenery.

Bellows Falls are in Connecticut River, at Walpole. The whole descent of the river, in the space of 100 rods, is forty-four feet. There are several pitches, one above another, at the highest of which a large rock divides the stream into two channels, each about ninety feet wide. When the water is low, the eastern channel is dry, being crossed by a bar of solid rock, and the whole stream falls into the western channel, where it is contracted to the breadth of sixteen feet, and flows with astonishing force and rapidity. A bridge is built over these falls, under which the highest floods pass without detriment to the structure.

Islands.

The *Isles of Shoals*, eight in number, lie eleven miles south-east of Portsmouth. A part of them belong to Maine, and a part to New Hampshire. They consist of barren rocks, and are inhabited by about 100 souls, who subsist by fishing.

Climate.

New Hampshire enjoys a very healthy climate, and the weather is generally serene. In summer the heat is great, but of short duration; and the winters are often very severe. The tops of the White Mountains are generally covered with snow, and in winter the weather in their vicinity is often excessively cold; but they temper the air and render the summers cool and delightful. The cold weather sets in about the middle of September, and continues till May; but the frosts are light in September and

October. From December till March, the frost is intense, and the snow is often from two to four feet deep.

Civil Divisions and Population.

The state is divided into six counties and 212 towns.

Counties.	*Towns.*	*Popul. in 1810.*	*Popul. in 1820.*	*Chief Towns.*
Coos,	25	3,991	5,549	Lancaster,
Grafton,	35	28,462	32,989	Haverhill,
Cheshire	35	40,988	45,376	Charlestown,
Hillsborough,	40	49,249	53,884	Amherst,
Rockingham,	45	50,175	55,246	Portsmouth,
Strafford,	32	41,595	51,111	Dover.
	212	214,460	244,155	

The population in 1790, was 141,885, and in 1800, 183,858. The great mass of the population is in the southern half of the state. North of Winnipiseogee Lake there are very few inhabitants, except on Connecticut River.

Chief Towns.

Portsmouth, the largest town in the state, is on the sea-coast, near the mouth of the Piscataqua. The harbour is one of the best on the continent, having sufficient depth of water for vessels of any size, being easy of access, protected from every wind, and, owing to the rapidity of the tide, never frozen. It is so well fortified by nature, that only a small expense is necessary to render it perfectly secure from attack. On an island in the Piscataqua, opposite the town, an United States navy-yard has been established. *Concord*, the capital of the state, is a flourishing town on the Merrimack, at the head of navigation, and well situated for trade. Much of the produce of the upper country is brought here, and carried down the Merrimack and the Middlesex canal to Boston. *Dover* is a flourishing town, at the head of the tide on the Cocheco, twelve miles north-west of Portsmouth. *Exeter* is a manufacturing town at the head of the tide, on Exeter River, fourteen miles south-west of Portsmouth. *Keene* is a pleasant town in the south-west part of the state, on the Ashuelot. The principal towns on Connecticut River are, *Walpole*, thirteen miles north-west of Keene. *Charlestown*, twelve miles north of Walpole; *Hanover*, the seat of Dartmouth college; *Haverhill*, twenty-seven miles north of Hanover, and *Bath*, adjoining Haverhill, at the head of boat navigation.

Manufactures and Commerce.

The manufactures of New Hampshire have increased very rapidly within a few years. There are now more than thirty cotton and woollen manufactories, many of them on an extensive scale. A glass manufactory has been recently established at

Keene. There are two iron manufactories at Franconia, on a branch of the Lower Ammonoosuck, at one of which from twelve to fifteen tons of iron are made weekly. The ore is considered the richest yet found in the United States, and the mine is said to be inexhaustible. The principal exports from New Hampshire are lumber, pot and pearl ashes, fish, beef, live cattle, pork, and flax-seed. The market for the northern part of the state is Portland, in Maine; for the south-eastern, Portsmouth and Newburyport; for the country on the Merrimack, Boston; for the country on the Connecticut, Hartford and Boston. The value of the manufactures of New Hampshire in 1810 was 5,225,045 dollars. The value of exports in 1820 was 240,800 dollars.

Education.

Dartmouth College, at Hanover, was founded in 1769. Its officers are a president, five professors, a lecturer on chemistry, a lecturer on anatomy, and three tutors. It has a good chemical apparatus, a philosophical apparatus, a valuable anatomical museum, and a library of about 4000 volumes, besides two large society libraries belonging to the students. The funds of the college yield about 1600 dollars a year, which, with the tuition, makes an annual income of about 4000 dollars. The number of students is usually about 150, besides more than sixty medical students. The college takes its name from the Earl of Dartmouth, one of its earliest and most generous benefactors. *Phillips's Exeter Academy*, at Exeter, was founded by the Hon. John Phillips, LL. D. in 1781. It is one of the oldest and most flourishing academies in New England. It has funds amounting to about 80,000 dollars; a library of about 700 volumes, and a handsome philosophical apparatus. Its officers are a principal, a professor of mathematics and natural philosophy, and an assistant. The funds are appropriated, in part, to the support of indigent students.

Religion.

The Baptists and Congregationalists are the prevailing religious denominations. In 1817, the number of ordained ministers was estimated at 222, of whom 107 were Baptists, 100 Congregationalists, and 15 of other denominations.

Government.

The existing constitution of New Hampshire, was adopted on the second Wednesday of February, 1792. The legislative power is exercised by a senate and house of representatives, both of which are annually elected, and each has a negative on the other. A senator must be seised of a freehold, in his own right, of the value of 200*l.* Each representative must have an estate of the value of 100*l.* The senate consists of thirteen members elected by districts, nearly equal in population. Every town having 150

ratable polls elects one representative, and every additional 300 polls entitles it to another. The executive power is vested in a governor and council. The governor is chosen annually by the people, and must have an estate worth 500*l*., half of which to be freehold. He has a qualified veto on the proceedings of the legislature, two-thirds of both houses being required to pass an act of which he has disapproved. The council consists of five members annually elected by the people. Each counsellor must have an estate worth 500*l*. The judiciary is composed of a superior court, of an inferior court in each county, and in other courts. The judges hold their offices during good behaviour, or until they attain the age of seventy years. The elective franchise is vested in all the male inhabitants of twenty-one years of age, and upwards, excepting paupers and persons excused from paying taxes at their own request.

GOVERNORS, &c.

Under the Royal Government.

1680 John Cutts, *President*.
1681 Richard Waldron, *ditto*.
1682 Ed. Cranfield, *Lieut. Gov.*
1685 W. Barefoote, *Dep. Gov.*

After the separation from Massachusetts.

1692 Samuel Allen.
1697 W. Partridge, *Lieut. Gov.*
1698 Samuel Allen.
1699 Earl of Bellamont.
1702 Joseph Dudley.
1716 Samuel Shute.
1717 John Wentworth.
1729 William Burnet.
1730 Jonathan Belcher.
1741 Benning Wentworth.
1767 John Wentworth, until the revolution.

Under the Constitution of 1776.

1776 Mesheck Weare, *President*, until 1784.

Presidents under the Constitution of 1784, *annually elected by the People.*

1784 Mesheck Weare, to 1785.
1785 John Langdon, to 1786.
1786 John Sullivan, to 1788.
1788 John Langdon, to 1789.
1789 John Sullivan, to 1790.
1790 Josiah Bartlet, to 1793.

Governors under the Constitution of 1792, *annually elected by the People.*

1793 Josiah Bartlett, to 1794.
1794 John T. Gilman, to 1805.
1805 John Langdon, to 1809.
1809 Jeremiah Smith, to 1810.
1810 John Langdon, to 1812.
1812 William Plumer, to 1813.
1813 John T. Gilman, to 1816.
1816 William Plumer, to 1819.
1819 Samuel Bell, to 1821.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

The first discovery, made by the English, of any part of New Hampshire, was in 1614, by Captain John Smith, who navigated the coast fram Penobscot to Cape Cod, and, on his return home to Great Britain, gave so favourable an account of the country to Prince Charles, that he bestowed on it the name of New England. In 1621, Captain John Mason, a member of the Plymouth company, and whose name is inseparably connected with the history of this state, procured a grant from the company of all the land from the river Salem to the Merrimack; and in the next year another grant was made to Mason and Sir Ferdinand Gorges, of all the lands between the Merrimack and Sagadehock. To this last tract was given the name of Laconia. Under the authority of their grant, Mason and Gorges attempted, in 1623, the establishment of a colony at the river Piscataqua; and other settlements were made on the coast, both by grantees under Mason, and by emigrants from Plymouth and Massachusetts, who purchased from the natives. The settlements, however, were slow in their progress for many years. The boundaries were in dispute, a considerable portion of territory being claimed by Massachusetts. The settlers, generally, occupied themselves in hunting and fishing, instead of pursuing a regular business of agriculture. In 1629, a large tract was granted by the Indians to John Whelewright, and others. In the same year, Mason applied for and obtained from the Plymouth company, a new grant of all the land from the middle of the Piscataqua to its head, "thence northwestward, until 60 miles from the mouth of the harbour, were finished; also through Merrimack River, to the furthest head thereof, and so forward up into the land westward, until 60 miles were finished; and from thence to cross over land to the end of the 60 miles accounted from the Piscataqua." This tract of land was now for the first time called *New Hampshire*. The conflicting titles derived from the Indians, and under the grant to Mason, were fruitful sources of disquiet to the province for many years. The settlements which had been formed on the coast were detached, and without any general government that could protect them from foreign incursion, or the consequences of disagreement among themselves. About 1640, the inhabitants negotiated with Massachusetts, to take them under her protection. The proposal was agreed to on the part of the province, of which they were admitted freemen on equal terms, and the union lasted nearly 40 years, both parties deriving advantages from it. About this time Mason died, and the confusion occasioned by the civil wars in England prevented his heirs from obtaining a legal recog-

nition of their claim. As soon as Charles II. was restored to the throne, Robert Mason, grandson of the original patentee, preferred a complaint against Massachusetts for usurping jurisdiction over his property. The king sent out commissioners, with general powers to hear and determine complaints, and to settle the peace and security of the country. The assembly of Massachusetts declined submitting to their jurisdiction, and denied their authority to interfere. The matter was brought before the king in council, who decided, in 1679, in favour of Mason's claim. In consequence thereof, New Hampshire was separated from Massachusetts, and subjected to a new government, consisting of a governor and council, of royal appointment, and an assembly of representatives chosen by the people. The first acts of the assembly were expressive of their attachment to freedom. They declared that no law or ordinance should be imposed upon them, but such as should be made by the assembly; and foreseeing, perhaps, the troubles in which they were about to be involved from the claims of Mason, they enacted that all grants should remain as they were before, and that all controversies about the titles to lands should be tried by juries. In 1680, Mason arrived from England, and immediately began to assert his right to the entire soil, in a manner the most vexatious to the people. The council interfered, and forbade his collecting rents which he claimed to be due to him, by summary process. Finding that he was not able to bend them to his views, he returned to England, and procured a change to be made in the government. Edward Cranfield was appointed governor with large powers. His commission authorized him to call and dissolve the assembly, to impose a negative upon their acts, to suspend any of the council, and to appoint judges and other officers by his sole authority. Soon after his arrival, he called upon the inhabitants to take out leases from Mason, within the short period of a month, under penalty of confiscation of their estates, and imprisonment of their persons. A considerable proportion of the lands within the province was held by fair purchases, under titles derived from the Indians, and the holders made common cause with each other against the arbitrary demands of Mason. A few only of the inhabitants took leases, but the great body were determined in their refusal to submit. The first suit instituted by Mason was against Major Waldron, who had distinguished himself by his opposition to the proprietary claims. Judgment was given against him, and in all the succeeding suits a similar result was obtained. Cranfield now assumed the whole legislative power, and to further his schemes of confirming the power of Mason, and enriching himself, he scrupled not to resort to the most cruel and dishonest modes of oppression. The assembly having refused to pass a bill for raising money, which he had caused to be laid before them, he dissolved the session, and descending to a pitiful revenge,

caused many of them to be appointed constables, by which means he hoped to obtain the fine which was levied on such as refused to fill the office. A dissenting minister, named Moody, had rendered himself obnoxious by his expressions in favour of freedom, and Cranfield determined to put in force against him the laws of England, punishing nonconformity. He, accordingly, gave Moody notice that he intended to partake of the Lord's supper on the next Sunday, and required him to administer it according to the liturgy. It was in vain that Moody represented that he was not episcopally ordained according to the statute. He was put in confinement, his benefice forfeited, and, after the expiration of his imprisonment, he was glad to escape to Boston. The complaints of the people at length reached the ears of the English government. The proceedings of Cranfield were declared illegal, and he obtained permission to resign. The attempts of Mason to enforce executions upon the judgments he had obtained were warmly resisted. On one occasion warrants were issued against a party of rioters, some of whom the sheriff was endeavouring to arrest in church. He was stoutly resisted by the congregation, and a female patriot distinguished herself by knocking down one of the officers with her Bible.

After the accession of James II., new schemes of oppression for the North-American provinces were meditated. In 1686, Sir Edmund Andros arrived at Boston, with a commission appointing him governor-in-chief over all New England, and authorizing him, with his council, to make such laws and impose such taxes as they thought proper. New Hampshire, like the other provinces, fell under the vindictive tyranny of the English viceroys. The press was shackled, liberty of conscience invaded, and oppressive taxes imposed; and, to prevent complaints being heard, no person was suffered to leave the country without an express license. This state of things continued until the revolution in England, when Andros was seized by the people of Boston, and sent home a prisoner. New Hampshire being now left without a government, the people determined to return to their former connexion with Massachusetts. A petition being presented to the general court, they were readily admitted. This union, however, lasted only three years. The English government determined that New Hampshire should form a distinct province, notwithstanding that a convention of the people had petitioned that they might be annexed to Massachusetts. During these changes of government, Mason had not slept on his claims. Previous to the abdication of James II. he had vainly endeavoured to enforce the suits he had brought. The judges were averse to issuing executions; and, after some time, he obtained an order, removing his causes to Boston. Death, however, put a stop to his proceedings. His heirs sold the claim to Allen, a merchant of London, who obtained from the crown a commission as

governor of the province. He prepared to enforce his title to the land; but, on examining the record of the court, it was found that all that part which contained the judgments against Waldron and others, was missing. Suits were, therefore, brought anew, and eventuated in favour of the defendants. Allen appealed to the king in council. The death of William delayed proceedings, and soon afterwards Allen himself died. His son renewed the ejectment against Waldren, in whose favour another decision was made. Allen appealed to the queen, but died before judgment was given. His heirs, being minors, did not renew the claim. Many years afterwards, the heirs of Mason revived the controversy, but their interest was purchased by the assembly; and the long-protracted contest ended in 1747.

New Hampshire was, perhaps, of all the colonies, the one that suffered most from Indian hostility. It is impossible, in this sketch, to give even an outline of the harassing conflicts she was compelled to maintain with these savages. From the earliest settlements of the province, her progress was retarded by their inroads. Husbandmen were slaughtered in their fields, women and children were carried away, and the most distressing scenes of individual misery occurred almost daily. These outrages were, probably, often provoked by the settlers; and the savages were frequently excited by the neighbouring French, as in later years they have been stirred up by the English, against this country. As the population of New Hampshire increased, and the frontiers extended, Indian incursions became less frequent; and, after the surrender of Canada to the British arms, the province was entirely exempted from their ravages. In the twelve years of peace which followed, New Hampshire increased wonderfully in population and wealth. Her settlements extended farther west than the original limits prescribed by the patent. Until 1764, it was supposed that the territory which now forms the state of Vermont was part of the province, and grants were accordingly made by the government of New Hampshire. The district was, however, allotted to New York by the English government; and a controversy ensued, which continued until the independence of Vermont was acknowledged in 1790. During the contest, many of the towns of New Hampshire, lying near the Connecticut River, attached themselves to the Vermontese, but in the end returned to their former submission.

In the revolutionary war, New Hampshire bore an active and honourable part. On the news of the battle of Lexington, 1200 men marched to the assistance of their brethren in Boston. A temporary constitution was formed, and the royal governor was obliged to retire from his functions. A month previous to the declaration of independence by the general congress, the general assembly of the province appointed a committee to make a draught of a declaration, in favour of an entire separation from

Great Britain. One of the most brilliant actions of the war was fought at Bennington, by General Stark, an officer of this state, with a body of militia, in part from New Hampshire. Few of the states contributed so many men in proportion to their population, to the support of the contest for freedom. When peace arrived, this state found herself oppressed by a load of debt, to discharge which heavy taxes were necessarily imposed. The consequence was discontent on the part of the people; and disaffection rose to such a height, that a body of armed men besieged the legislature in its hall. The vigorous measures of Governor Sullivan immediately crushed the insurrection, and restored the peace of the state. Since the adoption of the federal constitution, no event of historical importance has occurred in New Hampshire.

Places remarkable for Battles, Sieges, &c.

1689, Dover. The town surprised, and most of the inhabitants killed or taken prisoners by the Indians, June 27.—*Strafford.*

1694, Dover. The town again attacked by the Indians, who are finally beaten off, July 18.—*Strafford.*

1747, Charlestown. Attacked by a party of French and Indians on November 4, who are repulsed.—*Cheshire.*

MASSACHUSETTS.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

MASSACHUSETTS is situated between 41° 12′ and 42° 53′ north latitude, and 3° 33′ and 7° 10′ east longitude. It is bounded north by Vermont and New Hampshire; east, by the Atlantic Ocean; south, by Rhode Island and Connecticut; and west, by New York. Its mean length, from east to west, is 130 miles; and its mean breadth, from north to south, is sixty. Its area is estimated at 7800 square miles, or 4,092,200 acres.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

There are several ranges of mountains in the western part of the state, continued from Vermont and New Hampshire, and running across the state into Connecticut. The first is the *Taghconuc* range, which may be regarded as a branch of the Green Mountains. It leaves the main range at Williamstown, in the northwest corner of the state, and, traversing the western part of the county of Berkshire, divides the waters of the Hudson from those

of the Housatonic, and passes into Connecticut. The second is the *Green Mountain* range, which runs on the east side of the Housatonic, and pursues a course east of south, between the waters of the Housatonic and those of the Connecticut. The third is the *Mount Tom* range, which commences in New Hampshire, and running south-west, crosses Connecticut River at Northampton, and then proceeds in a southerly course on the west side of the river. The *Lyme* range leaves the Mount Tom range, about ten miles east of Northampton, and proceeds in a southerly course on the east side of Connecticut River. The part of the state east of these mountains is hilly, except in the south-eastern counties, where it is level and sandy. On the sea-coast the land is generally poor, particularly in the south-east. The rest of the state has generally a strong good soil, well adapted to grazing and grain. The valleys of the Connecticut and the Housatonic, especially, have a fine soil, and embrace many flourishing and pleasant towns. The improvements in agriculture made in this state are highly respectable and laudable. The towns around Boston are literally gardens, from which the capital is supplied with the finest fruits and vegetables. The principal *agricultural productions* are grass, Indian corn, rye, wheat, oats, and potatoes. Apples are abundant, and large quantities of cider are made annually. Beef, pork, butter, and cheese, are also abundant and of excellent quality. Among the *mineral products* are iron ore, which is found in large quantities in Bristol and Plymouth counties; and marble, quarries of which have been opened in Stockbridge and other towns of Berkshire county. At Chelmsford and Tyngsborough, near the banks of the Middlesex canal, great quantities of beautiful granite are found, which is much used for building in Boston.

Peninsula, Islands, and Capes.

The county of Barnstable is a peninsula, commonly called the peninsula of Cape Cod. Its shape is that of a man's arm bent inwards both at the elbow and the wrist. A great part of this peninsula is sandy and barren, and in many places wholly destitute of vegetation; yet it is populous. The inhabitants derive their support almost entirely from the ocean; the men being constantly employed at sea, and the boys at a very early age being put on board the fishing boats. In consequence of the violent east winds, it is supposed that the cape is gradually wearing away. *Nantucket* Island lies south of Cape Cod. It is fifteen miles long, and contains about fifty square miles. The soil is light and sandy, but in some parts rich and productive, particularly in hay. The inhabitants are principally of the denomination of Friends, and they hold the land in common. All the cows, amounting to about 500, feed together in one herd; all the sheep, 14,000, in one pasture. The men are generally robust, enterprising seamen, extensively engaged in the whale fishery, and are as skilful and adventurous as any in the world. To the south-

st of this island are the Nantucket shoals, where many vessels ve been shipwrecked. They extend about fifty miles in length, d forty-five in breadth. Martha's Vineyard lies west of Nan-cket. It is twenty miles long, and from two to ten broad. There a spacious harbour on the north side of the island, called olmes's Hole. Vessels bound to Boston or the eastward are equently seen here in great numbers, waiting for a wind to able them to double Cape Cod. It is calculated that more an 1000 vessels anchor here in the course of a year. *Elizabeth* lands are small islands extending in a row about eighteen miles length along the south-east side of Buzzard's Bay. *Plum* Island tends along the coast from Newburyport, south, to Ipswich. is nine miles long and one broad, and is separated from the ain land by a narrow sound, over which a bridge has been built. n the north end are two light-houses. In the season, when ums are ripe, this island is the resort of the neighbouring inha-ants, and a scene of lively amusement. The principal capes e, *Cape Anne* and *Cape Cod*, on each side of Massachusett's ay; Cape Malabar, at the south-east extremity of the peninsula Cape Cod; Sandy Point, on the north side of Nantucket land; and Gay Head, at the western extremity of Martha's neyard.

Rivers and Canals.

Connecticut River crosses the western part of the state from rth to south, intersecting the counties of Franklin, Hampshire, d Hampden, and passes into Connecticut. The Merrimack mes from New Hampshire, and running north-east empties at ewburyport. Ipswich River is a small stream which falls into swich harbour at the south end of Plum Island. Charles River lls into Boston harbour, between Boston and Charlestown. It is vigable seven miles, to Watertown. Neponset River falls into oston harbour, on the south side of the town. Taunton River es in Plymouth county, and runs south-west into Narraganset ay. It is navigable for small vessels twenty miles, to Taunton.—he principal branches of the Merrimack, are Concord and Nashua ivers.—The principal branches of the Connecticut, are Miller's iver and the Chicapee from the east, and Deerfield and Westfield om the west. The Housatonic rises in the northern part of erkshire county, and flows south into the state of Connecticut. Middlesex Canal is wholly within the county of Middlesex. connects Boston Harbour with Merrimack River. It is sup-ied with water from Concord River, which it crosses on its rface. From Concord River, southward, it descends 107 feet, thirteen locks, to the tide water of Boston Harbour; and from oncord River, northward, it descends twenty-one feet, by three cks, to the level of Merrimack River. The locks are all ninety et by twelve. The canal is thirty-one miles long, twenty-four et wide, and four feet deep. It was commenced in 1793, and

finished in 1804, at an expense of more than 700,000 doll is the greatest work of the kind yet completed in the States.—Around the falls in Connecticut River, at South- there is canal cut through the solid rock, more than fc deep, and 300 feet long. There are other falls on the C ticut, above and below South-Hadley, which have been ov by canals, dams, and other improvements, so that the rive navigable for boats through the whole of its course in th and as high as Bath in New Hampshire. A canal from B Bay to Barnstable Bay, through the isthmus of Cape Cod, l been in contemplation, and in 1818, a company was incorpo carry it into execution. It is intended that the canal shall suitable depth for vessels drawing ten feet of water.

Climate.

The winter commences about the middle of Decemb ends about the middle of March; during which time the is generally covered with snow, often to the depth of three feet. The thermometer ranges during that period betw and 10°; but the mercury has sometimes fallen to 20° belc The summer heats are great for about a month, the therm ranging from 77 to 90; but it has been as high as 101. · mainder of the year is very pleasant, and the climate is, u whole, healthy and agreeable.

Civil Divisions and Population.

The state is divided into fourteen counties, and 290 to

Counties.	*Towns.*	*Population in 1810.*	*Population in 1820.*	*Chief*
Essex,	23	71,888	74,580	Salem,
Middlesex,	44	52,789	61,677	Charle
Suffolk,	2	34,381	43,925	Bosтc
Norfolk,	22	31,245	36,462	Dedha
Plymouth,	18	35,169	38,112	Plymo
Barnstable	14	22,211	24,029	Barnst
Bristol,	16	37,168	39,198	Taunt
Worcester,	51	64,910	73,605	Worce
Franklin,	24	27,301	29,289	Green
Hampshire,	22	24,553	26,487	North
Hampden,	18	24,421	28,073	Spring
Berkshire,	32	35,907	35,727	Lenox
Duke's,	3	3,290	3,295	Edgart
Nantucket,	1	6,807	7,266	Nantu
	290	472,040	521,725	

The population in 1790, was 378,787, and in 1800, 4 It has on an average seventy-two persons to each square n is the most thickly-settled state in the union. Many th emigrate every year to the newly-settled parts of the cou

Chief Towns and Harbours.

Boston, the capital of the state, and the largest town in New England, is pleasantly situated at the bottom of Massachusetts Bay, on a peninsula of an irregular figure, two miles long, and in the widest part about one broad. The harbour is one of the best in the United States. It has a sufficient depth of water for vessels of the largest size, at all times of the tide, and is accessible at all seasons of the year. It is safe from every wind, and is so capacious that it will allow 500 vessels to ride at anchor, yet the entrance is so narrow as scarcely to admit two ships abreast. The entrance is defended by two forts. Boston is very extensively engaged in commerce. The amount of shipping owned here in 1815, was 143,420 tons; a greater amount than belonged to any other port in the United States, except New York. The country in the immediate vicinity is fertile and populous, and connected with the capital by fine roads, while the Middlesex canal opens a water communication with the interior of New Hampshire. There are, probably, few cities in the world where there is so much wealth in proportion to the population, as in this town; and the inhabitants have long been celebrated for the liberality with which they support religious, literary, and humane institutions. The population, in 1800, was 24,937; in 1810, 33,250, and in 1820, more than 43,000.

Charlestown is one mile north of Boston, and connected with it by a bridge over Charles River. Here are the state's prison, a hospital for the insane, and a United States' navy-yard. *Lynn* is on the coast, nine miles north-east of Boston. It is famous for the manufacture of ladies' shoes. No less than a 1,000,000 pair were made here in 1811. *Marblehead* is on a peninsula, 16 miles north-east of Boston. It is more extensively engaged in the fisheries than any other town in the United States. In 1818, there were 80 vessels employed from this port in the cod-fishery, manned by 760 men. The whole amount of shipping in 1815, was 16,555 tons. *Salem* is on a peninsula, four miles north-west of Marblehead. It is the second town in New England for commerce, wealth, and population. The harbour has good anchorage, but is so shallow, that vessels drawing more than 12 or 14 feet of water, must load and unload at a distance from the wharves. The East India trade is carried on from this port with great spirit. In 1818, there were employed in this trade 53 vessels, carrying 14,272 tons. The whole amount of shipping belonging to the port in 1815, was 34,455 tons. *Beverly* lies directly north of Salem, and is connected with it by a bridge. It is largely concerned in the fisheries. *Gloucester* is on the peninsula of Cape Anne, 16 miles north-east of Salem. It is one of the most considerable fishing towns in the commonwealth. *Newburyport*, the third commercial town in the state, is on the Merrimack, three

miles from its mouth, and 33 N. N. E. of Boston. The harbour is deep, safe, and spacious, but difficult to enter. The amount of shipping in 1815, was 24,691 tons. *Plymouth* is on the coast, 36 miles S. S. E. of Boston. It is remarkable as the place where the first settlers of New England landed, on the 22d of December, 1620. The harbour is spacious, but shallow. The amount of shipping, in 1815, was 18,875 tons. *New Bedford* is 52 miles south of Boston, on the estuary of a small river which flows into Buzzard's Bay. It has a safe and commodious harbour, and is extensively engaged in the whale fishery. The amount of shipping in 1818, was 23,712 tons. The principal towns in the interior, are *Worcester*, 40 miles west of Boston, and *Northampton* and *Springfield*, on Connecticut River. There is an armory belonging to the United States at Springfield, which employs 250 men, who complete, on an average, 45 muskets daily. There are 28 forges and 10 trip hammers connected with the establishment. In Berkshire county, the chief towns are *Stockbridge* and *Lenox*, on the Housatonic, and *Pittsfield*, 12 miles north of Stockbridge.

Manufactures, Fisheries, and Commerce.

Massachusetts is the third state in the Union in amount of manufactures. The value, in 1810, was 21,895,528 dollars. The principal articles were cotton goods, articles of leather, ardent spirits, cordage, wrought and cast iron, nails, woollens, ships, straw bonnets, and hats. In amount of shipping, Massachusetts is the first state in the Union. In 1815, before Maine was separated, the number of tons was 452,273, which was about one third of the whole shipping of the United States. No state is so extensively engaged in the fisheries. In many populous towns on the sea-coast, a large proportion of the inhabitants derive their subsistence entirely from this employment. The principal *exports* are fish, beef, lumber, pork, ardent spirits, whale oil, and various manufactures. The value of the exports for the year ending September 30th, 1820, was 11,008,922 dollars, of which 7,147,487 was foreign produce.

Education.

Harvard University, at Cambridge, three miles north-west of Boston, is the most ancient and the most wealthy literary institution in the United States. It was founded in 1638, in less than 20 years after the first settlement of New England. Its officers, in 1819, were a president, 20 professors, two tutors, an instructor in French and Spanish, four proctors, and a regent. The library is one of the largest in America, containing 25,000 volumes. The philosophical and chemical apparatus are complete. There is a valuable cabinet of minerals belonging to the university, an excellent anatomical museum, and a botanic garden, containing eight acres of land, and furnished with an extensive collection of

trees, shrubs, and plants, both native and foreign. A law school, a medical school, and a theological seminary form part of the university. The whole number of students, in 1819, was 383, of whom 38 were engaged in the study of theology—62 in that of medicine—11 in that of law—and 272 under-graduates. The whole number educated here, from the establishment of the institution to the year 1818, was 4442, a greater number than at any other college in the country. *Williams's College*, in Williamstown, in the north-west corner of the state, was incorporated in 1793. It has a president, two professors, three tutors, a library of about 1500 volumes, a valuable philosophical and chemical apparatus, and about 90 students. The *Theological Seminary at Andover*, 20 miles north of Boston, was founded in 1808, and has been very richly endowed, entirely by private bounty. Within the first 10 years after its establishment, it received to the value of 300,000 dollars in donations, from seven individuals. It has four professors, and more than 100 students. The library contains about 5000 volumes. *Phillips's academy*, also in Andover, is the best endowed and most flourishing academy in the state. This academy, and the theological seminary, are under the same board of trustees. There are numerous other academies in the state, and common schools are universally established. In no part of the Union are literary institutions more liberally patronised by individuals, than in the eastern part of this state.

Religion.

The Congregationalists are much more numerous than any other denomination. In 1817, they had 366 congregations; the Baptists, 91; Friends, 32; Episcopalians, 14; Presbyterians, eight; there are also a few Methodists and Roman Catholics.

Government.

The constitution of Massachusetts was adopted in 1780. On the separation of Maine, in 1820, a convention was called, by whom 14 amendments were proposed to the people. Nine of these were adopted, and five rejected. By the constitution, as thus amended, the powers of government are divided and administered as follows. The legislature, or general court, consists of a senate and house of representatives, both chosen annually by the people. The senators are chosen by districts. The representatives by towns, and each town having 150 rateable polls sends one, and another for every additional 225 polls. They assemble annually in January and May. The governor's assent is necessary to the passage of a bill, unless, after he withholds it, two thirds of both houses vote for it. The executive consists of a governor, lieutenant-governor, and a council of nine members. The two first are chosen out of the people annually. The council is chosen by the legislature out of the senators, and, if they decline, from among the people. The judiciary is composed of a supreme

court, having four judges, and sitting twice a year in each county; of county courts, having four judges; a court of probate in each county, and a justice's court. These courts are subject to different modifications by law. The right of suffrage belongs to every male citizen aged 21 years and upwards, (excepting paupers and persons under guardianship), who has resided within the state one year, and paid by himself, or his parent, master, or guardian, any state or county tax which has been assessed upon him within two years. Amendments to the constitution may be proposed in the general court, and if agreed to by a majority of the senate, and two thirds of the representatives, are to be referred to the next session, when, if similar majorities agree, the sense of the people is to be taken, and, if ratified by a majority of qualified votes, they become part of the constitution.

GOVERNORS, &c.

Governors of Plymouth, chosen annually by the people.

1620 John Carver.
1621 William Bradford, twelve years.
1633 Edmund Winslow.
1634 Thomas Prince.
1635 William Bradbury.
1636 Edmund Winston.
1637 William Bradford, seven years.
1644 Edmund Winston.
1645 William Bradford, twelve years.
1657 Thomas Prince, sixteen years.
1673 Josiah Winslow, seven years.
1680 Thomas Hinckley, who was annually elected, except in the interruption by Andros, until the junction with Massachusetts.

Governors of Massachusetts, under the first charter, chosen annually by the people.

1630 John Winthrop, four years.
1634 Thomas Dudley.
1635 John Hayries.
1636 Henry Vane.
1637 John Winthrop, three years.
1640 Thomas Dudley.
1641 Richard Bellingham.
1642 John Winthrop, two years.
1644 John Endicott.
1645 Thomas Dudley.
1646 John Winthrop, three years.
1649 John Endicott, five years.
1654 Richard Bellingham.
1655 John Endicott, ten years.
1665 Richard Bellingham, eight years.
1673 John Leverett, six years.
1679 Simon Bradstreet, seven years.

After the dissolution of the first Charter.

1686 Joseph Dudley, *President.*
1687 Sir Edmund Andros, *Gov.*
1689 Simon Bradstreet, *elected Pres.*
1691 Simon Bradstreet, *elected Gov.*

Governors of Massachusetts under the second Charter appointed by the King.

1692 Sir William Phipps, two years.
1694 William Stoughton, *Lieut. Gov.*
1699 Earl of Bellamont.
1700 William Stinghton, *Lieut. Gov.*
1702 The Council.
Joseph Dudley.
1714 The Council.
Joseph Dudley.
1715 William Taylor, *Lieut. Gov.*
1716 Samuel Shute.
1723 William Dummer, *Lieut. Gov.*
1728 William Burnet.
1729 William Dummer, *Lieut. Gov.*
1730 William Taylor, *Lieut. Gov.*
Jonathan Belcher.
1741 William Shirley.
1749 Spencer Phips, *Lieut. Gov.*
1753 William Shirley.
1756 Spencer Phips, *Lieut. Gov.*
1757 The Council. Thomas Pownal.
1760 Thomas Hutchinson, *Lieut. Gov.*
1760 Francis Bernard.
1770 Thomas Hutchinson, *Lieut. Gov.*
1771 Thomas Hutchinson.
1774 Thomas Gage.

After the Revolution.

1774 *October*, A provincial Congress. | 1775 *July*, The Council.

Governors under the constitution of 1780, *chosen annually by the people.*

1780 John Hancock, to 1785.
1785 James Bowdoin, to 1787.
1787 John Hancock, to 1793.
1794 Samuel Adams, to 1797.
1797 Increase Sumner, to 1799.
1800 Caleb Strong, to 1807.
1807 James Sullivan, to 1809.
1809 Christopher Gore, to 1810.
1810 Elbridge Gerry, to 1812.
1812 Caleb Strong, to 1816.
1816 John Brooks, to 1821.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

To Bartholomew Gosnald, the master of a small bark, the English were indebted for the first accurate account of the country since called New England. Sailing from Falmouth in 1602, in a course nearly west, he discovered a promontory, which he called Cape Cod, and navigated the coast to the south-west, touching at different places, and examining the country. On his return, he drew so agreeable a picture of the climate and soil, as to revive the spirit of colonization, which had become, in some measure, extinct. By the exertions of Hackluyt, a man of great learning, two companies were formed in 1606, and soon afterwards received letters-patent under the great seal. The first, consisting of adventurers from London and elsewhere, were to establish themselves between the 34th and 41st degrees of north latitude; the second, who were principally from Plymouth and Bristol, were to settle between the 38th and 45th degrees. To the first, the settlement of Virginia is owing. The Plymouth company were unfortunate in their early attempts. Their first ship was captured by the Spaniards. A party of about one hundred persons landed safely in 1607, but were so much reduced in number by the severity of the winter and the diseases of new settlements, that in the succeeding spring they abandoned the country, and several years elapsed before the company renewed the undertaking. Religious fervour, however, effected what commercial enterprise had failed to accomplish. In 1620, a congregation of English puritans, whom oppression had driven to Holland, obtained from the London company a grant of lands within their charter, and, in number 101, sailed from Plymouth for the river Hudson, on whose banks they intended to settle. They were carried further north, however, and landed near Cape Cod, at a place to which they gave the name of New Plymouth. Their first care was to form a system of civil government. They chose a governor; and, to aid him in the discharge of his duties, appointed an assistant. The number of assistants was increased some years afterwards to seven. The supreme power resided in the whole body of the inhabitants, and it was not until 1639, that

they established a house of representatives. In imitation of the primitive Christians, they threw all their property into a common stock: but the experience of the mischiefs arising from this political co-partnership, soon induced them to relinquish it. In 1630, they obtained from the Plymouth company a grant of the land on which they had settled.

The settlement of Massachusetts did not advance with much rapidity for some years, although detached parties, driven over by the persecutions of the High Church, established themselves in different places. Salem was the first permanent town erected, and shortly afterwards Charlestown was built. A fresh spring was given to the exertions of the Plymouth company, by the grant of a new royal charter in 1628; and the removal of the powers of government to New England, which had been previously exercised in the mother country. The number of emigrants now began to be considerable. In July, 1630, seventeen ships arrived at Salem with 1500 persons, by some of whom the foundation of Boston was laid. The early years of the new colony were passed in a complication of troubles. The sufferings which they experienced from the severity of the climate and the difficulties of the soil, were aggravated by the hostility of the natives, and the equally hostile attempts of the British government upon their civil and religious freedom, by contests with their French neighbours in the north, and by their own mistaken policy and lamentable dissensions. The civil policy of the settlement was not at all to the taste of the English monarchs of the Stuart line. In 1635, Charles I. appointed commissioners, with absolute power "to make laws and constitutions, concerning either the state, public, or the utility of individuals." Two years after this he forbade emigration to the plantation, to all who should not conform to the discipline of the church of England; and, in 1638, a quo warranto was issued against Massachusetts, upon which judgment was given against the colonists, without affording them a hearing. The state of affairs at home, however, prevented any further prosecution of these designs on the part of the British government. The experience of their own sufferings in England, from religious persecution, unfortunately taught the colonists no lesson of toleration. Scarcely had they organized themselves, when they began to put in practice a similar mode of compelling religious uniformity. One of the first ordinances of the general court, excluded from political suffrage all who did not profess the strictest doctrines of the Brownists. In 1635, the famous dispute arose respecting the covenant of *grace* and the covenant of *works*, and those who espoused the side of the latter, being the most numerous, resorted to the ancient mode of glorifying God by persecuting their opponents. The leaders of the Antinomian party were banished, and thus contributed to the settlement of Rhode Island, which had been

begun the preceding year by Roger Williams, and a party exiled for a similar cause.

The downfall of monarchy in England checked the progress of emigration, by securing protection to the Puritan religion at home, but was in some other respects advantageous to the colonies of New England. Their civil liberties were more safe, and some extraordinary privileges were granted to their commerce. Under the protection of a republican administration in the mother country, their wealth and population increased with an accelerated rapidity. The prospect of hostilities with the Indians, however, compelled Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connecticut, and Newhaven, to form an offensive and defensive union. The confederacy seems to have had reference to no other object, and each colony retained its separate jurisdiction. On the restoration of Charles II., the colony of Massachusetts was found to have increased in stature and importance, to such a degree, that the anxiety of the monarch was naturally awakened, lest an impression should be made in favour of the efficacy of a democratic administration. Accordingly commissioners were appointed to superintend affairs, with large powers of control, to which the assembly of Massachusetts were ill-disposed to submit. Altercations ensued; the navigation act was enforced against the colony, and the destruction of its charter was resolved upon; but death marred the execution of this project by Charles II. His successor, James II., was equally hostile to the principles of freedom, and prosecuted the designs of his brother with greater obstinacy. He determined to unite all the provinces of New England into one government, under a president and council, and found a fit agent for his purpose in Sir Edmund Andros. After dissolving the governments of Connecticut and Rhode Island, the new president proceeded to Massachusetts, where he compelled a temporary submission. Remonstrances were in vain made to James II. The infatuated monarch was determined to crush the spirit of freedom in both hemispheres, and in furtherance of his designs, annexed New York and New Jersey to the union already formed. The government of Andros expired with that of his royal master. A vague report having reached Boston, of the proceedings in England, on the landing of the Prince of Orange, the people rose without any previous concert, seized and imprisoned Andros and his adherents, and restored the former order of things. Intelligence of the abdication of James being received, William and Mary were proclaimed at Boston with great rejoicings.

The people of Massachusetts, however, derived no great advantages from the change of government. They petitioned for the restoration of their charter, which the judges of Charles II. had declared to be forfeited; but they found, to their dissatisfaction, that they were not to expect the same liberal provisions as before.

The king was to appoint the governor, by whom the assembly was to be called, prorogued, or dissolved, and most officers appointed. By the new charter, the colony of Plymouth was now finally united to Massachusetts. The war which broke out in Europe soon afterwards extended its ravages to New England. The Indians were incited by the French of Canada to make inroads upon the settlements; and the colonists in return wasted their wealth and strength in ill-managed expeditions against the French provinces. We find that Massachusetts contributed, in 1690, an armament of seven vessels and 800 men for an expedition against Port Royal, which miscarried through the blunders of the royal governor; and, in the same year, united with Connecticut in raising a body of troops amounting to 2000 men for an attack on Quebec, which failed from the same cause. Similar exertions were made, and attended with similar results, until the termination of the war by the treaty of Ryswick. When the war again broke out in Europe, Massachusetts was not less prominent in her contributions to the common cause. In 1708, 1200 men were raised for another abortive attempt on Canada; and in 1711, besides sending a considerable armament to assist in a formidable expedition against Quebec, this province issued forty thousand pounds in bills of credit. While contributing thus strenuously to the support of the wars undertaken by England, the assembly of Massachusetts was warmly engaged in contests with the royal governor. Every session presented the same scene of altercation, and public business was with difficulty transacted, through the determination of the representation of the representatives not to give a fixed salary to their governors, which the latter were resolved to obtain. In 1745, France and England being again involved in hostilities, an expedition against the strong fortification of Louisburg was projected in Massachusetts. A powerful armament was prepared principally by this province, and the command of the land-forces given to Colonel Pepperel, a rich merchant of Boston. After an extraordinary display of bravery and skill, on the part of the assailants, the place was surrendered. The British officers present claimed all the merit of the affair, and Louisburg was restored to France at the conclusion of the war, to the no small mortification of the New Englanders. In the war which ended with the conquest of Canada, Massachusetts surpassed her former exertions. In the year 1757, she had seven thousand men in the field, and maintained this number until the peace of 1763.

The extraordinary expenses of the war led to the execution of a design, which had long before been conceived by the British government, the imposition, namely, of internal taxes upon the inhabitants of the provinces. Massachusetts was one of the first to remonstrate against, and the most strenuous to oppose, the Stamp Act. At the recommendation of her general court, it was, that the first general congress was held. When, after the repeal

of the Stamp Act, the duty on tea was attempted to be enforced, the earliest popular movements appeared at Boston. The attempts of the British ministry to enforce obedience to their arbitrary mandates, only strengthened the cause of the colonists; and the flame of war, which broke out in Massachusetts, gradually extended itself over the whole of the Anglo-American continent. Massachusetts was, in the early part of the contest, the theatre of hostilities, by which she suffered much, while she contributed greatly, by her exertions, to the successful issue of the conflict. An outline of this portion of her history will be found in that of the United States, in another part of this work.

The extreme pressure of the taxes, consequent upon these exertions, led to serious discontent among the people of Massachusetts after the peace of 1783. The government of the state was feebly administered and made no efforts to support its authority. At length, in 1786, an open insurrection took place in the western counties. The insurgents, under a popular leader, named Shays, committed great excesses, and for some months law and order were entirely suspended. They were at length overcome by General Sheppard, and their leaders driven out of the state. Massachusetts united cordially with her sister states in adopting the new frame of government in 1787. So favourable has been its influence upon her interests, that little remains to be added to her history. Her domestic annals, since that epoch, present little more of interest than the bickerings of parties, which have not interfered with her strength or prosperity. Among the members of the union, Massachusetts has always maintained an elevated rank. Her political weight has generally been in the scale of the federal party. The last war with England was vehemently opposed by a majority of the people of the state; and, from the period of the refusal to place her militia under the control of the general government, to the unfortunate and factious convention at Hartford, the acts of her party leaders uniformly tended to embarrass the government. Massachusetts suffered somewhat in her commerce during the latter part of the war; but, except in the occupation of a part of the then district of Maine by the British forces, experienced little injury from the contest. The most important event that has occurred since the peace of 1815, is the separation of Maine, and her erection into an independent state, which took place in 1820.

Places remarkable for Battles, Sieges, &c.

1675, Swanzey. Battle with the Wampanoags, under Philip.—*Bristol.*

Brookfield. Engagement with the Nipmucks, who assault the town, August 2.—*Worcester.*

October 19.—*Hampshire.*

Hadley. Assaulted by the Indians, who are finally defeated,

1676, Sudbury. Engagement with the Indians, April 28.—*Middlesex.*

Deerfield, or the *Fall Fight.* The Indians surprised and defeated, May 18.—*Hampden.*

Hatfield. Assaulted by the Indians unsuccessfully, May 30.—*Hampshire.*

Hadley. Assaulted by the Indians, who are again defeated, June 12.—*Hampshire.*

1775, Lexington. Battle between the militia and the British regulars, April 19.—*Middlesex.*

Bunker's Hill. Battle between the provincials and the British, June 17.—*Middlesex.*

1776, Bostou. Besieged by Washington, and evacuated by the British, March 17.—*Suffolk.*

1787, Springfield. Engagement with a body of insurgents under General Shays, who are defeated.—*Hampden.*

RHODE ISLAND.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

Rhode Island is situated between 41° 17′, and 42° 1′, N. lat. and 5° 7′, and 5° 54′ E. long. It is bounded on the north and east by Massachusetts, south by the Atlantic Ocean, and west by Connecticut. Its mean length from north to south, is about 47 miles, and its mean breadth 29; its area being 1360 square miles, or 870,400 acres.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

The northern part of the state is hilly; the rest is chiefly level. About one-tenth part of the surface is covered by the waters of Narraganset Bay. The northern section of the state has a thin and barren soil; but the islands and the country bordering on Narraganset Bay are very fertile, and celebrated for their fine cattle, their numerous flocks of sheep, and the abundance and excellence of their butter and cheese. The south-western part of the state is an excellent grazing country.

Rivers.

Pawtucket River rises in Massachusetts, and, running southeast into this state, falls into Providence River, one mile below the town of Providence. There are falls of about fifty feet descent, four miles from its mouth. Below the falls the river is called the Seekhonk.

Providence River is formed by the Wanasquiatucket and Moshassuck, two small rivers which unite just above Providence. It falls into the northern arm of Narraganset Bay, and is navigable to Providence for ships of 900 tons.

Pawtuxet River falls into Providence River, five miles below the town of Providence. It abounds with falls, which furnish fine situations for mills and manufacturing establishments. There are about forty cotton factories on this river and its branches.

Pawcatuck River waters the south-west part of the state, and falls into Stonington Harbour. In the latter part of its course it is the boundary between this state and Connecticut.

Bays.

Narraganset Bay divides the state into two parts. It communicates with the Ocean, between Point Judith on the west, and Point Seaconet on the east. It is about thirty miles long, and fifteen broad, and embraces several considerable islands. The north-east arm of the bay is called Mount Hope Bay; the north-west arm, Greenwich Bay; and the northern arm, Providence Bay. The principal rivers which fall into it are Providence river from the north, and Taunton River from the north-east. The commissioners who were appointed to examine the coast of the United States, in 1817, were of opinion that this bay presented the best site for a naval depôt in the union, north of Chesapeake Bay. It is accessible from the sea at all seasons of the year; it affords capacious harbours; can be entered from the ocean in a few hours' sail; is not susceptible of a continued blockade, nor obstructed by ice.

Islands.

Rhode Island, from which the state takes its name, is in Narraganset Bay. It is fifteen miles long, and on an average three and a half broad, containing about fifty square miles. Its climate and soil are delightful; the summers are remarkably pleasant, and the winters milder than on the continent. It is a noted resort for invalids from southern climates. Travellers have called it the Eden of America.

Canonicut is a beautiful island, lying west of Rhode Island; it is about seven miles long, and one broad. Prudence Island lies north-east of Canonicut. Block Island lies ten miles south-west of Point Judith. It is seven miles long, and four broad, and constitutes the township of New Shoreham. The inhabitants, about 700 in number, derive their principal support from the fisheries. The island is famous for cattle and sheep, butter and cheese.

Climate.

The climate is nearly assimilated to that of Massachusetts; but, in consequence of the proximity of Rhode Island to the sea, is

somewhat milder, and is considered more like that of Britain than any other of the Atlantic states. The spring commences about the 1st of March, and the summer heats are greatest in June, July, and August, but they are seldom oppressive; the fall weather in September and October, is delightful; and the winters are pretty regular and steady from the month of November to the month of March. The air is pure and salubrious.

Civil Divisions and Population.

The state is divided into counties and townships.

Counties.	*Towns.*	*Pop. in* 1810.	*Pop. in* 1820.	*Chief Towns.*
Providence,	10	30,769	35,736	Providence.
Newport, .	7	16,294	15,771	Newport.
Washington,	7	14,962	15,687	South Kingston.
Kent, . .	4	9,834	10,228	East Greenwich.
Bristol, . .	3	5,072	5,637	Bristol.
		76,931	83,059	

The population in 1790, was 68,825; in 1800, 69,122; in 1810, 76,931, and in 1820, 83,059, or 52 for each square mile.

Chief Towns.

Providence, the largest town in the state, and the third in New England in point of population, stands on Providence River, just above the mouth of the Seekhouk, 35 miles from the ocean. The town is built on both sides of the river, and the two parts are connected by an elegant bridge. Providence is one of the wealthiest and most flourishing towns of its size in the United States. The principal source of its prosperity is the cotton manufacture, which was introduced about 15 years ago, and has increased with astonishing rapidity. The commerce of the town has grown with its manufactures. The amount of shipping, in 1819, was 19,000 tons, of which about 5000 were employed in the East India trade, and 5 or 6000 in the coasting trade with the southern states. About 10 vessels are constantly employed in the exportation of cotton goods. Packets ply regularly between Providence and Newport, Bristol, and Warren.

Pawtucket village, finely situated on Pawtucket River, at the falls, 4 miles north-east of Providence, is one of the most flourishing manufacturing villages in the United States.

Bristol is on the east side of Narraganset Bay, 15 miles S.S.E. of Providence. It has a safe and commodious harbour, and is a place of considerable trade.

Warren is a pleasant town, adjoining Bristol on the north.

Newport is near the south-west extremity of the island of Rhode Island, 30 miles south of Providence. Its harbour is one of the finest in the world, being safe and easy of access, sufficiently

capacious to contain whole fleets, and deep enough for vessels of the largest burden. It is defended by Fort Wolcott, erected on Goat Island, and two other forts, called Fort Adams and Fort Green. The sight of the town is a beautiful declivity, which rises gradually from the harbour, presenting a fine view on the approach from the water. The beauty of its situation and the salubrity of its climate, have made it a place of fashionable resort from the southern and middle states, during the summer months. Newport was formerly more flourishing than it is at present. Previously to the American revolution, it was the fourth commercial town in the British colonies, and contained, at one period, more than 9000 inhabitants. During the revolutionary contest it was for a long time occupied by the enemy, and suffered severely. At present it maintains some trade with the East Indies, Europe, and Cuba: but the most important branch of its commerce is the coasting trade with the middle and southern states. In 1819, the amount of shipping owned here was 10,951 tons. The fisheries are very valuable. There is probably no fish market in the world which affords a greater variety.

Manufactures and Commerce.

In no state of the union is so large a proportion of the population and capital employed in manufactures as in Rhode Island. The principal article is cotton goods, which are made in large quantities in Providence and the vicinity. There are now more than 90 cotton mills in the state, many of them extensive establishments. The other manufactures are woollen goods, iron, ardent spirits, &c. The value of the manufactures in 1810, was 4,106,074 dollars. The exports in 1820, amounted to 1,072,762 dollars, of which nearly one-half was foreign produce. The amount of shipping in 1819, was 39,044 tons. There were in 1819, 39 banks in this state, of which 7 were at Providence, 5 at Newport, 5 at Bristol, and 3 at Smithfield.

Education.

Brown University, in Providence, is one of the most flourishing and respectable literary institutions in the United States. It was originally established at Warren in 1764, and was removed to Providence, in 1770. It has a president, 8 professors, 3 tutors, and, in 1819, there were 126 students. The library contains more than 5000 volumes, and the philosophical apparatus is extensive and complete. The college edifice is of brick, 150 feet by 46, and four stories high, containing 48 rooms for students, and 8 large rooms for public uses. Its site is elevated, and commands a fine prospect. The president and a majority of the trustees are required to be of the Baptist denomination.

Common schools are not supported by law in Rhode Island, as in the other New England states; academies, however, are

established in all the principal towns, and private schools are maintained during the winter months in almost every part of the state.

Religion.

The Baptists are by far the most numerous denomination. The number of Baptist congregations is 57; of Friends 18; Congregationalists 11; Episcopalians 5; Moravians 1; Jews 1. Religion is not supported by law. The clergy are maintained by the voluntary contributions of their people.

Government.

Rhode Island has no written constitution, and differs in this respect from all the other states. She is governed by the charter of Charles II.; the provisions of which are so liberal, that little inconvenience has been hitherto experienced from the want of a constitution. The executive officer is a Governor, who is elected by the people at large, and retains his office for one year. He has no negative upon the acts of the legislature; but, as a member of the council, is entitled to one vote. The legislature is composed of a Council and House of Representatives, both elected annually by the people. The council are twelve in number, including the governor and a deputy governor. The House of Representatives consists of deputies chosen by the several townships. The Judiciary is composed of a Supreme Court, which sits twice a year in each county, and an inferior Court of Common Pleas, and general sessions of the peace for each county, sitting also twice a year. The judges of these courts, together with all executive officers, are annually elected by the legislature. The charter acknowledges no superiority of one religious sect over another, and proclaims perfect liberty of conscience to all men.

GOVERNORS, &c.

Election annual by the People.

1663 Benedict Arnold, to 1666.
1666 William Brenton, to 1669.
1669 Benedict Arnold, to 1672.
1672 Nicholas Easton, to 1674.
1674 William Coddington, to 1676.
1676 Walter Clarke, to 1677.
1677 Benedict Arnold, to 1679.
1679 John Cranston, to 1680.
1680 Peleg Sandford, to 1683.
1683 William Coddington, to 1685.
1685 Henry Bull, to 1686.
1686 Walter Clarke, to 1687.
The charter superseded by Sir Edmund Andros, but restored in
1689 Henry Bull, to 1690.
1690 John Easton, to 1695.
1695 Caleb Carr, to 1696.
1696 Walter Clarke, to 1698.
1698 Samuel Cranston, to 1727.
1727 Joseph Jenkes, to 1732.
1732 William Wanton, to 1734.
1734 John Wanton, to 1741.
1741 Richard Ward, to 1743.
1743 William Greene, to 1745.
1745 Gideon Wanton, to 1746.
1746 William Greene, to 1747.
1747 Gideon Wanton, to 1748.
1748 William Greene, to 1755.
1755 Stephen Hopkins, to 1757.
1757 William Greene, to 1758.
1758 Stephen Hopkins, to 1762.
1762 Samuel Ward, to 1763.
1763 Stephen Hopkins, to 1765.
1765 Samuel Ward, to 1767.
1767 Stephen Hopkins, to 1768.
1768 Josias Lyndon, to 1769.

1769 Joseph Wanton, to 1775.
1775 Nicholas Cooke, to 1778.
1778 William Greene, to 1786.
1786 John Collins, to 1789.
1789 Arthur Fenner, to 1805.
1805 Henry Smith, *Acting Governor*, to 1806.
1806 Isaac Wilborn, *Lieut.-Gov.*, to 1807.
1807 James Fenner, to 1811.
1811 William Jones, to 1817.
1817 Nehemiah R. Knight, to 1821.
1821. William C. Gibbs.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

ROGER WILLIAMS, the founder of Rhode Island, illustrious for the wisdom and benevolence of his political system, was born in Wales, in the last year of the 16th century. Having embraced the opinions of the Puritans, and being of a spirit not to brook control in matters of conscience, he sought religious liberty in America. On his arrival at Boston, in 1631, he promulgated sentiments respecting freedom of conscience, for which the minds of men were not yet prepared. He maintained, to the astonished and indignant clergy of Massachusetts, that all men were entitled of right to the secure exercise of their opinions on religious subjects; and that, provided the peace of society was not disturbed, the civil magistrate had no warrant to interfere with modes of worship. Having tried the effect of argument and remonstrance upon him, and finding them ineffectual to cure him of this "damnable heresy," the church leaders represented his case to the General Court, who condemned him and his disciples to banishment out of their jurisdiction, and thus unintentionally laid the foundation of a new colony in their neighbourhood. After various wanderings, he fixed upon a place, to which he gave the name of Providence, in acknowledgment of God's goodness to him; and having purchased a tract of land of the Narragansets, began the settlement of Rhode Island, in the year 1636. The new colonists here entered into a voluntary association, and framed a government composed of the whole body of freemen, for the preservation of peace, and the making of such laws as their situation might require. To their perpetual honour, they did not forget to impose upon themselves the restrictions they had inculcated upon others, in respect to religious toleration. "All men," they declared, may walk as their consciences persuade them, every one in the name of his God." Religious controversy in other parts of the colonies soon led to the increase of the settlement, and the wise principles of its founder rendered it an asylum to which the persecuted of all denominations fled. Shortly after the exile of Roger Williams, a controversy arose in Massachusetts, between those who maintained the "Covenant of Works," and those who espoused the "Covenant of Grace," and the latter party being the least numerous, the usual course was adopted of banishment.

Accordingly, Mrs. Hutchinson, the leader of the Antinomians, with a band of chosen disciples, followed the steps of Williams, and arriving in his neighbourhood, purchased a tract of land, and made a settlement. The latter colony was at first distinctively called by the name of Rhode Island, as that of Williams was called Providence Plantations, and each formed an association governed by its own laws; but, in 1644, they were incorporated into one government, and have since received the general appellation of Rhode Island.

The treatment of the Indians by the first settlers of Rhode Island, corresponded with the liberal and catholic principles they professed. The land which they required for their colony, was fairly purchased. Endeavours were made to improve the moral condition of the savages, and to impart to them the blessings of the gospel; and hostilities with this people, which interfered so much with the prosperity of some other colonies, seem to have been almost unknown to the history of Rhode Island. In 1644, a charter was obtained from the government of England, which gave the people of this colony abundant privileges to form such a constitution, and adopt such laws, as they thought proper. By the frame of government which the people adopted on this occasion, the executive power was placed in the hands of a governor, and four assistants. The legislative power remained in the people at large. In May, 1647, the first general assembly, consisting of the collective freemen, was convened. The governor and assistants constituted the Supreme Court for the administration of justice. Every township formed a corporation within itself, and elected a council of six, for the management of its peculiar affairs, and the settlement of disputes.

The settlement of Rhode Island was for a long time regarded with a jealous eye by its powerful neighbour Massachusetts; and the colony, deprived of any assistance, was forced to depend upon its own growing resources. When the confederacy of Plymouth Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New Haven, was formed, under the name of the United Colonies of New England, in 1643, Rhode Island, at the instance of Massachusetts, was excluded from it, and her commissioners were not admitted into the congress of deputies which formed it. On her petitioning, afterwards, in 1648, to be received as a member, her request was refused, unless she would consent to be incorporated with Plymouth, and thereby surrender her separate existence. The condition was rejected, without hesitation, and she was never admitted into the confederacy. In 1663, a new charter was granted to Rhode Island, by Charles II., under which the state is still governed. The preamble to this instrument displays the continuance of those sagacious and benevolent views of public policy, which do so much honour to the first settlers of this state. After reciting that the colonists have declared their desire " to hold

forth a lively experiment, that a most flourishing civil state may stand, and best be maintained, with a full liberty in religious concernments," it provided, with a liberality far from universal even in this age, "That no person within the said colony, at any time hereafter, shall be in anywise molested, punished, disquieted, or called in question, for any differences in opinion in matters of religion, who do not actually disturb the civil peace; but that all and every person and persons may, from time to time, and at all times hereafter, freely and fully enjoy his and their own judgments and consciences in matters of religious concernment, they behaving themselves peaceably and quietly, and not using this liberty to licentiousness and profaneness, nor to the civil injury or outward disturbance of others." Thus an unlimited toleration of all religions, whether founded on the Christian revelation, or otherwise, seems to have been adopted, and the consequences were soon visible in the rapid growth, and harmonious prosperity of this little commonwealth. The only source of disquiet arose from the oppressive measures of the parent country, which were exercised upon all the colonies alike. The charters were too liberal for the taste of the English court, and it was determined to destroy them. In 1685, a *quo warranto* was issued against Rhode Island, and, in the succeeding year, the celebrated Sir Edmund Andros adopted the same measures towards this colony that had been pursued with the others of New England. The seal of the province was broken, the government dissolved, and the administration taken into his own hands. On his imprisonment, in 1689, the people resumed their charter, and the mode of government it had guaranteed.

From this period to the commencement of the American revolution, the history of Rhode Island is barren of incidents. Fortunate in living under a well-regulated democracy, enjoying a salubrious climate, and possessing great advantages for commerce, the inhabitants of this province, if they played no distinguished part in the drama of life, were prosperous and happy. We find it recorded, that in 1730, the population was about eighteen thousand persons, and that, in 1746, it was estimated at thirty-five thousand. In the last-mentioned year three hundred men were voted for an expedition into Canada projected by the British government.

When the stamp act was attempted to be enforced in the provinces, Rhode Island was as strenuous in her opposition as any other colony. Delegates were sent to the continental congress, which convened at New York in 1765, and a general association was entered into against the use of stamps. The subsequent proceedings of the British government were resisted with equal ardour and constancy. In 1774, on intelligence being received of the royal proclamation prohibiting the exportation of military stores from Great Britain, the people of Rhode Island seized the cannon

in the public batteries, and the assembly passed resolutions for obtaining arms and military stores, and for arming the inhabitants. In the different steps taken from this period to the declaration of independence, we find the people of Rhode Island concurring and lending their aid in support of the common cause. From her exposed situation, she soon became obnoxious to hostile aggression. In the month of December, 1776, General Clinton, with two brigades of British, and two of Hessian troops, with a squadron of men-of-war under Sir Peter Parker, sailed from New York for the purpose of occupying Rhode Island. The American forces then in the island, being incapable of making an effectual resistance, abandoned it on the approach of the enemy, who took possession without any loss, and, at the same time, blocked up a squadron of vessels of war under Commodore Hopkins, and a number of privateers at Providence. The British remained in unmolested possession of Newport and the surrounding country until the arrival of succours from France in 1778, when an attack was planned by General Sullivan, commanding the American troops, in conjunction with the French fleet. This enterprise unfortunately failed of success. General Sullivan laid siege to Newport, and for some time the affair wore a promising aspect; but the French fleet, having been greatly injured by a gale, sailed for Boston to refit; and, without their aid, success was hopeless. General Sullivan was compelled to abandon the design, and recross to the continent. During his retreat, an engagement took place, which, though short, was decisive, and ended in the repulse of the British. In the month of October, 1779, the British troops were withdrawn from Rhode Island, and stationed at New York, where an attack was apprehended from General Washington. In 1780, a body of French troops, under the Count de Rochambeau, arrived at Newport, in a squadron commanded by the Chevalier de Ternay. The English commander at New York, Sir Henry Clinton, on hearing of their arrival, embarked six thousand troops, with the hope of surprising them; but, on learning the improved state of the fortifications at Newport, the project was abandoned. From this period, Rhode Island was unmolested by the enemy, and the conclusion of hostilities enabled the inhabitants to resume their commercial pursuits.

In the convention which met in 1787, for the purpose of revising the federal constitution, Rhode Island was not represented, and this state evinced for a time the most determined hostility to the new frame of government. She was the last of the thirteen states to accede to the constitution. A proposal to ratify this instrument had been negatived in the state convention, and it was not until the month of May, 1790, that the final accession took place, which was accelerated by an act of congress passed September, 1789, subjecting certain articles to foreign duties. The beneficial effects of the new government upon the prosperity and

curity of the country were soon perceived, and opinions gradually ited in its favour. Rhode Island reaped great advantages from e new order of things. Its trade was extended and protected, hile its political rights as a state remained unimpaired. Little recorded of its history from the era of the new constitution to e war of 1812. During the last contest with Great Britain the jority of the people unfortunately adopted the opinions and stem of action of Massachusetts and Connecticut, and lent no luntary aid to the measures of the general government. Deletes were sent to the memorable convention at Hartford, and ited in the report made by that body. With the exception of e occupation of Block Island by the enemy in 1813, this state nained unmolested during the war. Since its conclusion, no ent of material importance has occurred in the history of this ate.

Places remarkable for Battles and Sieges.

1675, Tiverton. Battle between the Americans and Indians.
ly 18.—Newport.
1778, Newport. General Sullivan, with the American army, sieges the British in this place. Aug. 15.—Newport.
1778, Newport. The siege raised. Aug. 26.
1778, Quaker Hill. Indecisive action between the Americans d British. Aug. 29.

CONNECTICUT.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

CONNECTICUT is situated between 40° 58′ and 42° 2′ N. lat. d 3° 16′ and 5° 10′ E. long. It is bounded north by Massausetts, east by Rhode Island, south by Long Island Sound, and st by New York. Its mean length from east to west is about miles; its mean breadth from north to south 53; and its area 74 square miles, or 2,991,360 acres.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

The face of the country is greatly diversified by hills and valleys. ie hills are generally of a moderate size, and occur in quick succession, presenting to the traveller a beautiful and constantly rying prospect. The great body of the state is excellent land, ted for all the purposes of agriculture. Much of it has been der actual cultivation nearly a century, and still retains its ori-

ginal strength. The county of Fairfield, and the interval land on Connecticut River, are the best in the state. The country along the Quinebaug is also very fertile. The principal production is Indian corn. Next to this are rye, grass, and potatoes. Oats and flax are also raised extensively. Almost every farm has one or more orchards, and great quantities of cider are annually made. The crops of pumpkins, onions, turnips, and beans, are also of great consequence to the Connecticut farmer.

Rivers and Mountains.

The Thames, in the eastern part of the state, is formed by Shetuket and Norwich rivers, which unite at Norwich Landing. It runs into Long Island Sound at New London, and is navigable for sea vessels to Norwich, 14 miles. The Quinebaug is an eastern branch of the Shetucket, and joins it three miles above Norwich Landing. Connecticut River runs from north to south, through the whole breadth of the state, and falls into Long Island Sound, between Saybrook and Lyme. It is navigable for vessels drawing 10 feet of water, to Middletown, 36 miles; and for those drawing eight feet, to Hartford, 50 miles. The Housatonic rises in the western part of Massachusetts, and enters this state near its north-west corner. About seven miles from the line it is precipitated over a perpendicular fall, 60 feet in height; after which it runs south and south-east, and falls into Long Island Sound between Milford and Stratford. It is navigable for sloops and brigs 12 miles, to Derby, but a bar of shells at its mouth prevents the entrance of larger vessels.

There are several ranges of mountains, which come from Massachusetts, and, running south, through the whole breadth of the state, terminate near Long Island Sound. The first is the Lyme range, which runs along the east side of Connecticut River, at the distance of eight or ten miles, and terminates in Lyme, near the mouth of the river. This range throws off a branch in Glastenburg, which runs south-west across Connecticut River, and terminates in East Haven. The next is the Mount Tom range, on the west side of the Connecticut. It runs in a direction nearly south, and terminates at Newhaven, in a fine perpendicular bluff called East Rock. The Green mountain range is still further west. It runs nearly parallel with the Mount Tom range, and terminates also in Newhaven, in a noble bluff called West Rock. The Taghconuc range runs on the west side of the Housatonic, along the western boundary of the state, and terminates at Ridgefield, in Fairfield county. A branch from this range runs parallel with it for some distance, on the east side of the Housatonic.

Climate.

This state enjoys, upon the whole, a favourable climate. With

the exception of two or three weeks of pretty hot weather, the summers are generally mild, but the winters are severe. The greatest heat is about 91°, and the greatest cold 10° below 0; but the heat seldom exceeds 84°, and the cold is seldom below 0. Except on the sea coast, the snow lies on the ground about three months. The winter may be reckoned to begin in November, and end in April. The spring is often backward, but the summer and autumn weather is delightful.

Civil Divisions and Population.

The state is divided into eight counties, and 122 towns.

Counties.	*Towns.*	*Pop. in* 1810.	*Pop. in* 1820.	*Chief Towns.*
Hartford, .	18	44,733	47,264	Hartford.
Newhaven, .	17	37,064	39,616	Newhaven.
New London	15	34,707	35,943	New London.
Fairfield, .	18	40,950	42,739	Fairfield.
Windham, .	15	28,611	31,684	Brooklyn.
Litchfield, .	22	41,375	41,267	Litchfield.
Middlesex, .	7	20,723	22,405	Middletown.
Tolland, .	10	13,779	14,330	Tolland.
	122	261,942	275,248	

The population, in 1790, was 237,946; in 1800, 251,002; in 1810, 261,942; and in 1820, 275,248. Except Massachusetts, Connecticut is the most thickly settled state in the Union, having an average of 59 to each square mile. Many thousands emigrate every year to the western country.

Chief Towns and Harbours.

There are five incorporated cities in Connecticut, viz., Hartford, Newhaven, Middletown, New London, and Norwich. Hartford and Newhaven are the capitals of the state, the sessions of the legislature being held at each alternately.—Hartford lies on the west bank of Connecticut River, 50 miles from its mouth. It is advantageously situated for trade, being at the head of sloop navigation, and having an extensive, rich, and thrifty back country.—Newhaven lies round the head of a bay, which sets up about four miles from Long Island Sound. The city is regularly laid out, on a large plain, which is bounded on the N. E. and N. W. by mountains. The harbour is well defended from winds, but shallow and gradually filling up with mud. This difficulty has been remedied in part, by the construction of a wharf, about a mile in length, extending into the harbour.—Middletown is on the west bank of Connecticut River, 31 miles from its mouth, 15 miles south of Hartford, and 26 N. E. of Newhaven. It is a pleasant and flourishing town, and has considerable commerce. The amount of shipping in 1815, was 19,499 tons, a greater amount than

belonged to any other port in the state. The river is navigable to this place for vessels drawing ten feet of water.—New London is near the south-east corner of the state, on the west bank of the Thames, three miles from its entrance into the sound. It is one of the most considerable commercial towns in the state. The harbour is large, safe, and commodious, and has five fathoms water. It is defended by two forts.—Norwich is on the Thames, 14 miles north of New London, and 40 S. E. of Hartford. It is favourably situated for trade, being at the head of navigation on the river, and having a productive back country. There are falls within the town, which afford seats for various mills and manufacturing establishments.—Litchfield is 30 miles west of Hartford, and 36 N. N. W. of Newhaven. Its situation is elevated and healthy.—Wethersfield is on the west bank of Connecticut River, between Hartford and Middletown. It is famous for raising great quantities of onions.—Saybrook, one of the oldest towns in the country, stands on the west bank of Connecticut River, at its mouth.—Stafford, famous for its mineral spring, is 27 miles N.E. of Hartford.—Cornwall, the seat of the Foreign Mission School, is ten miles N. W. of Litchfield.—Fairfield, the chief town in Fairfield county, is 22 miles W. S. W. of Newhaven.—Bridgeport, an incorporated borough, and thrifty commercial place, is four miles N. E. of Fairfield.

Manufactures and Commerce.

In Connecticut, a larger proportion of the population is engaged in manufactures than in any other state, except Rhode Island. The manufacture of tin into culinary vessels, is carried on to a very great extent. It commenced about 50 years ago, at Berlin, near Hartford, and from this centre it has gradually extended itself into many of the adjoining towns. The ware thus made is taken by pedlars, and sold in all parts of the United States and in Canada. The manufacture of gun is carried on to a great extent in Hartford county, particularly in the towns of Windsor, East Windsor, and Enfield.—Litchfield county is the principal seat of the iron manufacture. The whole number of forges in the state is 48, of which 39 are in this county. There are also valuable iron manufactures in Stafford, particularly hollow ware and castings of various kinds. There were, in 1818, 67 cotton factories in the state, 22 of which were in Windham county.—In Hamden, near Newhaven, there is an extensive gun factory, where large quantities of fire arms have been made. Glass, hats, buttons, and wooden clocks, are also manufactured for exportation. The principal exports are horses, mules, butter, cheese, cider, Indian corn, beef, and pork. The market, for the western part of the state, is New York; and for some towns in the eastern part of the state, Providence. The foreign trade is carried on principally with the West Indies, but the coasting trade to the

southern states is of more value than the foreign trade. The amount of shipping belonging to the state, in 1815, was 50,358 tons. The value of the exports for the year, ending September 30th, 1820, was 421,931 dollars.

Education.

Yale College, in Newhaven, is one of the oldest and most respectable colleges in the United States. It was founded in 1701. Its officers, in 1820, were a president, five professors, and five tutors, besides four medical professors. The college library contains about 7000 volumes, and the students have libraries amounting to 2000 more. The philosophical and chemical apparatus are complete, and the mineralogical cabinet is probably superior to any other in the United States. The medical institution, connected with the college, has a valuable anatomical museum and medical library. The whole number of students in 1820, was 412; of whom 62 were medical students, 31 resident graduates, and 319 undergraduates.—An Episcopal Theological Seminary was established in Newhaven in 1820. It is under the superintendence and control of the general convention of the episcopal church. It has two professors, and at the opening of the institution there were ten students.—The American Asylum for the education of the deaf and dumb, established at Hartford in 1817, was the first institution of the kind in America. The number of pupils, in 1819, was 50. The Congress of the United States has made a generous grant to the asylum of 23,000 acres of land: and the legislatures of several of the states have made appropriations for the support of pupils.—A Foreign Mission School was established at Cornwall in 1817, by the American board of commissioners for foreign missions, for the purpose of educating heathen youth from various parts of the world. After receiving their education they are sent home to instruct their countrymen. In 1820, there were 29 pupils, of whom 19 were American Indians, and 6 from the islands of the Pacific Ocean. Several natives of the Sandwich Islands, who were educated at this school, have already returned to their native country well qualified for usefulness.—A law school was established at Litchfield in 1784, which has had great reputation. It has usually about 30 students, and the whole number who have been educated here is more than 600. —Bacon Academy in Colchester, was founded in 1801. It is well endowed and very flourishing.—The Episcopal Academy in Cheshire, is a flourishing institution. There are also academies at Plainfield, Litchfield, and almost all the principal towns in the state.—Common schools are universally established in Connecticut. The state has a large school fund, amounting in 1818, to 1,608,673 dollars. The yearly income, together with 12,000 dollars from the public taxes, is annually devoted to the maintenance of common school-masters, in every town in the state. The whole

amount paid to the towns from this fund, in 1818, was 70,914 dollars, and the amount of the state tax in 1817, was only 48,362 dollars; the income of the fund exceeding the amount of the tax, by 22,551 dollars. This, probably, is the only government in the world which gives to the people more than they pay to the treasury.

Religion.

The congregationalists are the most numerous religious denomination. Next to them are the episcopalians and baptists. There are very few of any other denomination. In 1818, the congregationalists had 213 congregations; the episcopalians 69, and the baptists about 70.

Government.

Until the year 1818, Connecticut was governed by the charter of Charles II. granted in 1662, which conveyed ample privileges to the people of the province. The constitution adopted in 1818, resembles in its principal features, those of most of the other states. The powers of government are distributed into three departments, the legislative, executive, and judicial. The first is composed of a senate and house of representatives, the members of both of which bodies are annually elected, and meet once in each year, at Hartford and Newhaven, alternately. The executive department consists of a governor and lieutenant-governor, both of whom are annually elected by the people. The governor has no veto upon legislative acts; but all bills must be presented to him. If he disapproves, he returns them with his objections. The legislature may, nevertheless, pass them; but in such case, the votes must be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the members must be entered on the journals. The lieutenant-governor is ex-officio speaker of the senate. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court of errors, a superior court, and such inferior courts as the legislature shall from time to time establish. The judges and justices of the peace are appointed by the assembly. The judges hold their offices during good behaviour. Justices of the peace are annually elected. No judge or justice can retain his office after arriving at the age of seventy. Every white male citizen of the United States, who has gained a settlement in the state, arrived at the age of 21 years, and paid a state tax within a year, and *maintains a good moral character*, is a qualified elector. No person is bound to support or be associated with any religious sect. The governor and all officers are liable to impeachment, which must be prosecuted by the house of representatives, and tried by the senate. Provision is made for amendments of the constitution by a mode that seems calculated to avoid hasty decisions, but not to prevent necessary alterations.

GOVERNORS, &c.

Governors of Newhaven.

ophilus Eaton, to 1658.
ncis Newman, to 1661.
1662 William Leet, to 1665.
When the colony was united to Connecticut.

of Connecticut under the Charter, annually elected by the People,

ı Haynes, to 1648.
ard Hopkins, to 1649.
ı Haynes, to 1650.
ard Hopkins, to 1651
ı Haynes, to 1652.
ard Hopkins, to 1653.
ı Haynes, to 1654.
ard Hopkins, to 1655.
mas Wells, to 1656
ı Webster, to 1657.
ı Winthrop, to 1658.
mas Wells, to 1659.
ı Winthrop, to 1676.
iam Leet, to 1680.
ert Treat, to 1696.
ı Winthrop, to 1707.
1707 Gurdon Saltonstal, to 1724.
1724 Joseph Talcot, to 1741.
1741 Jonathan Law, to 1751.
1751 Roger Wolcot, to 1754.
1754 Thomas Fitch, to 1766
1766 William Pitkin, to 1769.
1769 Jonathan Trumbull, to 1784.
1784 Matthew Griswold, to 1785.
1785 Samuel Huntington, to 1796.
1796 Oliver Wolcott, to 1798.
1798 Jonathan Trumbull, to 1809.
1809 John Treadwell, to 1811.
1811 Roger Griswold, to 1812.
1813 John Cotton Smith, to 1817.
1817 Oliver Wolcot, to 1822.

Places remarkable for Battles, Sieges, &c.

Groton. Battle with the Pequots, in which five or six of the Indians perished, May 26.—*New London.*
ld, or the *Great Swamp Fight*, in which a great number equots perished, July 13.—*Fairfield.*
Danbury. Taken by the British, who are attacked on eat by the Americans, April 26.—*Fairfield.*
Newhaven. Taken and ravaged by the British, July 5.—
n.
ld. Taken and destroyed by the British, July 7.—
lk. Taken and destroyed by the British, July 12.—
Fort Trumbull. Taken by the British, and the garrison the sword after their surrender, September 6.—*New*
London. Taken and destroyed by the British, Sept. 6.
Stonington. Attacked by a British squadron, which is d to retreat, August 9.—*New London.*

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

ECTICUT was first settled by emigrants from Massachuo early as the year 1634, the inhabitants of that colony feel straitened by its boundaries; and, having obtained

the permission of the general court, a number of families established themselves on the banks of the Connecticut river. They were followed, some time after, by emigrants from England, who settled on a different spot; and thus two colonies arose, which were called Connecticut and Newhaven. They continued under distinct governments until the year 1662, when the royal charter consolidated them under the general name of Connecticut. A constitution was formed for themselves by the people of the original province of Connecticut, in 1639. In the same year, the people of Newhaven met in convention, and resolved that the Scriptures afforded a perfect and sufficient rule for civil government. In the incidents of their early annals these settlements are closely similar. The people of both were exposed to the same rigorous climate, suffered alike from want of food and shelter, laboured with the same difficulties in clearing the surface of the soil, and maintained the same harassing contest with the neighbouring savages. In 1673 the first confederation was formed in this country, by the league of the two colonies of Connecticut with those of Massachusetts and Plymouth, under the name of the United Colonies of New England. On the restoration of Charles II. to the English throne, a charter, remarkable for its republican features, was granted to Connecticut; and included under the same government the colony of Newhaven. So favourable was this instrument to civil liberty, that the people were content to be governed by it during all the revolution; and, notwithstanding the agitations of subsequent years, until a very recent period. Shortly after the establishment of this government, the colony was relieved from two great sources of anxiety and evil. The Dutch, at New York, who had laid claim to a great part of Connecticut, and with whom an irritating contest, more however of words than weapons, had been maintained, were conquered by an English expedition. A fierce and bloody war with the Indians was terminated by their entire subjugation; and the death of their leader, Philip, the most skilful and persevering enemy the settlers of New England ever encountered. Scarcely, however, did the colony begin to taste the sweets of repose when new troubles arose. The arrogant and avaricious disposition of the English government, which, in the end, produced a separation of the colonies, displayed itself thus early in their annals. In 1685, a *quo warranto* was issued against Connecticut; and, in the succeeding year, similar process was again issued, with the hope of compelling a surrender of the charter. The assembly was, however, resolved not to yield privileges bought with so much hardship and blood. Sir Edmund Andros, who had been appointed governor of New England, finding that the charter could not be obtained, declared that the government was taken into the hands of the king, and proceeded to administer it in his name. Without an assembly, he taxed the

people at his pleasure; compelled them to take out patents for their lands at a great expense; and, in short, grievously oppressed them in every mode, and enriched himself and his followers. His reign was, fortunately, not destined to continue long. The revolution, which took place in England in 1688, was equally happy for the liberties of America. The colonies were too feeble to contend with the crown of England at that time, and the ruin of their free institutions would, probably, have been completed had the Stuarts continued to reign. Before official intelligence of the event reached Connecticut, the people had resumed the government into their hands, and deposed Andros, who was imprisoned in Boston.

The ancient charter of Connecticut was re-established on the accession of William and Mary. It had never been surrendered; and considerable address was displayed, during the oppressive government of Andros, to conceal it. But the satisfaction of the people was soon lessened by a new attack on one of their most essential rights. The government of New York was given to a Colonel Fletcher, with authority to command the militia of Connecticut and the neighbouring provinces. The legislature of Connecticut refused to acknowledge his right; as, by the charter, the command of their militia was given to the colony. A warm verbal dispute ensued. Fletcher visited Hartford, where he attempted to enforce his authority; but was so manfully resisted, that he was glad to abandon his design, and return to New York; and, shortly afterwards, the king, in council, determined in favour of the province, upon a petition, praying that their right to the command might be confirmed. Six years after this event, another attempt was made upon the chartered rights of the province with similar ill success. While thus harassed by repeated attempts upon her civil rights, Connecticut, like the other provinces, was compelled to engage in the unnecessary contests which the mother country maintained with France, and to contribute her blood and treasure in support of the weak and ill-contrived expeditions that were sent forth by the English against Canada. In 1709, great exertions were made to assist an enterprise undertaken for this purpose. The armament expected from England, however, did not arrive, and the expedition was thus defeated in the outset. In the succeeding year another levy of men and money was made; troops were sent out from England,—but the attempt failed, through the blunders of the English commanders. In 1745, Connecticut contributed liberally, in men and money, to the campaign which produced the capture of Louisburg; and in the succeeding war, which terminated in the conquest of Canada, her exertions were out of proportion to her population and strength. In 1758, no fewer than five thousand men were voted by the legislature, who were equipped and ready for the field in a short time; and at one period six thousand troops from Connecticut were in actual

service. The expenses incurred in the war, from 1755 to 1762, by this province, amounted to the great sum of four hundred thousand pounds sterling beyond what was allowed her by the British parliament.

A short period of repose succeeding, Connecticut participated in the prosperity enjoyed by the provinces in general, and made rapid advances in population and wealth. When the British government, however, attempted to put in execution its design of collecting a revenue from its colonies, this province was one of the most zealous in opposition. The continuance of the tax upon tea and some other articles of consumption, produced a deep feeling of hostility towards Britain. Committees of correspondence acted in concert with those of Massachusetts; and the militia of the province furnished a considerable force for the relief of Boston. During the revolutionary war, Connecticut suffered little from the actual presence of the enemy, though she contributed her due proportion to the successful issue of the conflict. Two predatory excursions served to render the cause of the British even more odious. The first, in 1777, consisting of 2000 men, under general Tryon, advanced to Danbury, devastated the town, and destroyed a quantity of stores, but suffered severely from the militia in its retreat. Two years afterwards, a larger force, under the same commander, landed at East Haven, plundered and burnt that place, Newhaven, Norwalk, and Fairfield; and, after perpetrating acts of extreme cruelty upon the defenceless people, returned with little loss of men, but with a deep stain upon their honour and humanity. Shortly before the conclusion of the revolutionary war, a dispute which had arisen between Connecticut and Pennsylvania, respecting the right to lands lying on the Susquehanna, west of New York, was terminated by the decision in favour of Pennsylvania, made by a board of Commissioners appointed by congress.

After the peace of 1783, few events of historical importance occurred until the alteration in the frame of the general government. The habits of the people of Connecticut were steady, and their attachment to freedom temperate. Hence few excesses followed their emancipation from the British yoke; and so liberal was the charter they had received from Charles II., that it was continued, while the other states established new constitutions. Connecticut was among the earliest to adopt the federal constitution. In the division of parties which arose on the occasion, and was increased by the French revolution, a great majority of her inhabitants espoused the cause of the federalists. To this side they adhered with great constancy during the successive administrations of the three first presidents. All the state officers were selected from the federal party, and the representatives in congress from Connecticut uniformly opposed the leading measures of the republicans. The war, which was declared against England in 1812, although commenced upon similar principles to that of the

revolution, and, as far as any war can be called so, righteous in its character and objects, was opposed in congress by the delegates of the state, and received no voluntary support from its people. The hostility of Connecticut to the system of the prevailing party in the general government, was displayed in various acts of minor importance, until the meeting of the convention, at Hartford, in the winter of 1814-15, seemed to draw the affairs of this quarter of the union to a crisis. The real views of the party leaders, by whom this assembly of evil precedent was projected, have been the subject of controversy. Charity would induce the belief, that no more was intended than appears from the result to have taken place, and that only that species of opposition was contemplated which was strictly within the sphere of their federal duties. After proposing certain alterations in the constitution, and remonstrating against the measures of the general government, the convention adjourned.

Connecticut suffered little from the hostilities of the enemy during the last war. An attack upon the little village of Stonington, on the 9th of August, 1814, by a large squadron of British ships, produced a display of great bravery and patriotism by the inhabitants, and ended in the triumphant repulse of the assailants, with little injury to the town. On the conclusion of the war the relations of Connecticut with the general government were restored to their former footing. A great revolution, however, took place soon afterwards in the internal politics of the state. The federal party found itself, for the first time since the existence of these party distinctions, in the minority. The offices of the state passed into the hands of their political opponents, who have since retained the helm, though not without some warm struggles. The only recent event of importance is the formation of a constitution, which has taken the place of the ancient charter. A brief view of its provisions is given in another part of this sheet.

VERMONT.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

VERMONT is situated between 42° 42′ and 45° N. lat., and 3° 39′ and 5° 35′ E. long. from Washington, is bounded north by Lower Canada; east by New Hampshire; south by Massachusetts; and west by New York, from which it is separated in part by Lake Champlain. It is 157 miles long from north to south, 90 broad on the northern boundary, and forty on the southern, and contains 10,212 square miles.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

The Green Mountains, from which the state derives its name,

come from Massachusetts, and run along the east side of Bennington, Rutland, and Addison counties. In Addison county they divide; the western and principal chain continuing a northerly course, and terminating near the northern boundary of the state; while the *height of land*, as it is called, strikes off to the north-east, dividing the waters which flow into the Connecticut, from those which fall into Lake Memphremagog and Lake Champlain. The western range presents the loftiest summits, but has inequalities which afford a passage for Onion and La Moelle rivers.

The soil is, for the most part, fertile, being generally deep, and of a dark colour, moist, loamy, and well watered. The intervale lands are esteemed the best; bordering on these is usually a strip one or two miles wide, which is comparatively poor: but beyond this the land possesses a fertility nearly equal to that on the rivers. The principal productions are wheat, barley, rye, Indian corn, oats, &c.

Lakes.

Lake Champlain lies between Vermont and New York. Its whole length from Whitehall, at its southern extremity, to its termination, 24 miles north of the Canada line, is 128 miles; its breadth varies from half a mile to 16 miles. Its surface covers about 600 square miles. There are several large islands in the northern part of the lake, the principal of which are North and South Hero, and Isle Lamotte. The outlet of the lake is the river Sorelle, which runs north into the St. Lawrence. Lake Memphremagog is partly in this state, but principally in Canada. It is 30 miles long, and discharges its waters through St. Francis river into the St. Lawrence.

Rivers.

The Connecticut is the eastern boundary. The principal branches of the Connecticut, beginning in the south, are West River, Queechy, White River, and Pasumsic.

The principal rivers which fall into Lake Champlain, beginning in the north, are Missisque, which rises south-west of Lake Memphremagog, and discharges itself into Missisque Bay; La Moelle, which rises south of Lake Memphremagog, and running west, empties itself 10 miles north of Burlington village; Onion river, which rises still farther south, and running nearly parallel with La Moelle, passes by Montpelier, and joins the lake four miles north-west of Burlington village; Otter Creek, which rises in the south-western part of the state, and, running west of north, passes by Rutland, Middlebury, and Vergennes, and empties itself 20 miles south of Burlington.

None of the rivers of Vermont are navigable, except for a few miles from their mouths; but they abound with valuable millseats.

Mountains.

The highest summits of the Green Mountains are Killington

Peak, a few miles east of Rutland; Camel's Rump, about half way between Montpelier and Burlington, and Mansfield Mountain, a few miles farther north; all of which are more than 3500 feet above the level of the sea. Ascutney is a single mountain, five miles S. S. W. of Windsor, 3320 feet above the sea.

Climate.

The climate of Vermont is nearly assimilated to that of New Hampshire. The winter commences in November, and snow lies from the middle of December to the middle of March. On the sides of the hills it is often from two to four feet deep. The thermometer ranges between 94° and some degrees below zero, the mean heat being about 43½°. Trees bud from the 6th to the 20th of April, and flowers from the close of May. Wheat and oats are sown about the middle of April, and reaped about the middle of August. The first frost appears from the middle of September to the 1st of October, but is slight until November.

Civil Divisions and Population.

Counties.	*Townships.*	*Pop. in* 1810.	*Pop. in* 1820.	*Chief Towns.*
Bennington	16	15,893	16,125	Bennington
Windham	24	26,760	28,457	New Fane
Windsor	23	34,877	38,233	Woodstock
Rutland	27	29,486	29,983	Rutland
Orange	20	25,247	24,681	Chelsea
Addison	24	19,993	20,469	Middlebury
Essex	14	3,087	3,284	Guildhall
Caledonia	23	18,740	16,669	Danville
Washington			14,113	Montpelier
Chittenden	24	18,120	16,055	Burlington
Orleans	23	5,838	6,976	Craftsbury
Franklin	19	16,427	17,192	St. Albans
Grand Isle	5	3,445	3,527	
	Total,	217,913	235,764	

The population, in 1790, was 85,589; in 1800, 154,465; in 1810, 217,913; and in 1820, 235,764. There are no slaves in Vermont.

Chief Towns.

Montpelier, the capital, is on Onion River, near the centre of the state, at the point of intersection of several principal roads. Newbury is a pleasant town on Connecticut River, opposite Haverhill, in New Hampshire, and 34 miles E. S. E. of Montpelier. Windsor is on Connecticut River, 60 miles south of Montpelier. It is a place of considerable business, and contains the state prison. Brattleborough is on Connecticut River, 43 miles below Windsor, and near the southern boundary of the state. Bennington is near the south-west corner of the state. It is one of the

oldest towns in Vermont, and is famous for the battle of August, 1777. Rutland is on Otter Creek, 57 miles north of Bennington, and 45 west of Windsor.

Middlebury, the seat of Middlebury College, is pleasantly situated on Otter Creek, at the Falls, 20 miles from the mouth of the river. In the vicinity of the Falls are numerous mills and manufacturing establishments. An extensive quarry of fine marble was discovered in 1804, on the bank of the creek, near the centre of the village. It is now wrought into tomb-stones, mantel-pieces, sideboards, &c., and transported to various parts of the country to the amount of 7 or 8000 dollars annually. Vergennes is on Otter Creek, at the Lower Falls, six miles from the mouth of the river, and thirteen below Middlebury. It is at the head of Navigation, and has several mills and manufactories, and considerable trade.

Burlington, the seat of Vermont university, stands on a most beautiful harbour on Lake Champlain, near the mouth of Onion River. It is on elevated ground, commanding a noble view of the lake and the adjacent country. It carries on considerable trade on Lake Champlain. Almost all the vessels which navigate the lake are owned here. St. Albans is a flourishing town on Lake Champlain, near the north-west corner of the state.

Commerce.

The principal exports are pot and pearl ashes, beef, pork, butter, cheese, flax, &c. The market for the northern part of the state is Montreal; for the eastern, Hartford and Boston; for the western, New York.

Education.

There are two colleges, one at Burlington, the other at Middlebury. The University of Vermont, at Burlington, was incorporated in 1791, and has been liberally patronised by the state. It has a library of about 1000 volumes, and a philosophical apparatus which is tolerably complete. The funds consist principally of lands, amounting to about 40,000 acres, and yield at present an income of about 1200 dollars.

Middlebury College was incorporated in 1800, and has been supported entirely by private bounty. It has a president, five professors, and two tutors, a library of more than 1200 volumes, a valuable philosophical apparatus, and more than 100 students.

Religion.

The most numerous denominations of Christians are Congregationalists and Baptists, who have each more than 100 congregations.

Government.

The present constitution of Vermont was adopted on the 4th of July, 1793. Its provisions are somewhat different from those of

the other states. The legislative department consists of only one body, a House of Representatives, which is elected annually, each inhabited town choosing one representative. The executive powers are vested in a Governor, Lieutenant-governor, and a Council of twelve persons, who are all elected annually, and in whom is vested the power of appointment to all offices not otherwise provided for. All bills passed by the assembly, must be laid before the governor and council for revision and concurrence, or for the purpose of amendment. If they return the same with amendments, and the representatives disagree, the governor and council may suspend the passing of the bills until the next legislature. The judicial power is exercised by a supreme court and by county courts. All judges are elected annually by the legislature. The right of voting belongs to all persons indiscriminately, who have resided in the state for the space of a year before the election, and are of a quiet and peaceable behaviour. The last article of the constitution provides for the election once in seven years of thirteen persons, who compose a council of censors, and whose duty it is to inquire whether the constitution has been preserved inviolate during the last septenary, and whether the legislative and executive departments have performed their duties faithfully. They have also power to call a convention, for the purpose of making alterations in the constitution.

GOVERNORS,

From the Formation of the Constitution.

1793 Thomas Chittenden.	1809 Jonas Galusha.
1797 Isaac Tichenor.	1813 Martin Chittenden.
1807 Israel Smith.	1815 Jonas Galusha.
1808 Isaac Tichenor.	1820 Richard Skinner, to 1822.

Places remarkable for Battles and Sieges.

1777, Hubbardstown. The American rear-guard defeated by the British, under General Frazier, July 7.—*Rutland.*

Bennington. General Stark gains a complete victory over the Hessian troops, August 16.—*Bennington.*

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

The tract of country which is now known by the name of Vermont, was settled at a much later period than any of the other eastern states. Its distance from the Atlantic coast, and from the river St. Lawrence, prevented any settlement being made in it either by the French or English, until the colonies of the latter extended themselves into its vicinity. The governments of New

York and Massachusetts made large grants of land in the direction of Vermont; but it was not until 1724, that any actual possession was taken of land within the present bounds of the state. In that year Fort Durance was built by the officers of Massachusetts, on the Connecticut river. On the other side of the state, the French advanced up Lake Champlain; and, in 1731, built a fort at Crown Point, and began a settlement on the eastern shore of the lake. This part of the state becoming the theatre of hostilities between the two nations, offered little inducement to emigrants, until the reduction of Canada placed all the northern quarter of America under one crown. On the occurrence of this event, however in 1760, the country between the Connecticut river and Lake Champlain began to attract attention; and, being supposed to fall within the limits of New Hampshire, applications were made to that government for the purchase of land. The jurisdiction of New Hampshire was believed to extend to the west of the Connecticut, and the government, without inquiring into the validity of their title, made large grants to settlers, and the number of emigrants became in a short time considerable. The state of New York, however, conceived it had a better right to the territory, in consequence of a grant from Charles II. to his brother, the Duke of York, which was supposed to include all the lands from the east side of the Delaware to the west bank of the Connecticut. Proclamations were issued by each state in support of its claims, and the matter being referred to the English crown, a decision was made in favour of New York, its jurisdiction as far as the Connecticut being explicitly confirmed. In this determination, New Hampshire seems to have acquiesced; and, if the government of New York had contented itself with the possession of the unsold land, and the jurisdiction over that which had been fairly purchased from New Hampshire, Vermont would probably have been now an integral part of that great state. A violent and impolitic course was, however, pursued. The New Hampshire grants were declared invalid. The settlers were required to take out new grants, and, on their refusal, which was nearly general, actions of ejectment were instituted in the courts at Albany, which resulted in favour of the New York title. It was easier, however, to obtain judgments in these suits than to execute the subsequent process. The settlers opposed the officers of justice with violence, and associated together in their towns in defence of one another. The militia of the neighbouring part of New York were called out to enforce the laws, but few appeared; and such was the resolute front of the inhabitants, that nothing effectual was done. At the head of the Vermontese was Ethan Allen, one of the most extraordinary characters of the age, a bold and determined man, without mental cultivation, but with great natural powers. Under his guidance and counsel, they resolved to maintain what they conceived to be their rights, at the risk of being

treated as outlaws. Allegiance was, however, proffered to the crown of England, and, on the application of the settlers, the king interposed, and directed the government of New York not to make any grant of the land in question. The order was evaded, and the same state of things continued; New York vainly endeavouring to enforce its jurisdiction, and the Vermontese strenuously resisting it, until the battle of Lexington. More important objects then occupied the attention of the government of New York.

The attempts of the British ministry upon the liberties of America, excited as much indignation in Vermont, as in those provinces which were more immediately obnoxious to the royal power. On the news that hostilities had commenced, Ethan Allen collected a body of about 300 settlers, and, joined by some officers from Connecticut and New Hampshire, surprised the British post at Ticonderoga. The commandant asked Allen upon what authority he required the surrender. "I demand it in the name of the great Jehovah and the continental congress," was the characteristic answer. The fort at Crown Point was surrendered soon afterwards. These enterprises were executed with great address and bravery, and redounding greatly to the advantage of the American cause, operated strongly in favour of the Vermontese on the public mind. In a bold and romantic attempt upon Montreal, Ethan Allen was shortly afterwards taken prisoner. The revenge of the British condemned him to irons, and every species of personal degradation. He was carried in this state to England, where he was immured in rigorous confinement. In the following year, the enemy succeeded in defeating the American vessels on Lake Champlain; and on the advance of Burgoyne's army, in 1777, Ticonderoga fell again into their possession. The war now pressed heavily upon the inhabitants of Vermont. The northern settlements were broken up, and the whole frontier subject to the irruptions of the savages. Submission to the British, however, was not thought of. A respectable force was raised, and united itself with that of General Starke. The battle of Bennington, where upwards of one thousand regular troops were assaulted in their intrenchments, and compelled to surrender, will be long remembered as a proof of what an undisciplined militia are capable, when warmed by patriotism, and animated by individual hatred of an oppressor. The surrender of Burgoyne's army restored this district to comparative tranquillity.

While the people of Vermont were thus contending in favour of the general cause, they were placed, as regarded their civil government, in an anomalous and embarrassing situation. When hostilities commenced with Great Britain, they found themselves without even a form of government. The jurisdiction of New York was disclaimed, and the general authority of the British crown was thrown off. In this state of things every thing was effected by voluntary agreement. Application was made to con-

gress by some of the principal inhabitants for its interference; but that body recommended them to submit for the time to the authority of New York. Resolute in their determination not to submit, the people now saw no other alternative than to establish an independent state. In January, 1777, a general convention met, and proclaimed that the district of territory, previously known by the name of the New Hampshire Grants, was of right a free and independent jurisdiction, to be thenceforward called by the name of "*New Connecticut*, *alias* Vermont." The first appellation and the ungraceful *alias* have fortunately been dropt. The convention proceeded to make these acts known to congress, and petitioned for admission into the confederacy. New York presented a counter-memorial, and congress found themselves placed in an embarrassing predicament. The superior weight of New York prevailed; and congress refused to recognise the separate existence of Vermont. Other circumstances soon afterwards involved the Vermontese in a contest with the government of New Hampshire. The charter of the latter state circumscribed it by a line drawn at a distance of sixty miles from the sea. All the lands west of this line to the Connecticut river were derived from royal grants; and the inhabitants of the towns within this strip, conceiving that the royal authority expired with the declaration of independence, imagined that they had a right to determine to what state they would be attached. Under this impression they applied to the Vermontese, requesting that they might be admitted to an union and confederation with them. The assembly of Vermont imprudently acceded to the application. On a representation, made without authority, that congress would admit Vermont, if the connexion with the revolted towns of New Hampshire was dissolved, the vote of union was rescinded. Discontents arose within the state. The inhabitants of that part which lies near the Connecticut determined to unite with the New Hampshire towns, and to form a state government, the seat of which should be on the Connecticut river. Encouraged by these divisions, New Hampshire now put in a claim before congress for the whole state of Vermont. New York did the same; and Massachusetts endeavoured to obtain a part, by reviving an antiquated title. Menaced from so many quarters, the Vermontese gave up their local dissensions, and united in their own defence. Ethan Allen, who had returned from captivity, was placed at the head of a body of militia, and made prisoners of a number of officers who were acting within the state, under the authority of New York. Complaint was made to congress, who assigned a period for hearing and determining upon the respective claims to jurisdiction. The discussion was, however, postponed from time to time, as the Vermontese refused to become parties to it, and no decision was pronounced. The British authorities were naturally attentive to the progress of this contest; and flattered

themselves with the belief, that the people of Vermont, exasperated by the proceedings of the neighbouring states, and neglected by congress, would place themselves under the protection of the English government. Negotiations, it appears, were actually opened in 1780, and were continued without any open result until the peace of 1783. Whether the leading men of Vermont actually intended to unite the state with Canada, or, as is most probable, expected to produce an effect upon congress by the appearance of treating with the British; and, at the same time, to preserve the state from the hostility of the latter, by holding out to them a prospect of returning to allegiance; it is certain that the body of the people were still warmly attached to the American cause, and averse to any abandonment of their brethren. The consequences of the negotiation were, at least in one respect, favourable to Vermont, as she remained unmolested by the British during the remainder of the war.

When the peace of 1783 took place, Vermont found herself a sovereign and independent state *de facto*, united with no confederation, and, from this circumstance unembarrassed by the debts which weighed down the other states. Congress had, during the war, pursued an evasive, and on some occasions a deceptive, policy, discreditable to the union; and the Vermontese now felt little desire to be admitted into the confederacy. New York still claimed a jurisdiction over the state, but was unable to enforce it; and the state government was administered as regularly as in any other part of the United States. Affairs remained in this singular condition, until after the formation of the new federal constitution, in 1787; the advantages of which, under the administration of Washington, inclined the people of Vermont again to attempt an admission into the union. The only obstacle arose from the opposition of New York, which was finally withdrawn in 1789. Commissioners from the two states met in that year, and effected an amicable arrangement. The sum of thirty thousand dollars was agreed to be paid to New York, as a compensation for lands belonging to its citizens, which had been re-granted by Vermont; and New York consented that her claims to jurisdiction should cease. Thus terminated a controversy which had been carried on with animosity, and to the injury of both parties, for twenty-six years. A convention was immediately called, by which it was resolved to join the federal union. The consent of congress was given without hesitation; and, on the 4th of March, 1791, Vermont became one of the United States.

Her history, since that period, has not been marked by any striking events. Like the other states, she has been agitated on her surface by the conflicts of parties; but the stream of her prosperity has flowed in a regular course. During the last war with England, the vicinity of the state was the seat of a warm

contest. On the invasion of New York, volunteers poured forth from the mountains and valleys of Vermont, and by their patriotism and valour proved that they had not degenerated from their fathers. The repulse of the British troops from Plattsburg, and the capture of their squadron on Lake Champlain, delivered the soil of this district from the presence of an enemy.

NEW YORK.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

New York is situated between 40° 30′ and 45° N. lat. and 5° E. and 2° 51′ W. long. It is bounded north by Lower Canada; east by Vermont, Massachusetts, and Connecticut; south by New Jersey and Pennsylvania; and west and north-west by Upper Canada, from which it is separated by Lake Erie, Niagara River, Lake Ontario, and the river St. Lawrence. Its mean length is about 280, and its mean breadth 165 miles; its area being about 46,000 square miles, or 29,440,000 acres.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

The south-eastern angle of the state, about 40 miles above New York, is mountainous, being traversed by several ridges from New Jersey, one of which crosses the Hudson at the highlands. The Catskill Mountains, in the counties of Ulster, Green, Albany, and Scoharie, are the highest in the state; Round Top, the principal summit, being 3804 feet above the level of the sea. The country on Lake Champlain is hilly, and becomes mountainous as you approach the highlands which divide the waters of this lake from those which fall into the St. Lawrence. West of these highlands, a fine country, at first hilly, then level and fertile, extends to the St. Lawrence and Lake Ontario. The western part, lying between Lake Ontario and Pennsylvania, is principally level, except near the Pennsylvania boundary, where it becomes hilly and mountainous. From Genesee River, near its mouth, to Lewistown, on the Niagara River, there is a remarkable ridge, running almost the whole distance, which is 78 miles, and in a direction from east to west. Its general altitude above the neighbouring land is 30 feet, and its width, in some places, is not more than 40 yards. Its elevation is about 160 feet above the level of Lake Ontario, to which it descends by a gradual slope, and its distance from that water is between six and ten miles. There is every

reason to believe that this ridge was once the margin of Lake Ontario. About 20 miles south of this ridge, and parallel with it, there is another, which runs from Genesee River to Black Rock. The country between the ridges is called the Tonnewanta Valley, and there is some reason to believe that it was once covered by the waters of Lake Erie.

In regard to soil, the eastern half of Long Island is sandy and barren; the western part is fertile, and in a state of high cultivation. The country on the Hudson, below the mouth of the Mohawk, has a good medium soil; the counties of Westchester and Dutchess are under very good cultivation. The alluvial flats of Columbia and Renesslaer counties, are very extensive and rich. A considerable district west of Albany, consists of sandy plains interspersed with marshes. The alluvial flats on the Mohawk are extensive and very fertile. The soil of the vast elevated plain of the western region, occupied by the small lakes, is a rich mould, equally well adapted to grain and grass. The alluvial flats are here extensive; those on Genesee River include about 60,000 acres. Wheat is raised in this state in greater quantities than all other grains. Indian corn, rye, oats, flax, hemp, &c., are also extensively cultivated.

Lakes, Rivers, and Bays.

Lake Ontario, Lake Erie, and Lake Champlain, are partly in this state. Lake George lies south of Lake Champlain, and communicates with it by a short outlet. It is 37 miles long, and from one to seven broad. It embosoms more than 200 beautiful islands, and its water is so transparent that the bottom is visible at almost any depth. On each side it is skirted by mountains abounding with the most romantic scenery. Oneida Lake lies directly west of Rome, and empties itself into Lake Ontario through Oswego River. Onondaga, Skeneateles, Owasco, Cayuga, Seneca, Crooked, and Canandaigua Lakes, all lie south-west of Oneida Lake, and either directly or indirectly discharge themselves into Seneca River.

Delaware River forms part of the boundary between this state and Pennsylvania. Niagara River connects Lake Erie with Lake Ontario, and forms part of the western boundary. The St. Lawrence separates New York from Upper Canada. The Hudson rises in the mountainous region on the west of Lake Champlain, and pursuing a southerly course of more than 300 miles, communicates with the Atlantic below New York city. It is navigable for ships to Hudson; for large sloops to Albany, near the head of the tide, 160 miles from New York; and, for small sloops, to Troy, 6 miles further. The Mohawk is the principal branch of the Hudson: it rises 20 miles north of Rome, and running south of east, passes by Rome, Utica, and Schenectady; and, after a course of about 135 miles, falls into the Hudson by

several mouths between Troy and Waterford. The navigation of this river is interrupted by numerous rapids and falls: the rivers running into Lake Ontario are Genesee, Oswego, and Black Rivers. Genesee River rises in Pennsylvania, and pursues a northerly course. There are four great falls in this river; two of them within five or six miles of its mouth, and the other about 70 miles further up. Oswego River is the outlet of Oneida Lake, and falls into Lake Ontario, at Fort Oswego. Seneca River receives the waters of Canandaigua, Seneca, Cayuga, and several other lakes, and runs into Oswego River at Three River Point. Black River rises north-east of Rome, and, after a northerly course of 120 miles, runs into Lake Ontario, near Sacket's Harbour. The rivers which run into the St. Lawrence, are the Oswegatchie, Grass, Racket, and St. Regis. The Big Chazy, Saranac, and Sable, fall into Lake Champlain. The Susquehannah and Alleghany Rivers rise in this state, and run into Pennsylvania. The Tioga and Chenango are branches of the Susquehannah.

New York Harbour is a large bay, nine miles long, and four broad, which spreads before the city of New York on the south side, having Long Island on the east, and Staten Island and New Jersey on the west. On the north it receives the Hudson; on the north-east it communicates with Long Island Sound, through East River; on the west with Newark Bay, through the Kills; on the south with the Atlantic Ocean, through the Narrows. It is deep enough for the largest vessels, well secured from winds and storms, sufficiently spacious for the most numerous fleet, and the currents are so rapid that it is seldom obstructed by ice.

Sacket's Harbour is the best on Lake Ontario.

Natural Curiosities and Mineral Springs.

The falls of Niagara are, perhaps, the most wonderful natural curiosity in the world. They are in Niagara River, about half way between Lake Erie and Lake Ontario. This immense river here rushes over a precipice, and falls perpendicularly to the depth of 176 feet. The tremendous roar of the waters can sometimes be heard at the distance of 40 miles; and the vapour, which continually rises in clouds from below, can be seen at the distance of 70 miles.

In Mohawk River, about two miles from its mouth, are the falls called the Cahoos, or Cahoes, which have been much admired for their beauty and sublimity. The river, which is here between 300 and 400 yards broad, descends, at high water, in one sheet, to the depth of 70 feet. About three-fourths of a mile below, a bridge has been thrown across the Mohawk, from which the view of the falls is inexpressibly grand.

The Saratoga and Ballston springs are the most celebrated in America. Saratoga is 30 miles north of Albany, and a few miles

west of the Hudson. Ballston is 12 miles south-west of Saratoga. These springs, during the summer months, are the resort of the gay and fashionable, as well as of invalids from all parts of the United States. The waters afford relief in many obstinate diseases. The warm springs of New Lebanon, 29 miles south-east of Albany, are visited for bathing. At Salina, in Onondago county, about 30 miles west of Utica, are the celebrated salt springs and salt works, which yield about 500,000 bushels of salt annually, and the manufacture may be extended to any desirable quantity.

Roads and Canals.

The turnpike roads are extremely numerous. The most important is the great western turnpike leading from Albany to Buffalo, on Lake Erie, a distance of nearly 300 miles.

The great canal connecting Lake Erie with the Hudson, when completed, will be 350 miles long. The route is as follows: beginning at Albany, on the Hudson, it passes up the west bank of that river, nearly to the mouth of the Mohawk; then along the south bank of the Mohawk, through the counties of Albany, Schenectady, Montgomery, Herkimer, and Oneida, to Rome. From Rome it proceeds in a S. W. direction, and crosses Oneida Creek into Madison county, where it turns to the west, and passes through Onondago county, approaching within a mile and a half of Salina, at the south end of Onondaga Lake. It crosses Seneca River at Montezuma, and passing by Lyons and Palmyra, strikes the Genesee River at Rochester. West of the Genesee River, it runs on the south side of the Ridge Road, and parallel with it for 60 miles; and then turning to the south, joins Tonnewanta Creek, 11 miles from its mouth in Niagara River. The channel of the Tonnewanta will be made use of for these 11 miles, and the canal will then proceed in a southerly direction from the mouth of the Tonnewanta, along the east bank of Niagara River to Buffalo, on Lake Erie. This route is divided into three sections. The western section extends from Buffalo to Montezuma, on Seneca River, 160 miles; through this distance the level of the canal uniformly descends from the lake, and the whole descent is 194 feet by 25 locks. The middle section extends from Montezuma to Rome, 77 miles: through this distance the level of the canal uniformly ascends, and the whole ascent is 49 feet. The eastern section extends from Rome to Albany, 113 miles: through this distance the level of the canal uniformly descends, and the whole descent is 419 feet by 46 locks. The aggregate of rise and fall is, therefore, 662 feet, and the difference of levels between Lake Erie and the Hudson, 564 feet. The canal is 40 feet wide on the surface, 28 at the bottom, and 4 feet deep. It was estimated by the commissioners, in 1817, that the whole expense would be 4,881,733 dollars. The canal was com-

menced on the 4th of July, 1817. In 1819, the whole of the middle section was completed, and the part of the eastern section between Rome and Utica; a distance, in all, of 96 miles. For 67 miles of this distance the canal proceeds on the summit level, without a single lock.

The Champlain Canal is 22 miles long, from Whitehall at the mouth of Wood Creek, on Lake Champlain, to Fort Edward on the Hudson. It is 40 feet wide at the surface, 28 at the bottom, and 4 feet deep. The descent from the summit level to Lake Champlain is 54 feet, and from the summit level to the Hudson 90 feet. The expense was about 260,000 dollars. It was opened in 1820. By means of dams, locks, and other improvements, a good boat navigation has been opened on the Hudson, from Fort Edward as far down as Saratoga Falls. At Saratoga Falls a canal was commenced in 1820, which is to extend along the west bank of the Hudson to Waterford, at the mouth of the Mohawk, a distance of 27 miles. The whole expense of continuing the Champlain Canal from Fort Edward to Waterford, is estimated at 400,000 dollars. It is expected that the whole will be completed, and a navigation opened from Lake Champlain to the tide waters of the Hudson, in 1822. There is a canal 1½ mile long, from Rome on the Mohawk, to Wood Creek, which runs into Oneida Lake.

Climate.

As New York stretches from north to south four degrees and a half of latitude, passing by the states of Vermont, Massachusetts, and Connecticut, the climate of the eastern parts is assimilated to that of these states respectively. In the south-east, towards the sea, the climate is temperate, but subject to very sudden and great changes. After passing the high lands, and going into the western country beyond Utica, the climate becomes milder than it is to the eastward. In the western part, contiguous to Lakes Ontario and Erie, the climate is tempered by these waters, and does not go to the same extremes as in the south-east. The climate of the whole state is in general healthy, and favourable to cultivation.

Civil Divisions and Population.

SOUTHERN DISTRICT.

Counties.	*Townships.*	*Pop.* 1010.	*Pop.* 1820.
New York,		96,373	123,706
King's,	6	8,303	11,187
Queen's,		19,336	21,519
Suffolk,	9	21,113	24,272
Richmond,	4	5,347	6,135
Carried forward		150,472	186,819

Counties.	Townships.	Pop. 1810.	Pop. 1820.
Brought forward		150,472	186,819
West Chester,	21	30,272	32,638
Rockland,	4	7,758	8,837
Dutchess,	13	51,434	46,615
Orange,	11	34,347	41,213
Putnam,	5		11,268
Ulster,	13	26,576	30,934
Sullivan,	7	6,108	8,900
Columbia,	14	32,390	38,330
Greene,	10	19,536	22,996
		358,893	428,550

NORTHERN DISTRICT.

Albany	7	34,661	38,116
Alleghany	9	1,942	9,330
Broome	6	8,130	14,343
Cayuga	10	29,843	38,897
Chenango	17	21,704	31,215
Clinton	6	8,002	12,070
Cortland	10	8,868	16,507
Cataraugus	5		4,090
Chatauque	8		12,568
Delaware	17	20,303	26,587
Essex	13	9,477	12,811
Franklin	6	2,717	4,139
Genesee	33	12,588	58,093
Hamilton	3		1,251
Herkimer	15	22,046	31,017
Jefferson	15	15,140	32,952
Lewis	7	6,433	9,227
Madison	12	23,144	32,208
Montgomery	12	41,214	37,569
Niagara	17	8,971	22,990
Oneida	21	33,792	50,997
Oswego	13		12,374
Onondago	12	25,987	41,467
Ontario	35	42,032	88,267
Otsego	21	38,802	44,856
Rensselaer	15	36,309	40,153
Saratoga	19	33,147	36,052
Schenectady	5	10,201	13,081
Schoharie	9	18,945	23,154
Seneca	7	16,609	23,619
St. Lawrence	17	7,885	16,037
Carried forward		540,892	826,037

Counties.	Townships.	Pop. 1810.	Pop. 1820.
Brought forward		540,892	826,037
Steuben	14	7,246	21,989
Tioga	9	7,899	16,971
Tomkins	6		20,681
Washington	16	44,289	38,831
Warren	9		9,459
		600,326	944,262
Southern District		358,893	428,550
Total		959,219	1,372,812

The population, in 1790, was 340,120; in 1800, 586,050; in 1810, 959,219; in 1820; 1,372,812; and exceeds that of any other state in the union. Having a great portion of fine land yet to be settled, and room for most extensive improvements in manufacturing and commercial pursuits, New York will probably continue to increase in the same ratio it has done, for a long time to come.

Chief Towns.

New York, the first commercial city in America, is on the south end of Manhattan Island, on a large bay or harbour, formed by the union of Hudson river with the strait of Long Island Sound, called East River. Albany, the seat of government, is on the west bank of the Hudson, near the head of sloop navigation, 142½ miles north of New York. Hudson stands on the east bank of the Hudson, at the head of ship navigation, 124 miles north of New York and 36 south of Albany. Catskill and Athens are in the vicinity of Hudson, on the opposite side of the river. Troy, Lansingburg, and Waterford, are flourishing towns on the Hudson, near the mouth of the Mohawk. Poughkeepsie is on the east bank of the river, half way between New York and Albany. Plattsburg is on Lake Champlain; Ogdensburg on the St. Lawrence; Sackett's Harbour on Lake Ontario; and Buffalo on Lake Erie. Shenectady, Utica, and Rome, are on the Mohawk. Brooklyn is on Long Island, opposite the city of New York. Sagg Harbour is on the east side of the same island.

Manufactures and Commerce.

This is a great manufacturing state. The value of manufactures, in 1810, was 25,370,280 dollars, and they have greatly increased since.

The trade of New York exceeds that of any other state in the union. The exports consist of wheat, Indian corn, rye, beef, pork, lumber, pot and pearl-ashes, and various manufactures. The value of exports, in 1816, was 19,690,031 dollars; in 1817, 18,707,433 dollars; in 1820, 13,168,244 dollars, about one-third of which was foreign produce; and a great portion of the do-

mestic produce was from other states. The tonnage, in 1815, was 309,290. The city of New York is the greatest emporium of commerce, not only of this state, but of all the United States.

Education.

A vast fund, amounting in value to a million and a half of dollars, has been appropriated to the support of common schools. Academies and colleges are also well endowed. The colleges are Columbia, and the Medical, in the city of New York; Union, in Schenectady; and Hamilton, at Clinton.

Religion.

The denominations of Christians are Presbyterians, Associate reformed Presbyterians, Dutch reformed, Episcopalians, Baptists, Methodists, Friends, Lutherans, Roman Catholics, &c.

Government.

The constitution of this state was adopted by a convention authorized for the purpose, in April 1777. It was revised and amended in 1801, and again amended by a convention, in November, 1821. The amended constitution was adopted by the people of New York, in January, 1822. The chief provisions of the amended constitution are as follow: the legislative power is vested in a senate and an assembly. The senate consists of 32 members, chosen for four years, who vacate their offices by rotation, and must be freeholders. The assembly consists of 128 members, to be annually elected by the counties in proportion to their population. The executive power is vested in a Governor, who holds his office for two years, and is elected by the people. A Lieutenant-Governor is chosen in the same manner, and for the same term. The governor has a qualified veto on the acts of the legislature: and appointments made by him to office must be approved by the senate. The right of voting belongs to every male citizen of the age of 21, who has been a resident of the county six months, and paid a state or county tax within a year preceding the election. But no man of colour can vote, who has not been a citizen of the state three years, and, for one year preceding the election, possessed a freehold of the value of 250 dollars, over and above all debts and incumbrances, and paid a tax thereon. The judicial power is vested in a Court of Errors, consisting of the senate, the chancellor and judges of the supreme court; a chancellor, a supreme court, consisting of three judges, and of district courts. The judges and chancellor hold their offices during good behaviour, or until they attain to sixty years of age.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

THE Dutch and English, the successive masters of the colony of New York, have disputed with acrimony the unprofitable question by which nation the first title was gained. It is admitted that the noble river which bears his name was discovered in 1608 or 1609, by Henry Hudson, an Englishman by birth, who in the latter year was in the service of Holland, and it is clear that the earliest effectual settlement was made by the Dutch. Their jurisdiction was soon interrupted; for, in 1614, Captain Argall, sailing from Virginia towards Nova Scotia, visited the Hudson, when the Dutch, being unable to offer resistance, submitted to the English government. The next year a number of ships arrived from Holland, and restored the Dutch authority. The settlers began to fortify themselves on the island, which is now covered by the city of New York, and extended their possessions in a few years to the Delaware and Connecticut rivers. In 1621, the States General made a grant of the country, by the name of New Netherlands, to the West India company. The first governor under the company, was Wouter Van Twiller, who arrived at Fort Amsterdam, as New York was then called, in 1629. William Kieft, the second governor, was engaged in frequent disputes with the neighbouring colonies. He protested, without success, against what he considered the encroachments of the English in Connecticut, and on Long Island; and, in 1640, broke up their settlements at Oyster Bay by force. Peter Stuyvesant was the third and last governor of the New Netherlands. His administration was, like that of his predecessor, a period of contest, both of words and weapons. The people of New England on the east, and the Marylanders and Swedes to the south and west, kept him constantly employed either in negotiations or warlike enterprises. An agreement was, however, made respecting boundaries with the people of Connecticut; and the Swedes on the Delaware were compelled to submit to his authority: but the entire Dutch government in North America soon afterwards passed away. In 1664, Charles II. of England, urged by the representations of the neighbouring English colonies, granted to his brother, the Duke of York, a patent for a large tract of country, including New York and New Jersey, and provided him with the means of obtaining possession of it. A considerable force under the command of Colonel Nicholls, arrived in the harbour of New York, in August, 1664, and summoned the province to surrender to the British crown, offering the inhabitants protection in their persons and estates. Governor Stuyvesant, an old and brave soldier, determined to make all the defence of which the place was capable, and, aware of the pacific disposition of the inhabitants, refused

them a sight of the summons, lest the easy terms offered, should induce them to capitulate. Nicholls, however, published a proclamation, which wrought so much upon the people, that the governor, finding himself unsupported, was reluctantly obliged to yield. The English forces took possession, first of the town of New York, and afterwards of Fort Orange, on the Hudson, which last received the name of Albany, after one of the titles of the Duke of York. An expedition was immediately sent to the Delaware, and, taking possession of the forts and places in that quarter, the English jurisdiction was extended and connected over New York and New Jersey.

The authority of Nicholls over New York was supreme; but it appears to have been exercised with justice and moderation. He was succeeded by Colonel Lovelace, under whose administration the Dutch again obtained a short-lived ascendency. In 1673, some Dutch ships arrived at Staten Island: the commander, finding the forts not in a state of defence, landed a body of men, who entered the town without resistance. The whole province renewed the oath of allegiance to the States General, only to be absolved from it again in a short time; for, on the conclusion of the treaty of peace, in 1674, between Holland and England, a formal cession of the whole territory was made to the latter. The Duke of York, on this event, obtained from the king a new patent for the same tract of country, which had been granted, in 1664, and constituted Sir Edmund Andros governor-general. Under the administration of this tyrannical deputy, New York was governed for several years as a conquered country, without any other laws than such as were ordained by his sole authority. At length, in 1683, permission was given to elect representatives; and the people, for the first time, took a part in the government. The oppressive measures of James II., and his representative Andros, predisposed the inhabitants of New York in favour of the change which was then taking place in England. On the news of the imprisonment of Andros by the people of Boston; Leisler, a captain of militia, collected a body of men, and seized the fort at New York in the name of the Prince of Orange. The lieutenant-governor, Nicholson, absconded, and Liesler, who had been joined by several officers of militia, assumed the chief command of the province. The people of the southern part of the colony submitted readily to his authority: but those of Albany and its neighbourhood, though professing to adhere to William and Mary, refused to acknowledge the government of Leisler. A force was therefore sent against Albany, which compelled the opposition to submit. In this state of things, Colonel Sloughter arrived from England, with a commission from King William, as governor of the province. Leisler, who had become intoxicated by success, refused to surrender his authority, and attempted to hold out the fort against the English commissioner. He was,

however, deserted by his party; apprehended with some of his adherents; and, together with his son, was condemned to death and executed.

The English revolution was productive of great advantages to New York. An assembly was called by the governor: and a bill of rights formed, by which the trial by jury and an exemption from all taxes not imposed by the representatives of the people were established. For many years the province enjoyed repose, and made rapid advances in prosperity and population. In the wars which arose with the French of Canada, and the frontier Indians, at the conclusion of the 17th century, the province embarked with no less zeal than the other colonies, and suffered severely in the conflict. Repeated incursions by the savages in the pay of the French, rendered the frontier settlements a scene of desolation and bloodshed. In 1690, in the dead of night and winter, a sudden attack was made upon the town of Schenectady, near Albany, and an indiscriminate massacre of the inhabitants took place. Sixty-seven persons were put to death, and many lost their lives or their limbs in the flight to Albany. Harassed by these incursions, the people of New York joined readily in the attempts to effect the reduction of Canada. In 1709, and again, in 1711, they contributed largely in men and money to aid the British expeditions, which failed through the incapacity of the British commanders.

The frontiers of New York were again the theatre of hostilities in the war which ended in 1763. In 1755, a French army, under Dieskau, invaded the province from Montreal, and was met by a body of New England and New York troops, under sir William Johnson, one of the council of New York. A warm engagement ensued, which ended in the repulse of the French, with great loss on both sides. In 1757, Fort William Henry, on Lake George, was taken by Montcalm. In the succeeding year, an unsuccessful attack was made on the French fort at Ticonderoga, by General Abercrombie. In 1759, however, General Amherst captured Ticonderoga and Crown Point; and General Johnson, after defeating a French army, took Fort Niagara. The surrender of Canada, in 1760, relieved the province from the chief impediment in the way of its advancing importance.

Between this period and the memorable era of independence, we meet with few important events to narrate in the history of New York. The people of this colony opposed as strenuous a resistance to the stamp act of 1765, and to the subsequent measures of the British government, as their sister provinces. In 1767, the assembly, refusing to provide quarters for the British troops, according to an act of parliament, a bill was passed for restraining the assembly from proceeding in business, untill they had complied with the act. This severe and oppressive measure naturally excited indignation throughout the continent. In 1769, resolves were passed by the assembly similar to those of the other assem-

blies, upon the subject of the attempt of the British government to impose taxes on the colonies. The declaration of independence was assented to by the New York delegates in congress; but many of the principal inhabitants were inclined to favour the royal cause. The city of New York was taken possession of by the British army early in the contest, and remained in their possession until the treaty of peace. The state generally was the theatre of hostilities during the greater part of the war.

Since the peace of 1783, this state has made wonderful advances in wealth and population. We find few events of importance, however, on record. During the last war with England, the frontiers of New York were exposed to the incursions of the enemy, and became the scene of many sanguinary conflicts, the account of which will be found in the general history of the United States.

Places remarkable for Battles and Sieges.

1755, Crown Point. The French, under Dieskau, defeated. Sept.—*Essex county.*

1756, Oswego. Taken by the French, under Montcalm.—*Oneida.*

1758, Ticonderoga. The English and Americans defeated by the French.—*Essex.*

1759, Ticonderoga. Taken by the English and Americans. July 27.—*Essex.*

Crown Point. Taken by the English and Americans. July 28.—*Essex.*

Oswego. The French defeated. July 6.—*Oneida.*

Niagara. Taken by the English and Americans. July 24.—*Niagara.*

1775, Ticonderoga. / Crown Point. } Surprised by the Americans. May 9.—*Essex.*

1776, Brooklyn. The Americans defeated by the British. July 27.—*Kings.*

New York. Taken by the British. Sept. 15.—*New York.*

Haerlem. Engagement between the Americans and British. Sept. 16.—*West Chester.*

Fort Washington. Taken by assault by the British. Nov. 16.—*New York.*

1777, Ticonderoga. Taken by the British, under Burgoyne. July 5.—*Essex.*

1777, Fort Schuyler. General Herkimer surprised by the Indians.—*Herkimer.*

Fort Schuyler. The British compelled to raise the siege.—*Herkimer.*

Stillwater. Battle between the Americans and the British, in which the latter are defeated, Sept. 19.—*Saratoga.*

Stillwater. Assault on the British lines, Oct. 7.—*Saratoga.*

Saratoga. The British army, under Burgoyne, surrenders to the Americans, Oct. 16.—*Saratoga.*

Ticonderoga. Taken by the Americans, Oct.—*Essex.*

1779, Stony Point. Stormed by General Wayne, July 15.—*Rockland.*

1813, Black Rock. Amercan militia defeated by British, July 11.—*Niagara.*

Sacket's Harbour. The British defeated, May 27.—*Jefferson.*

Fort Niagara. Surprised by the British, and the garrison massacred, Dec. 19.—*Niagara.*

Buffalo. Taken and burnt by the British, Dec. 30.—*Niagara.*

1814, Plattsburgh. The British defeated by the Americans, Sept. 11.—*Clinton.*

Lake Champlain. The British squadron defeated and taken by the Americans, Sept. 11.

GOVERNORS, &c.

Under the Royal Charter, appointed by the Crown.

1664 Richard Nicholls.
1668 Francis Lovelace.
1674 Sir Edmund Andros.
1682 Thomas Dougan.
1690 Henry Sloughter.
1691 Richard Ingoldsby.
1692 Benjamin Fletcher.
1698 Earl of Bellamont.
1701 John Nanfan.
1702 Lord Cornbury.
1708 Lord Lovelace.
1709 Richard Ingoldsby.
1710 Brigadier Hunter.
1720 William Burnet.
1728 John Montgomerie.
1737 Rip. Van Dam.
1732 William Cosby.
1735 Clarke.
1743 Clinton.
1753 Osborn.
1755 De Lancey.
1757 Sir Charles Hardy.
1760 Cadwallader Colden.
1761 Monckton.
1762 Cadwallader Colden.
1763 Sir Henry Moore.
1765 Sir Henry Moore.
1769 Cadwallader Colden.
1770 Lord Dunmore.
1771 Tryon.

Since the declaration of Independence.

1778 George Clinton.
1798 John Jay.
1801 George Clinton.
1804 Morgan Lewis.
1807 Daniel D. Tompkins.
1817 De Witt Clinton, to 1828.

NEW JERSEY.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

New Jersey is situated between 38° 57′ and 41° 22′ N. lat. and 1° 26′ and 3° 9′ E. long. It is bounded north by New York; east by the Atlantic Ocean and Hudson River, which separates it from New York; south by Delaware Bay, which separates it from Delaware; and west by the Delaware River, which separates it from Pennsylvania. Its mean length from north to south, is about 138 miles, and its mean breadth from east to west about 50, its area being about 6900 square miles, or 4,416,000 acres.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

The three northern counties are mountainous; the next four are agreeably diversified with hills and valleys. The six southern counties, including all the coast from Sandy Hook to Cape May, are level, and principally barren, producing little else but shrub-oaks and yellow pines. The mountainous and hilly parts of the state have generally a strong soil, and form a fine grazing country. The farmers there raise great numbers of cattle for the markets of New York and Philadelphia. They also raise wheat, rye, maize, buckwheat, potatoes, &c. Near New York and Philadelphia, great attention has been paid to the cultivation of fruit and vegetables; and the finest apples, pears, peaches, plums, cherries, and melons, are carried to these markets. Fine orchards abound in all the northern half of the state; and the cider of New Jersey, particularly that of Newark, is of proverbial excellence.

The most important mineral production is iron, which is found in immense quantities among the mountains in the northern part of the state. In the county of Morris, there are seven rich iron mines, two furnaces, two rolling and slitting mills, and about 30 forges. Great quantities of bog iron ore are also found in the southern counties, and the annual produce of the whole state is estimated at 2500 tons, exclusive of hollow ware, and various other castings, of which vast quantities are made.

Rivers.

Delaware River, on the west, separates New Jersey from Pennsylvania. It is navigable for ships of the line 40 miles, to

Philadelphia, and for sloops 35 miles further, to the head of the tide, at Trenton falls. Above the falls it is navigable 100 miles for boats of eight or nine tons.

Raritan River rises in the western part of the state; and, flowing east, passes by New Brunswick and Amboy, and falls into Amboy Bay at the south end of Staten Island. Sloops of 80 tons ascend to New Brunswick, 17 miles.

Passaic River rises in the northern part of the state; and flowing south, falls into Newark Bay. It is navigable ten miles for small vessels. At Patterson, is the cataract, or great falls, where the river descends perpendicularly 70 feet in one entire sheet, presenting a scene of singular grandeur and beauty. The Hackinsack falls into Newark Bay, a little east of the Passaic. It is navigable 15 miles.

Canal.

It has long been in contemplation to open a navigable communication between Philadelphia and New York, by means of a canal from New Brunswick, on the Raritan to Trenton, on the Delaware. A company was incorporated in New Jersey, many years ago, for this purpose, and a survey of the intended route was made, from which the practicability of a canal for sea-vessels was ascertained. The expense is estimated at 800,000 dollars. There has been no effort made as yet to effect this grand object.

Climate.

The climate of New Jersey is nearly the same as the southern part of New York. The southern part, bordering upon the sea-coast and Delaware Bay, is warmer than the northern part, particularly among the mountains, where the climate is nearly similar to Massachusetts or Vermont. Generally the south-east part is temperate, and the northern part has a sharp, pure, and salubrious air—pleasant in summer, but in winter very cold.

Civil Divisions and Population.

The state is divided into thirteen counties, and one hundred and sixteen townships.

Counties.	*Townships.*	*Pop. in* 1810.	*Pop. in* 1820.	*Chief Towns.*
Sussex	15	25,549	32,752	Newtown
Essex	12	25,984	30,793	Newark
Morris	10	21,828	21,368	Morristown
Bergen	7	16,603	18,178	Hackinsack
Hunterdon	10	24,553	28,604	TRENTON
Somerset	7	14,728	16,506	Boundbrook
Middlesex	8	20,381	21,470	New Brunswick
Monmouth	7	22,150	25,038	Freehold
Carried forward,		171,776	194,709	

Counties.	*Townships.*	*Pop. in 1810.*	*Pop. in 1820.*	*Chief Towns.*
Brought forward		171,776	194,709	
Burlington	12	24,979	28,822	Burlington
Gloucester	12	19,744	23,089	Gloucester
Salem	9	12,761	14,022	Salem
Cumberland	8	12,670	12,668	Bridgetown
Cape May	3	3,632	4,265	Cape May, C. H.
		245,562	277,575	

The population of New Jersey, in 1790, was 184,139, and in 1800, 211,149.

Chief Towns.

Trenton, the seat of government, is on Delaware River, at the falls, thirty miles north-east of Philadelphia, and sixty south-west of New York. At the foot of the falls there is an elegant bridge over the Delaware, 1100 feet long and thirty-six feet wide. Steam boats ply regularly between Trenton and Philadelphia.

New Brunswick is on the Raritan, thirty-three miles south-west of New York. Half of the inhabitants are of Dutch origin. Steam boats ply regularly between this city and New York. Princeton is a pleasant village, eleven miles north-east of Trenton, and sixteen south-west of New Brunswick. Newark is pleasantly situated near the west bank of Passaic River, two or three miles from its mouth. In this and the adjoining town of Orange there are valuable quarries of stone for building, and numerous tanneries. Elizabethtown is pleasantly situated on Elizabethtown creek, which empties itself into Staten Island Sound. Vessels of twenty or thirty tons come up to the town, and those of 200 or 300 tons come as far as Elizabethtown Point, at the mouth of the creek two miles distant. A steam boat plies between the city of New York and Elizabethtown Point. Burlington is on Delaware river, opposite Bristol, eleven miles below Trenton. Perth Amboy is on a point of land at the union of Raritan River with Arthur Kull Sound. It has one of the best harbours on the continent.

Manufactures and Commerce.

The principal manufacture is iron, of which large quantities are made. In Trenton, Newark, and Elizabethtown, are many valuable tanneries. Shoes are made in great numbers at Newark. The estimated value of the manufactures of the state in 1810, was 7,054,594 dollars. Almost all the foreign goods consumed in this state are imported at New York and Philadelphia, and the produce of the state is principally carried to those cities for exportation. The exports from this state in 1820, amounted only to 20,531 dollars, and the revenue paid to the United States in 1815, to 18,612 dollars. The amount of shipping in 1816, was 33,211 tons.

Education.

The College of New Jersey, at Princeton, was founded in 1738,

and has always been one of the most respectable and flourishing literary institutions in the country. In 1820 it had a president, who also instructed in the Holy Scriptures, the evidences of divine revelation, moral philosophy, and logic; a vice-president, who was also professor of languages and belles lettres; a professor of mathematics and mechanical philosophy; a professor of chemistry, experimental philosophy, and natural history; three tutors, and 121 students. The college library contains about 8000 volumes; the philosophical apparatus is complete; the cabinet of mineralogy and natural history is valuable. The college edifice is styled Nassau Hall, in honour of the Prince of Orange. The whole number of alumni of the college in 1815 was 1425, of whom 1023 were then living.

A theological seminary was established at Princeton in 1812, under the direction of the general assembly of the Presbyterian church. It has two professors, one of didactic and polemic theology, the other of ecclesiastical history. The edifice for the accommodation of the institution is an elegant stone building, 150 feet by 50, four stories high, and containing rooms for 100 students. The term of study is three years. The number of students in 1821 was seventy-three.

Queen's College was established in New Brunswick by the ministers of the Dutch reformed church, for the education of their clergy, and incorporated in 1770. In 1810, a theological seminary was established in the city by the general synod of the reformed Dutch churches, and, to a certain extent, connected with the college. The exercises of the college have, for some time past, been suspended, and the building appropriated to the accommodation of theological students.

Religion.

The Presbyterians are the most numerous religious denomination. The number of their churches in 1818 was seventy-four; of Dutch Reformed, thirty-one; of Baptists, thirty; of Episcopalians, twenty-four; of Congregationalists, nine. At the same time the Friends had forty-four meeting-houses, and the Methodists were numerous. There are several congregations of Roman Catholics.

Government.

The constitution of New Jersey is one of the oldest in the Union. It was adopted on the second of July, 1776, previous to the declaration of independence, and no other alteration has taken place in it than by substituting the word *state* for the word *colony*. It is remarkably brief, and its provisions few. The government is vested in a governor, a legislative council, and a general assembly. The legislative council and general assembly are elected annually, each county choosing one member to the council and three representatives. All inhabitants "who are worth fifty pounds, proclamation money, clear estate," and have resided within the county

twelve months preceding the election, are entitled to vote. The governor is elected annually by the council and assembly in joint meeting. He acts as president of the council, and has a casting vote in their proceedings. He is also chancellor of the state, and forms, with the council, a court of appeals in all cases of law. The judiciary power is vested in a supreme court, the judges of which are elected by the council and assembly for seven years; in courts of common pleas, and justices of the peace, who are elected for four years.

GOVERNORS, &c.

Under the royal government from the year 1738, when a governor distinct from New York was first appointed.

1738 Lewis Morris.
1746 John Hamilton, *President.*
1746 John Reading, *President.*
1747 Jonathan Belcher.
1757 John Reading, *President.*
1758 Francis Bernard.
1760 Thomas Boone.
1761 Josiah Hardy.
1763 William Temple Franklin.

Under the constitution, chosen annually by the assembly.

1776 William Livingston.
1791 William Patterson.
1794 Richard Howell.
1801 Joseph Bloomfield.
1802 John Lambert, *Vice President* of the council, acted as governor.
1803 Joseph Bloomfield.
1812 Aaron Ogden.
1813 William S. Pennington.
1815 Mahlon Dickerson.
1817 Isaac H. Williamson, to 1822.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

The period at which the first European settlements were made in the territory now composing the state of New Jersey, is not clearly ascertained. Detached bodies of the Dutch, from New York, planted themselves in the western part, while in the eastern portion of the state, bordering on the Delaware, small bodies of Swedes were settled. The Dutch claimed the whole country, from the Connecticut to the Delaware, and protested against the occupation of any part of it by the Swedes. Without regard to the validity of their title, Charles II., in 1664, granted to his brother, the Duke of York, a patent for the precise country claimed by the Dutch, including the territory between the Hudson and the Delaware. In the same year the Duke of York sold this district, which then, for the first time, received the name of New Jersey, to Lord Berkely and Sir George Carteret. To encourage emigration, the new proprietors offered liberal privileges to settlers; and it ought to be recorded to their honour, that they established it as a fundamental rule, that all vacant land should be purchased from the natives. Eighty acres were offered to each settler, under a quit-rent of a penny an acre, to commence at a future period. The important privilege of self-government was accorded to the inhabitants, the proprietors declaring, that all

laws should be made by the representatives of the people, but reserving to themselves the executive power. Thus wisely constituted, the settlement of Jersey soon advanced with rapidity. Philip Carteret was the first governor, and under his administration the system of the proprietors was strictly pursued with respect to the Indians. The consequences were highly favourable to the prosperity of the colony. Hostilities with this people, from which many of the other provinces suffered so severely, were scarcely known. New Jersey continued to thrive under the prudent management of the proprietors until 1673, when the Dutch having re-conquered New York, extended their power again over this province. Their government, however, was brief; for, on the conclusion of peace between England and Holland, two years afterwards, the whole country was restored to the former power. The Duke of York now obtained from Charles II. a confirmation of his former patent; and considering his former grant of New Jersey annulled, he claimed jurisdiction over all the country comprised in the patent, appointed Sir Edmund Andros governor of his territories, from the Connecticut to the Delaware, and, uniting with him a council, gave them the whole powers of government, legislative and executive. This fit agent of tyrannical measures arrived in America in November, 1674, and proceeded to the exercise of his functions. In the same year, Lord Berkely assigned his undivided half of New Jersey to the celebrated William Penn and three others. Perceiving the disadvantages of joint ownership, they came to an agreement with Carteret, by which the province was divided into two parts. Carteret received East Jersey, and gave in return to William Penn and his associates, a release of the western part of the province. The Duke of York had given up his claim as far as respected East Jersey to Carteret, but retained West Jersey as a part of his government, and an appendage of New York. Hence arose constant conflicts of jurisdiction, and an uncertainty respecting titles, which harassed the inhabitants, and finally ended in the destruction of the proprietary government. On the one hand, Carteret endeavoured to participate in commercial advantages, by establishing a port at Amboy; but Andros, who feared lest the commerce of New York might be injured, seized and condemned all vessels trading thither, and was supported by the Duke of York. The governor and council of New York claimed also the right of imposing taxes on New Jersey, and extended their jurisdiction on all occasions. The proprietors of West Jersey had, in the mean time, been earnest in their remonstrances and petitions to the Duke of York; and the question was at length referred to Sir William Jones, an eminent lawyer, who decided in favour of the proprietary rights, and against the legality of the taxes. Thus, having high legal opinion against him, the Duke could no longer avoid doing justice; and accordingly, in 1680, he conveyed West

Jersey to the proprietors. About this time the province received a considerable accession of inhabitants by the arrival of a number of Quakers, who principally settled in the neighbourhood of the present towns of Burlington and Salem, which they built.

In 1682, Carteret, who had involved himself in an unpleasant dispute with the assembly, transferred his interest in the province to William Penn, and eleven other persons of the sect of Quakers. These immediately conveyed one half of the province to a company of Scotsmen, at the head of whom was the Earl of Perth. In 1683, the Scotch proprietors obtained a patent of confirmation from the Duke of York. After this event many emigrants arrived from Scotland. The first governor of East Jersey, under the proprietors, was Robert Barclay, the celebrated author of the apology for the Quaker belief, who was appointed to the office for life. Notwithstanding the grant of the Duke of York, and the decision of Sir William Jones, the government of New York still claimed a jurisdiction over East Jersey, and attempted to levy the same taxes upon it as in its own province. Complaint was made in England, but no redress was obtained. After the accession of the Duke of York to the English throne, a writ of *quo warranto* was directed to issue against the proprietors, who, finding there was no other resource, endeavoured to save what they could by voluntary submission, and made a formal surrender of their patent, praying only for a grant of the soil. It was intended by James II. that the whole province, together with that of New York, should be united with New England in an arbitrary government, and arrangements were making to carry the design into execution, when the revolution of 1688 fortunately put an end to his power. For several years after this period the province suffered greatly from the want of an efficient government; each division having different proprietors, whose views were opposite. Confusion arose in titles and jurisdiction, and discord prevailed between the governors and the assemblies. In this state of things the proprietors of both parts surrendered, in 1702, their rights of government to Queen Anne.

New Jersey was now again united into one province, and a more regular and harmonious system of administration prevailed. Lord Cornbury, cousin to the queen, was the first royal governor. He was also governor of New York, and abused his functions in both provinces. On the complaint of the New York assembly, the queen removed him from office. From this period to the epoch of the American revolution, New Jersey was not the scene of any memorable event. Its population and prosperity rapidly augmented under an orderly and prudent administration of affairs. From its connexion with England, however, the province became involved in the wars of that country, and, though remote from the scene of action, we find her contributing, on several occasions, to the expeditions undertaken for the conquest of the French posses-

sions. In 1709, the assembly passed laws for emitting 9000*l.* in bills of credit for the aid of the government, and for the encouragement of volunteers to join the forces destined for Canada. This was the first paper money emitted in New Jersey, and its credit was so well supported by the government, that no depreciation took place. In 1738, on the petition of the colony for a separate governor, Lewis Morris was appointed to the office by the crown. Previously to this, the affairs of the province had been administered by the governor of New York. The last royal governor of New Jersey, was William Temple Franklin, a son of the celebrated Benjamin Franklin.

The attempts of the British government to impose an arbitrary authority over her colonies, met with as warm opposition in New Jersey, as in any other province. Deputies were sent to the congress which convened at Philadelphia, on the occasion of the Stamp Act, and to all the subsequent assemblies. During the contest which ensued, New Jersey was the seat of hostilities for a great length of time. Her losses of men and property are said to have been greater in proportion, than those of any other state. Trenton, her capital, is rendered memorable by the surprise of the Hessian troops stationed there, and their surrender to General Washington, an event of signal importance to the common cause of the republic. At Princeton, the enemy received another check, which, united with their defeat at Trenton, obliged them to retire into winter quarters, and Monmouth, together with many other places in this state, have become classic ground from similar causes. The conduct of the British army during its different campaigns and incursions, excited a warm feeling of indignation in the inhabitants, which prompted them to repair to the standard of Washington. When the blessings of peace were again restored to the United States, New Jersey soon recovered its former prosperity, and the usual accompaniment of prosperity, a barrenness of striking events, attends her history from that period. The federal constitution of 1787, was adopted, unanimously, by the convention of this state, which has, on all occasions, performed its duties, and preserved its rights as a member of the Union.

Places remarkable for Battles, Sieges, &c.

1776, Trenton. Part of the British army surprised and captured by Washington, Dec. 26.—*Hunterdon.*

1777, Princeton. The British defeated by Washington, Jan. 3. —*Middlesex.*

Millstone. A body of British troops defeated by general Dickinson, Jan. 20.—*Somerset.*

Red Bank. The British assault the fort, but are defeated with great loss, Oct. 22.—*Gloucester.*

1778, Monmouth. The British defeated by Washington, June 25.—*Monmouth.*

1779, Paulus Hook. The British post surprised, and the garrison made prisoners, July 19.—*Essex.*

1780, Springfield. Indecisive action with the British, June 23. —*Essex.*

PENNSYLVANIA.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

PENNSYLVANIA is situated between 39° 43′ and 42° 17′ N. lat. and 2° 18′ east, and 3° 31′ W. long. It is bounded north by New York; east by New Jersey; south-east by Delaware; south by Maryland and Virginia; and west by part of Virginia and Ohio. Its mean length, from east to west, is 280 miles, and its mean breadth 157. Its area is 43,950 square miles, or 28,280,000 acres.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

The Alleghany Mountains run across the state from south-west to north-east, and there are many smaller ranges on each side of the principal ridge, and parallel with it. These mountainous tracts cover nearly all the central parts of the state. In the south-east and north-west, the country is either level or moderately hilly. A great portion of the state is good land, and much of it excellent. The richest tract is in the south-east, on both sides of the Susquehannah, extending from the Blue Ridge to the Delaware. This part of the state has long been settled, is highly cultivated, and supports a greater population per square mile than any other equal space in the United States. The tract between Lake Erie and Alleghany River has also a very superior soil, but is as yet very thinly inhabited.

Wheat is by far the most important agricultural production, and grows here to great perfection; the flour made from it has the highest character. The next in value is Indian corn. Rye, barley, buckwheat, oats, hemp, and flax, are also extensively cultivated. The most important minerals are iron and coal, the former of which is found in almost all the counties of the state: the latter is of two kinds, the bituminous, which abounds near Pittsburg, and in several of the counties adjoining; and the anthracite, which is also abundant at the sources of the Schuylkill and Lehigh, throughout the mountainous districts which extend from those waters to the Susquehannah.

Rivers.

The Delaware is the eastern boundary. The Lehigh falls into the Delaware at Easton, after a course of 75 miles. The Schuyl-

kill rises in Schuylkill county, and after a south-east course of 120 miles, falls into the Delaware, opposite Mud Island, six or seven miles below Philadelphia. There are falls five miles above Philadelphia, and rapids in other parts of the river; but improvements are now making, which will render it navigable nearly to its source.

The Susquehannah is formed by the union of two principal branches, the eastern and western; the eastern branch rises in Otsego Lake, New York, and running south-west, receives the Tioga near the Pennsylvania boundary. It then flows first south-east and then south-west, till it receives the western branch at Northumberland, after which the course of the river is first south, and then south-east, till it falls into the head of Chesapeake Bay, near the north-east corner of Maryland. During the last 50 miles of its course, the navigation of the river is obstructed by an almost continued series of rapids; but further up, to the union of the two branches, there is no obstruction which cannot be surmounted at a moderate expense; the navigation of the river is good for export trade, and immense quantities of lumber, in the form of boards, scantling, shingles, &c., continually descend it to Baltimore.

Alleghany River rises in Pennsylvania, and runs first north-west into New York, and then by a bend to the south-west again enters Pennsylvania, and at Pittsburg, uniting with the Monongahela, forms the Ohio. It is a steady stream, and navigable for keel boats of 10 tons to Hamilton, 260 miles above Pittsburg.

The Monongahela rises at the foot of the Laurel Mountains in Virginia, and joins the Alleghany after a course of 300 miles. It is navigable for large boats 60 miles, to Brownsville: small boats proceed to Tygart's valley, 200 miles from the mouth of the river.

Climate.

Situated between the northern and eastern states on the one side, and the southern states on the other, Pennsylvania has what may be termed the middle climate. The south-east part, in which Philadelphia is situated, has a favourable climate, although it is very changeable, particularly in the spring, and both heat and cold prevail to great extremes. Among the mountains, and along the northern parts of the state, the climate is more settled, but much colder, particularly in the winter season. To the west of the Alleghany Mountains the weather is generally milder than to the eastward, owing principally to the prevalence of the south-east winds. In 1820, the average heat at Philadelphia was 53° 7′, while at Pittsburg the same year it was 54° 2′. The highest point of the thermometer at Philadelphia in the month of July was 98°, and the lowest in January 6°. At Pittsburg, the highest in July was 92° and the lowest in January 10°. The winters at Philadelphia commence about the middle of December, and continue till about the middle

of March: the spring succeeds, and lasts until about the first of May, but is very variable: summer weather lasts from about the first of May to the first of September, and is usually pleasant, although the heat is often very great: the autumnal months are generally serene and beautiful. The state is very healthy, and the climate favourable for agricultural and gardening purposes.

Chief Towns.

Philadelphia is regularly laid out on the narrowest part of the peninsula included between the Delaware and Schuylkill Rivers, five miles above their confluence. The streets are broad, well paved, and well lighted; and its provision-market is unrivalled in America. The houses are generally constructed of brick, three stories high, plain and neat, but without much ornament. Several of the public buildings are superb structures. The literary and benevolent institutions are very numerous and respectable.

Philadelphia is the first city in the United States, in the variety, extent, and excellence, of its manufactures. Its commerce, also, is very extensive. In amount of shipping, it is the third city in the union; the number of tons in 1820 being 83,225. It imports foreign goods for the greater part of Pennsylvania, for Delaware, and half of New Jersey, and is contending with New York, New Orleans, and Baltimore, for the supply of the western states. The population of the city and liberties in 1790 was 43,525; in 1810, 92,866; and in 1820, 114,410: of the city and county, 137,097.

Pittsburg, in the western part of the state, is very advantageously situated on a plain, between the Alleghany and Monongahela Rivers, at the point where they unite to form the Ohio. By means of Alleghany River and its branches, Pittsburg has a water communication with the western part of New York; by the Monongahela and a good turnpike-road, it is connected with Baltimore; and by the Ohio, it has an easy intercourse with the western states. It is, also, connected with Philadelphia by an excellent turnpike-road. These advantages have made Pittsburg the centre of a great commerce; and it is estimated that merchandise to the value of 20,000,000 dollars annually passes through the city. The immense supply of coal in the neighbouring country has given rise to numerous and extensive manufacturing establishments. Population in 1820, 7248.

Harrisburg, the seat of government, is regularly laid out on the east bank of Susquehannah River, 97 miles west-north-west of Philadelphia.

Lancaster, 62 miles west of Philadelphia, is advantageously situated in the midst of a fertile and highly-cultivated country.

Easton is pleasantly situated on the Delaware, at the mouth of the Lehigh, 56 miles north of Philadelphia.

Reading is a flourishing town on the Schuylkill, 51 miles north-

west of Philadelphia, inhabited chiefly by Germans, and is famous for the manufacture of hats.

Wilkesbarre is on the south-east side of the Susquehannah, 119 miles north-west of Philadelphia.

Canonsburg, the seat of Jefferson College, is 18 miles south-west of Pittsburg.

Meadville, the seat of Alleghany College, is in the north-west part of the state, on French Creek, about 40 miles from Lake Erie.

Carlisle is 16 miles west of Harrisburg.

Bethlehem, a Moravian settlement, is on the Lehigh, 12 miles south-west of Easton, and 53 north of Philadelphia.

Roads and Canals.

There are good turnpike-roads leading from Philadelphia in various directions. The principal is from Philadelphia, through Lancaster to Pittsburg. A diagonal road across the state, from Philadelphia to the town of Erie, on Lake Erie, is considerably advanced; and a road from Philadelphia through the eastern counties towards Sacket's Harbour, on Lake Ontario, is executed to the line of New York. The legislature has appropriated, at different times, large sums for internal improvements. A canal is now in progress to connect the Schuylkill, just above Reading, with the Susquehannah at Middletown.

Civil Divisions and Population.

Counties.	*Whites.*	*Free-coloured.*	*Slaves.*	*All others.*	*Total.*
Adams . . .	18,741	606	23	0	19,370
Alleghany . . .	34,226	694	1	0	34,921
Armstrong . .	10,282	42	0	0	10,324
Beaver . . .	15,234	101	5	0	15,340
Bedford . .	19,902	341	5	0	20,248
Berks	45,797	477	1	0	46,275
Bradford . .	11,519	35	0	0	11,554
Bucks	36,558	1282	2	0	37,842
Butler . . .	10,180	13	0	0	10,193
Cambria . . .	3,267	20	0	0	3,287
Centre , . .	13,676	120	0	0	13,796
Chester . . .	41,710	2734	7	0	44,451
Clearfield . .	2,307	35	0	0	2,342
Columbia . . .	17,558	63	0	0	17,621
Crawford . .	9,356	41	0	0	9,397
Cumberland . .	22,861	728	17	0	23,606
Dauphin . .	21,147	497	9	0	21,653
Delaware . . .	13,701	1108	1	0	13,701
Erie	8,469	83	1	0	8,553
Fayette . . .	26,385	859	41	0	27,285
Franklin . . .	30,326	1547	19	0	31,892
Carried forward	413,202	11,426	132	0	423,631

Counties.	*Whites.*	*Free-coloured.*	*Slaves.*	*All others.*	*Total.*
Brought forward	413,202	11,426	132	0	423,651
Greene . . .	15,293	254	7	0	15,554
Huntingdon . .	19,866	268	5	3	20,142
Indiana . . .	8,821	61	0	0	8,882
Jefferson . . .	551	10	0	0	561
Lancaster . .	65,748	2206	21	361	68,336
Lebanon - . .	16,868	103	4	13	16,988
Lehigh . . .	18,846	49	0	0	18,895
Luzerne . . .	19,914	112	1	0	20,027
Lycoming . .	13,375	139	3	0	13,517
M'Kean . . .	727	1	0	0	728
Mercer . . .	11,590	90	1	0	11,681
Mifflin	16,441	172	5	0	16,618
Montgomery .	34,916	874	3	0	35,793
Northampton . .	31,565	200	0	0	31,765
Northumberland	15,310	113	1	0	15,424
Perry	11,216	67	1	58	11,342
Philadelphia, city and suburbs	102,209	10,991	3	1207	114,410
County, exclusive of the city . .	21,280	1,150	4	253	22,687
Potter . .	185	1	0	0	186
Pike . . .	2,859	50	1	4	2,894
Schuylkill . .	11,216	95	0	28	11,339
Somerset . .	13,888	86	0	0	13,974
Susquehannah .	9,910	50	0	0	9,960
Tioga . . .	4004	17	0	0	4,021
Union . . .	18,545	71	3	0	18,619
Venango . . .	4,887	28	0	0	4,915
Warren . - .	1,975	1	0	0	1,976
Washington . -	39,291	742	5	0	40,038
Wayne . . .	4,111	16	0	0	4,127
Westmoreland .	30,288	247	5	0	30,540
York	37,960	781	6	12	38,759
Total	1,026,837	30,471	211	1939	1,048,349

The population in 1790 was 434,373; in 1800, 602,545; in 1810, 810,091; and in 1820, 1,049,458. The great mass of the population is in the southern half of the state, and particularly in the south-east, near the banks of the Susquehannah and Delaware Rivers. The inhabitants are of many different nations. About one-third are of English origin; one-fourth, German; and a third, Irish. The remainder are descendants of Scotch, Welsh, Swedes, and Dutch. The language commonly spoken is the English: but the Germans often retain their own language, and some of them cannot speak English.

Out of eighty-four newspapers published in this state, fifteen are in the German language.

Manufactures.

In value and variety of manufactures, Pennsylvania is the first state in the union. The numerous rivers abounding with fine mill seats, and the inexhaustible stores of coal in the eastern and western parts of the state, afford uncommon advantages for manufacturing establishments. In 1816, there were more than 5000 improved mill seats in this state, and the value of the manufactures in 1810, was 33,691,111 dollars.

Commerce.

Most of the foreign goods consumed in this state, Delaware, and the western part of New Jersey, are imported at Philadelphia. Goods to the amount of many millions of dollars are annually transported from Philadelphia to Pittsburg, and thence distributed through the western country. In 1815, the amount of revenue paid by this state into the national treasury, was 7,142,393 dollars, an amount greater than that of any state except New York. The value of exports from this state in 1820, was 5,743,549 dollars, of which 2,794,670 dollars was foreign produce.

Education.

The University of Pennsylvania, established in Philadelphia, is a very respectable institution, embracing the four departments of arts, medicine, natural science, and law, in each of which lectures are given. There are four professors in the department of arts, five in that of natural science, one in the law department, and seven in the medical department. The latter is one of the most flourishing institutions of the kind in the world, and usually affords instruction to about 450 students from various parts of the United States.

Jefferson College, of Canonsburg, was established in 1802. It has a president, two professors, a library of about 1000 volumes, a philosophical apparatus, and about 90 students.

Washington College, at Washington, 26 miles south-west of Pittsburg, had, in 1817, a president, two professors, a library, and a philosophical apparatus.

Alleghany College, at Meadville, was founded in 1815.

Dickinson College, at Carlisle, was, for a considerable time, in a state of decay, but is at present gaining ground, and promises fair to resume its former usefulness.

Franklin College, at Lancaster, is not now in operation. The Moravians have flourishing schools at Bethlehem and Nazareth.

Religion.

There are many different denominations of Christians in Pennsylvania. A few years since, the Presbyterians, German Cal-

vinists, German Lutherans, Friends, and Baptists, had each nearly 100 congregations. Besides these, there are Methodists, Episcopalians, Roman Catholics, Scotch Presbyterians, Moravians, Jews, &c.

Government.

The present constitution of Pennsylvania was adopted by a convention held at Philadelphia, in 1790; the legislative power is vested in a senate and a house of representatives; the number of senators cannot be less than one-fourth, nor greater than one-third, of the number of representatives; they hold their offices four years, and one-fourth are elected every year; they are elected by districts in proportion to the population. Each senator must have attained the age of 25 years, and have been a citizen and inhabitant of the state four years next before his election. The number of representatives can never be less than 60, nor more than 100. They are chosen annually by the respective counties, and by the city of Philadelphia, according to the number of taxable inhabitants. Each representative must have attained the age of 21, and have been a citizen and inhabitant of the state at least three years before his election. The legislature meets in the month of December in each year. The executive power is vested in a governor, who is chosen triennially by the people, and cannot hold his office longer than nine in any term of twelve years; he must be 30 years of age, and have been a citizen and inhabitant of the state seven years next before his election. He has a qualified veto on the proceedings of the legislature, two-thirds of each house being necessary to pass any law, of which he has signified his disapprobation, in the manner pointed out by the constitution. He has the exclusive appointment of most of the officers in the state. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court; in courts of oyer and terminer; and in a court of common pleas; an orphan's court, a register's court, and a court of quarter sessions for each county; and in such other courts as the legislature may from time to time establish. The judges of the supreme court, and of the common pleas, hold their offices during good behaviour. The right of suffrage is vested in every freeman of the age of 21, who has resided in the state two years, and within that time paid a state or county tax, which has been assessed at least six months before the election.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

William Penn, the illustrious founder of Pennsylvania, was the son of Sir William Penn, a British admiral, who, in the year 1655, rendered very important services to the nation by the conquest of

Jamaica from the Spaniards, and by a naval victory over the Dutch. At an early period of his life, the son, to the great mortification of the admiral, joined the sect of Quakers; to whom persecutions had about that period began to attract the public attention. For this he underwent a portion of their sufferings, having been repeatedly imprisoned for preaching to the people. The intolerance manifested by the magistrates and the majority of the people, (for the king appears to have been disposed to lenity,) induced William Penn to turn his attention to America. He and some others purchased a large quantity of lands in New Jersey; but being dissatisfied with his partners in the concern, he formed a design of acquiring a separate estate. The crown was indebted to his father's executors in a sum of about 16,000*l.*, and as an acquittance for this a large tract was granted to him in severalty. His charter conveyed to him, under the name of Pennsylvania, all that tract of country bounded on the east by the river Delaware, extending westward five degrees of longitude, stretching to the north from twelve miles northward of New Castle to the forty-third degree of latitude*, and limited on the south by a circle of twelve miles drawn round New Castle of the beginning of the 40th degree of latitude. From the want of sufficient attention to former charters, this grant interfered both with that of Maryland on the south, and with the claims of Connecticut on the east; and hence arose contentions with regard to boundaries, which were not settled till a century afterwards.

In May 1681, the proprietary sent over Markham with a few others to take possession of the territory, and prepare for the settlement. In July he sold twenty thousand acres to a company formed of merchants and other persons, at the rate of twenty pounds for every thousand acres; and entered into articles of agreement with them, entitled "conditions and concessions." In the following year, Penn published his frame of government, by which the supreme power was to be vested in the governor and a general assembly, consisting at first in the whole body of the people, and afterwards in a house of delegates. A provincial council was established, consisting of seventy-two persons, to be chosen by the freemen. The governor, possessed of three votes, presided in this council, which prepared and digested all laws, leaving to the people the mere right of affirming or rejecting. This frame of government was, after a short time, laid aside; and another, resembling those established in the other provinces, was adopted. In October, 1682, Penn, accompanied by about two thousand settlers, mostly friends, arrived at New Castle on the Delaware. He had previously obtained from the Duke of York a conveyance of the land at present included in the state of Delaware. His

* The forty-third degree of latitude mentioned in the charter, means the commencement of the forty-third degree, or the forty-second parallel, which is now the northern boundary.

first step was to convoke an assembly, which was held at Upland, (now called Chester,) in December 1682. In a short session of three days, a period in which their descendants would hardly have agreed upon the choice of a speaker, they adopted a constitution modifying that drawn up by Penn in England, and passed several very important laws. Among other provisions that great and admirable principle, to an adherence to which the province owed much of its prosperity, was adopted, "that none, acknowledging one God and living peaceably in society, should be molested for his opinions or practice, or compelled to frequent or maintain any ministry whatsoever." Another principle of Penn's system, equally novel and praise-worthy, regarded the treatment of the Indians. Soon after his arrival he summoned them to a council, and, treating with them on an amicable and equal footing, as men and brethren, obtained from them, in return for valuable presents, a cession of as much land as his exigencies required. The same course was pursued in his subsequent intercourse with them, the treaties were kept inviolate by both parties; and it was seen with surprise by mankind, that kindness and good faith were as useful assistants as the sword in the affairs of a colony. No one of the colonies made such rapid advances in prosperity as Pennsylvania. The salubrity of the climate, and the general fruitfulness of the soil had some influence; but the moral attractions predominated. The persecutions of the Quakers and other secretaries in England, drove thousands to a place where worship was as free as air; and the prospect of enjoying equal rights in civil matters, drew over from the continent of Europe a vast number of industrious and moral emigrants.

The city of Philadelphia was laid out at an early period after the arrival of the first settlers, according to a design which had been prepared by William Penn in England. The second assembly of Pennsylvania was held at this place, in April 1683. Among other important laws adopted, was one which abrogated the common law of England respecting descents, and distributed the estates of persons dying intestate among the children, giving the eldest son, however, a double share. The revolution in England, which took place in 1688, produced some change in the government of Pennsylvania. William Penn was suspected of entertaining unfavourable sentiments towards the house of Orange. He was, therefore, suspended from the privilege of appointing a deputy for his province, and in 1692, Pennsylvania, without any regard to its charter, was annexed to New York; and subjected to the administration of Fletcher, governor of that province. Penn, however, two years after, reinstated himself in the good opinion of the court. He regained his province, and appointed Markham lieutenant-governor. Notwithstanding the pacific disposition of both the governor and the people, and the general concordance of their opinions, Pennsylvania proved

to be no Utopia for the worthy proprietary. Bickerings about the constitution, or the laws, or the manner of disposing of the lands, almost constantly existed. The charter had twice been altered; but the colonists were still discontented. At length, in 1701, Penn gave them a third charter. It provided that the assembly should consist of deputies from each county, and should have the right to originate, amend, or reject all bills; that the governor should nominate his own council; exercise the whole executive power; and have a negative on the proceedings of the assembly. The delegates from Pennsylvania assented to this instrument; but those from the "Three lower counties on the Delaware," as they were called, refused to adopt it, and seceded from the assembly. No adjustment could be made; and from this period the three counties had a distinct assembly, though they were subject to the same governor as Pennsylvania. The constitution thus adopted in Pennsylvania, continued in force until the revolution.

In 1718 William Penn died, at the age of seventy-four. From the period of his undertaking the settlement of Pennsylvania, his life had been an uniform scene of vexation and disquiet. His private fortune had been materially injured by his advances to promote the infant colony, and at one time he was compelled to submit to a temporary deprivation of liberty. He left, however, to his descendants an inheritance of great value; which they enjoyed until the revolution, when the Commonwealth became the possessor; and as an indemnification, granted them an ample sum of money. From the death of Penn to the revolution, the history of Pennsylvania is little more than a narrative of petty quarrels between the proprietary governors and the assembly. The chief subject of dispute arose from the lands of the proprietaries, which they wished to exempt from the taxation to which other lands were liable. The assembly resisted the exemption stoutly, and this disagreement frequently prevented the passage of necessary laws. In 1749 an important treaty was concluded with the Indians of the Six Nations, at Philadelphia, in which, for goods of considerable value, they granted to the proprietary all the lands on the Susquehannah, south as far as the boundary of Pennsylvania, and north to the Endless Mountains, or Kittatinny Hills, now called the Blue Mountains, and since that time the Indian title to the residue of the state has been extinguished.

Notwithstanding that a large portion of her population consisted of Quakers, whose tenets inclined them to submission to existing governments, Pennsylvania opposed the arbitrary measures of the British government which led to the revolution, with as much zeal and ardour as her sister states. The first congress of deputies from the states, and most of the subsequent meetings of the same assembly, were held at Philadelphia; and it was at the same place that the declaration of independence was adopted

and proclaimed. The state was, during a considerable part of the war, the theatre of hostilities. On the declaration of independence, the proprietary government was abrogated, and the people, by their representatives, formed a new constitution. This form of government, like most of those adopted during the crisis of the revolution, was found, after the peace, to be liable to serious objections. Two parties then arose, the republicans and the constitutionalists. The former, who desired a constitution in which the legislative power should be exercised by two branches, and the executive should consist in a single person, finally triumphed in 1790; when a constitution similar to that of the United States was adopted. Under this form of government the state has enjoyed a high degree of prosperity. In 1794, however, an insurrection broke out in four of the western counties, in opposition to the laws of the United States imposing a duty on distilled spirits. Serious consequences were at first threatened; but, by a happy union of firmness and lenity on the part of President Washington, the revolt was quelled. In Northampton county, in 1797, some deluded persons attempted to resist the process of the marshal, but the power of the laws happily triumphed. In 1799 the public offices and the sittings of the legislature, which, from the settlement of the colony, had been held at Philadelphia, were removed from that place to Lancaster; and in 1812 they were transferred from Lancaster to Harrisburg, where public buildings have been erected at an expense which seems to indicate a determination to make that place the permanent seat of government.

GOVERNORS, &c.

Under the Proprietary Government.

1682 William Penn, *Proprietor.*
1684 Thomas Lloyd, *President.*
1688 John Blackwell, *Lieut. Gov.*
1669 *President* and *Council.*
1693 Benjamin Fletcher, *Lieut. Gov.*
1693 William Markham, *Lieut. Gov.*
1699 William Penn.
1701 Andrew Hamilton, *Lieut. Gov.*
1702 *President* and *Council*
1703 John Evans, *Lieut. Gov.*
1708 Charles Gookin, *Lieut. Gov.*
1717 Sir William Keith, *Lieut. Gov.*
1726 Patrick Gordon, *Lieut. Gov.*
1738 George Thomas, *Lieut. Gov.*
1747 Anthony Palmer, *President.*
1748 James Hamilton, *Lieut. Gov.*
1754 R. Hunter Morris, *Lieut. Gov.*
1756 William Denny, *Lieut. Gov.*
1759 James Hamilton, *Lieut. Gov.*
1763 John Penn.
1771 James Hamilton, *President.*
1771 Richard Penn.

Presidents of the Supreme Executive Council under the Constitution of 1777.

1777 Thomas Wharton.
1778 Joseph Reed.
1781 William Moore.
1782 John Dickinson.
1785 Benjamin Franklin.
1788 Thomas Mifflin.

Governors under the Constitution of 1790, *erected triennially by the People.*

1790 Thomas Mifflin.
1799 Thomas M'Kean.
1808 Simon Snyder.
1817 William Findlay.
1120 Joseph Hiester.

Places remarkable for Battles and Sieges.

1755, Braddock's Field: the British army under General Braddock surprised and routed by the Indians. July 9.—*Alleghany.*

1758, Fort Duquesne: captured by the British. November.—*Alleghany.*

1777, Brandywine: the Americans defeated by the British. September 11. *Chester.*

Philadelphia: captured by the British. September 26.—*Philadelphia.*

Germantown: the British posts attacked by the Americans without success. October 4.—*Philadelphia Co.*

Fort Mifflin attacked by the British, and evacuated. Nov. 16.—*Philadelphia Co.*

DELAWARE.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

DELAWARE is situated between 38° 27′ and 39° 50′ north latitude; and 1° 13′ and 1° 57′ east longitude. It is bounded on the north by Pennsylvania; on the east by the Delaware River, Delaware Bay, and Atlantic Ocean; and on the south and west by Maryland. Its length from north to south is 94 miles, and its mean breadth 22; its area is about 2068 square miles, or 1,323,520 acres.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

The northern half of the county of Newcastle is hilly; the rest of the state is generally level and low. Large tracts of land in the spring, and early in the summer, are overspread with stagnant water, which renders them unhealthy, and unfit for agriculture. The height of land, in the Peninsula between Delaware and Chesapeake Bays, commences in Cypress swamp, in the southern part of the state, and preserves a general parallelism with the west coast of Delaware Bay, at the distance of about 15 miles from it. Its progress, in the counties of Sussex and Kent, is marked by a chain of swamps, from which the waters descend on each side to the Delaware and Chesapeake. The height of the ridge between Elk River and Christiana Creek is 74 feet; the soil along the coast, and from eight to ten miles into the interior, is generally a rich clay, producing large timber, and well adapted to the various purposes of agriculture. Thence to the swamps above-men-

tioned, the soil is light, sandy, and of an inferior quality. The county of Sussex possesses excellent grazing lands. The principal productions of this state are wheat of a very superior quality, Indian corn, rye, oats, &c.

Rivers.

The principal streams are Brandywine and Christiana Creeks, which unite in the northern part of the state, and fall into Delaware River. They afford an uncommon number of excellent seats for mills and manufacturing establishments. Christiana Creek is navigable to Christiana Bridge, 13 miles. The names of the creeks which fall into Delaware Bay and the Ocean, are Appoquinimink, Duck Creek, Jones's River, Mispillion, Broadkill, and Indian River, The Nanticoke rises in the south-west part of the state, and flows into Maryland.

Climate.

The climate of Delaware is nearly assimilated to that of South Jersey. The summer weather is much like that of Pennsylvania; but the proximity to the Ocean and Chesapeake Bay renders the winters more mild and moist, particularly in the lower part of the state.

Civil Divisions and Population.

Delaware is divided into three counties, which are subdivided into hundreds, as follows:—

I. NEWCASTLE COUNTY.

	Population in 1820.
Brandywine hundred	2796
Borough of Wilmington	5268
Christiana hundred	3087
Newcastle hundred	2671
Mill Creek hundred	3046
White Clay Creek hundred	1904
Red Lion hundred	929
Pencader hundred	1876
St. George's hundred	2934
Appoquinimink hundred	3388
Total of Newcastle county	27,899

II. KENT COUNTY.

Duck Creek hundred	3951
St. Jones hundred	1590
Little Creek hundred	1963
Murderhill hundred	7558
Mispillion hundred	5731
Total of Kent county,	20,793

III. SUSSEX COUNTY.

	Population in 1820.
Cedar Creek hundred	2280
Broad Kiln hundred	2731
Lewes and Rehoboth hundred	1657
Indian River hundred	1887
Nanticoke hundred	2335
North-west Fork hundred	3456
Baltimore hundred	2057
Dagsborough hundred	2204
Broad Creek hundred	2599
Little Creek hundred	2851
Total of Sussex county,	24,057
Grand total,	72,749

The following table shows the population of Delaware at each of the four national enumerations:—

	1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	*Increase in 30 years.*	*Rate of increase.*
Whites	46,308	49,852	55,361	55,282	8,974	19 per cent.
Slaves	8,887	6,143	4,177	4,509		
Free blacks	3,899	8,278	13,136	12,958	9,059	232 per cent.
Total	59,094	64,273	72,674	72,749	13,645	23 per cent.

Chief Towns.

Wilmington, the largest town in the state, is situated between Brandywine and Christiana Creeks, about a mile above their confluence. The principal part of the town is regularly laid out on the south-west side of a hill, which rises 109 feet above the tide. On the north-east side of the same hill, at a village on the Brandywine, which forms a beautiful appendage to the town, is the finest collection of flour-mills in the United States. The Christiana admits vessels drawing 14 feet of water to the town, and those drawing eight feet can ascend eight miles further. The Brandywine has seven feet of water to the mills. The population of Wilmington, in 1820, was 5268. Dover, the seat of government, is on Jones's Creek, about five miles from its mouth, in Delaware Bay, and 48 south of Wilmington. Newcastle, on Delaware River, a few miles south of Wilmington, carries on a considerable trade with Philadelphia. Lewistown is on Lewis Creek, three miles from its entrance into Delaware Bay, and a short distance west of Cape Henlopen. Extensive salt works have lately been erected at this place.

Canal.

A company was incorporated many years since, by the states of Delaware and Maryland, for opening a communication between

Delaware Bay and the Chesapeake, by means of a canal from Christiana Creek to Elk River. It is intended for vessels of 70 tons, and when completed will be 22 miles long. The expense is estimated at 850,000 dollars.

Manufactures and Commerce.

Wilmington is the centre of one of the most important manufacturing districts in the United States. In 1815, there were, within nine miles of the town, 44 flour-mills, 13 cotton manufactories, 15 saw-mills, six woollen manufactories, six gunpowder mills, besides various others. The value of the manufactures, in 1810, was 1,733,744. The value of the exports in 1820, was 39,498; the amount of shipping in 1815, was 9590 tons.

Religion.

Presbyterians are the most numerous religious denomination. Several years since, they had 24 congregations; the Episcopalians 14; Friends eight; Baptists seven; and the Methodists were, and still continue, numerous in the two southern counties.

Government.

Shortly after the declaration of independence, a constitution was formed by the people of Delaware; but being found defective in practice, a new frame of government was adopted in the year 1792. The powers of administration are, as in the other constitutions, distributed into three distinct departments, the executive, legislative, and judicial. The first are vested in a governor, who is elected triennially by the people, and is ineligible longer than for three years, in any term of six years. He appoints to all offices, the appointments to which are not provided for by the constitution, and has power to reprieve and pardon, except in cases of impeachments. The legislative power is exercised by a senate and house of representatives; the first being elected triennially, the last annually. Each county sends seven representatives and three senators. The house of representatives has the sole power of impeaching, and all impeachments are tried by the senate. The governor and all civil officers are liable to impeachment. All elections of governor, senators, and representatives, are by ballot; and every white freeman of the age of 21 years, who has resided in the state two years next before the election, and within that time paid a state or county tax, is entitled to vote. The judicial power of the state is vested in a court of chancery, a supreme court, and courts of oyer and terminer, in a court of common pleas, an orphan's court, a register's court, and a court of quarter sessions for each county, in justices of the peace, and in such other courts as the legislature, two thirds concurring, may from time to time establish. The chancellor and the judges of the supreme court and of the common pleas, hold their

offices during good behaviour. Besides these courts there is a "high court of error and appeals," composed of the chancellor, and the judges of the supreme court and common pleas. Writs of error issue from this tribunal to the supreme court and common pleas, and appeals are heard from interlocutory or final orders on decrees of the chancellor. Whenever two thirds of each house deem it necessary to propose amendments to the constitution, the assembly may, with the approbation of the governor, publish them in print, at least three months before the next election of representatives, and if three fourths of each branch, after such election, ratify such amendments, they become valid as parts of the constitution. Provision is also made for calling a general convention.

GOVERNORS, &c.

From the year 1682 to 1701, Delaware was under the same executive and legislative government with Pennsylvania. In 1701, the representatives of Delaware withdrew from the assembly of Pennsylvania, and the legislative body has since continued distinct. The same governor, however, presided over both provinces until the 4th of July, 1776. In September of that year, a constitution was formed for "the State of Delaware," as it was then, for the first time, called. The executive authority was vested in a president and privy council, consisting of four members; the presidents under this constitution were:

1777 John M'Kinley.
1778 Cæsar Rodney.
1782 John Dickinson.
1783 John Cook, speaker of the council, acted as president, until the election of
1783 Nicholas Vandyke.
1786 Thomas Collins.
1789 John Davis, speaker of the house of assembly, acted as president on the death of Thomas Collins, and of the speaker of the council.
1789 Joshua Clayton.

In 1792, a new constitution was formed, by which the executive power was vested in a GOVERNOR.

1793 Joshua Clayton.
1796 Gunning Bedford.
1797 Daniel Rogers, speaker of the senate, acted as governor, on the death of Governor Bedford.
1798 Richard Bassett.
1801 James Sykes, speaker of the senate, acted as governor, on the resignation of Governor Bassett.
1802 David Hall.
1804 Nathaniel Mitchell.
1808 George Truett.
1811 Joseph Haslet.
1814 Daniel Rodney.
1817 John Clarke.
1820 Jacob Stout, speaker of the senate, acted as governor, on the resignation of Governor Clarke.
1821 John Collins.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

THE first European settlers in the territory which now composes the state of Delaware, were Swedes and Fins. The region from which they emigrated, after having, in the early ages of the Christian era, covered Europe with its superabundant population, has contributed remarkably little to the settlement of America. Originally few in number, and successively reduced by the Dutch and English, the adventurers from the northern hive have left scanty memorials of their existence as a distinct colony. The year 1627 was the epoch of the earliest permanent settlement in this province; the Bay of Delaware had been previously visited by trading vessels from the north of Europe, whose reports of the fertility and beauty of the country, excited, in the breast of Gustavus Adolphus, a desire to form a colony of his subjects there. Accordingly, in 1626, an association, composed of many of the nobility and the principal officers of government, together with persons of both classes, was formed for this purpose, and denominated the West India Company. In the succeeding year, they despatched a body of settlers to the scene of the intended colony. The emigrants landed at the southern cape of the Delaware, now called Cape Henlopen, but which received from them the name of Point Paradise. To the country on both sides of the Delaware, they gave the appellation of Nova Suecia. An amicable intercourse was opened with the Indians, and by voluntary cession from the people, the new comers extended their acquisitions to a considerable distance up the river. In 1630, a fort was built at Hoarkill, now called Lewistown; and in the succeeding year the Swedes erected another near the present site of Wilmington, on a creek, to which they gave the name of their celebrated queen Christina. Settlements were also formed as high up as Chester and Tinicum, in the present state of Pennsylvania; the occupation of these settlements, however, by this little colony, was not destined to be a tranquil one.

The bay and river upon which the Swedes had planted themselves, were discovered by Hudson, then sailing in the Dutch service, a year previous to the visit of Lord Delaware, from whom they have derived their present name. The Dutch, consequently, laid claim to the country, and included in their pretensions all the territory between the North and South Rivers, the latter being the name they bestowed on the Delaware. They contented themselves, however, with establishing a colony on the North River, and with a few trading settlements on the east bank of the Delaware, until the progress of the Swedes, on the western bank, alarmed them for the validity of their title. A controversy then arose on the subject of right. The Swedes, who had obtained from Charles II. a cession of the British claim, were not disposed

to yield their settlements. Their governor, Printz, however, suffered the Dutch to erect a fort, in 1657, on the spot where Newcastle now stands, by which means they obtained the command of the navigation of the river. Three years afterwards, Governor Risingh, who succeeded Printz, attacked this fort by surprise, and carried it. This produced open hostilities, and, in 1655, the Dutch, under the command of Peter Stuyvesant, governor of New Amsterdam, arrived in the Delaware to the number of 700. Fort Casimir, at Newcastle, was retaken, and shortly afterwards the whole territory submitted. Here ended the Swedish power on the continent of America. The Swedish officers, and most of the principal inhabitants, were taken prisoners and sent to Holland, but the common people were suffered to remain in their possessions, on their submission to the conquerors. The colony was incorporated with that of New Amsterdam, under the general title of the New Netherlands, and the seat of the petty government of the time, was fixed at New Amstel, or Newcastle.

The Dutch had hardly established their power over the Swedes, when they found their title questioned by the English of Maryland. Lord Baltimore, the proprietor of that province, conceiving that his boundary was the fortieth degree of north latitude, sent a commission to Newcastle, ordering the Dutch governor to remove beyond that limit. This command was not obeyed, and a war of manifestoes and proclamations broke out, and was continued without effect for some time. The Dutch power on the Delaware, however, was not of long continuance. In March, 1664, Charles II. granted by patent, to his brother the Duke of York, all that part of the continent of North America lying between the west side of the Connecticut River, and the east side of the Delaware, and prepared an armament to take possession of the country. In September of the same year, the whole of the Dutch possessions on the Hudson were surrendered to the English, under Colonel Nicholls; and in the succeeding month, an expedition under Sir Robert Carr, compelled the settlements on the Delaware to submit to the British arms. Thus, after a short dominion of nine years, was suspended the Dutch authority on the western bank of the Delaware.

The administration of affairs was now committed to the hands of Captain Carr, with whom Colonel Nicholls associated a council of six of the principal persons. Five years afterwards a commission of justice was appointed, with power to try all matters in difference under the sum of ten pounds, but for all controversies above that sum, and all criminal proceedings, the jurisdiction was reserved to the government at New York. The capture of New York, by the Dutch, in 1673, revived their authority for a brief period on the Delaware. Deputies were sent to New York declaring the adhesion of the settlements at New Amstel, and other places, in return for which Anthony Color was appointed gover-

nor by the "honourable and awful council of war of the New Netherlands." The treaty of peace of 1674, however, by which the whole country was restored to the English, put a final period to the Dutch government. In the same year, Charles II. by a new patent, granted to the Duke of York, all the country, called by the Dutch New Netherlands, of which the settlements on the western bank of the Delaware formed a part: and from this period to the year 1682, the territory of the present state was under the jurisdiction of the government of New York.

The original grant to William Penn, made in the year 1680, did not comprehend any territory south of a circle drawn at 12 miles distance from Newcastle, northward; but in 1682, the whole country to Cape Henlopen, was conveyed to him by the Duke of York. The present state of Delaware was then, as now, divided into three counties, Newcastle, Kent, and Sussex; and, from this period to the American revolution, was generally called "the three lower counties upon Delaware." The 24th of October, 1682, will be memorable for the landing of William Penn, at Newcastle, when he proceeded to take possession of the country. Four months afterwards, at an assembly convened at Upland, an act of union was passed, by which the *three lower counties* were annexed to the province of Pennsylvania. The Dutch and Swedes, residing within the limits of the new proprietor's dominions, were naturalized, and appear to have yielded a cheerful obedience to his government. We find them, more especially the latter, occupying public offices in the province as well as the territories.

From 1682 to 1703, the representatives of Delaware and Pennsylvania met in one legislature. The union, however, which subjected both to the same charges, had never been satisfactory to the former. In 1701, a disagreement took place, which required all the authority and influence of the proprietary to subdue. The reconciliation was only a temporary one; and two years afterwards a separation into distinct assemblies took place by mutual consent, and has remained permanent. The same governor, however, presided over both provinces. In 1704, the first local assembly met at Newcastle, and shortly afterwards passed an act for building a fort at that place, and imposing duties on vessels passing it, which was considered an infraction of the charter of Pennsylvania. Serious consequences seemed likely to ensue: but the resolute conduct of some of the merchants of Philadelphia rendered the act nugatory, and, after some ineffectual attempts to enforce it, the project was abandoned. Nothing important is recorded of the history of the *three lower counties*, between the beginning and middle of the 18th century. In 1760, the long contested dispute between the proprietaries of Pennsylvania and Maryland, respecting the boundaries of the counties upon Delaware, was finally settled, and the line which was then agreed upon has since remained undisturbed. In the war which

ended with the surrender of Canada, in 1763, Delaware contributed her full proportion of exertions to co-operate with the parent country, and, as a reimbursement for her extraordinary expenses, the parliament granted her 4000*l.* sterling, a sum quite insufficient for the purpose.

Delaware remained under the government of the proprietary of Pennsylvania, though with a separate legislature, until the year 1775. The dependence was, however, merely nominal, for we find the territory represented as a distinct province in the congress which convened at Philadelphia in 1765, on occasion of the Stamp Act. Its delagates were then Thomas M'Kean and Cæsar Rodney. At length, in April, 1775, Richard Penn, then proprietor of Pennsylvania, resigned his jurisdiction over the lower counties; and in the September of the following year, 1776, the dominion of Great Britain having been thrown off, a convention of representatives, chosen for the purpose, formed a constitution, and the territory, taking the name of Delaware, became a free and independent state. In the revolutionary war, Delaware laboured and suffered greatly. No part of the continent contributed better troops, or was more steadfast in the common cause than this little state. The Delaware regiment was distinguished for its bravery and efficiency among the regular forces.

Delaware was the first state to ratify and adopt the federal constitution of 1787, and the noiseless tenor of its history, subsequent to that period, is sufficient proof of the advantages it has derived from the union, and its own political administration. The only event of importance in its recent annals, is the formation of a new constitution, which took place in 1792.

Places remarkable for Battles, Sieges, &c.

1813, Lewistown. Bombarded unsuccessfully by a British squadron, April 6.—*Sussex.*

MARYLAND.

Situation, Boundaries and Extent.

MARYLAND is situated between 38° and 39° 43′ N. lat. and 1° 58′ E. and 2° W. long. It is bounded north by Pennsylvania; east by Delaware and the Atlantic; south and west by Virginia. Its mean breadth is 119 miles, and its length 91; its area being 10,800 square miles, or 6,912,000 acres. Chesapeake Bay runs through the state from north to south, dividing it into two parts. The part east of the bay is called the eastern shore, and the part west of the bay the western shore.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

In the counties on the eastern shore of the Chesapeake, the land is generally level and low; and in some places covered with stagnant water, giving rise in the summer and fall months to agues and intermittent fevers. On the western shore the land below the lowest falls of the rivers is principally level and free from stones. Above these falls, the country becomes successively uneven and hilly, and, in the western part of the state, is mountainous. The principal range of mountains is the Blue Ridge, or South Mountains, which pass through the state in a northerly direction from Virginia into Pennsylvania, forming the boundary between Frederick and Washington counties. The extreme western part of the state is crossed by the Alleghany Mountains. Between these and the Blue Ridge are several inferior chains, as Will's, Evit's, Warrior, and Ragged Mountains, and Sideling hill. The soil is well adapted to the culture of tobacco and wheat, which are the staple productions of the state. Some cotton of inferior quality is also raised, and in the western counties considerable quantities of flax and hemp are cultivated. Two articles are said to be peculiar to Maryland; the genuine *white* wheat, which grows in Kent, Queen Ann's, and Talbot counties on the eastern shore; and the bright *kite's foot* tobacco, which is produced on some parts of the western shore south of Baltimore. The forests abound with various kinds of nuts used for fattening hogs, which run wild in the woods, and are killed in considerable numbers for exportation. Apples and peaches are abundant, and are raised for distillation. Iron ore abounds in various parts of the state, and coal is found in inexhaustible quantities, and of a superior quality, on the Potomac, in the neighbourhood of Cumberland.

Rivers.

The Potomac rises in the Alleghany Mountains, and during its whole course is the boundary between Maryland and Virginia. It falls into Chesapeake Bay between Point Lookout and Smith's Point, by a mouth seven miles and a-half wide. It is navigable for ships of the greatest burden 300 miles, to the city of Washington, three miles below the head of the tide.

The obstructions to the navigation above the city of Washington are first. Little Falls, three miles above the city, which descend 37 feet, and have been surmounted by a canal two miles and a half long, with three locks.

2. Great Falls, eight miles and a-half further up, around which is a canal one mile long, descending 76 feet by five locks.

3. Seneca Falls, six miles above, descending 10 feet.

4. Shenandoah Falls, 60 miles further up, where the Potomac breaks through the Blue Ridge; and

5. Houre's Falls, five miles above the Shenandoah Falls.

Canals have been dug around all these falls, and the navigation so far improved as to render the river passable for boats to Cumberland, 191 miles above Washington, through the greater part of the year. The whole descent of the Potomac from the mouth of Savage River to Cumberland, a distance of 31 miles, is 445 feet; from Cumberland to the Shenandoah Falls, 130 miles, it is 490 feet; at the Shenandoah, 43 feet in five miles and a-half; from the Shenandoah to Great Falls, 39 feet in 40 miles; between Great Falls and tide water, 143 feet in 12 miles; making the whole descent from the mouth of Savage River to tide water, 1160 feet in a distance of 219 miles.

The principal rivers which fall into Chesapeake Bay from the eastern shore, are Elk River, which is navigable 13 miles to Elkton; Chester River, on which is Chestertown; and Choptank, Nanticoke, Wicomico, and Pocomoke, all of which rise in Delaware, and flow south-west. The following rivers run into Chesapeake Bay from the western shore.

1. The Patuxent, which rises about 30 miles west of Baltimore, and, after a south-east course of more than 100 miles, falls into the bay between Drum and Cedar Points: it is navigable for vessels of 250 tons to Nottingham, 46 miles, and for boats to Queen Ann, 14 miles farther.

2. The Severn, on which Annapolis stands.

3. The Petapsco, which rises in the northern part of the state, and running south-east, falls into the bay between Bodkin and North Points. It is navigable, for vessels drawing 18 feet water, to Baltimore, 14 miles, and for smaller vessels to Elkridge Landing, eight miles further.

Climate.

The climate of the northern part of Maryland is similar to that of the southern part of Pennsylvania. South of Baltimore there is a considerable change, and the climate is more moist and considerably warmer than to the northward. In 1820, the range of the thermometer at Fort Washington, near Washington city, was 78°, and the mean heat was 58° 1′. The lowest was in January, 14°, and the highest in June, 92°. At Annapolis, the observations for the last six months of 1820, showed the mean heat to be about half a degree less at Washington city.

Chief Towns.

Baltimore, the largest city in Maryland, the third in population, and the fourth in commercial importance in the United States, is built round a bay, which sets up from the north side of Patapsco River, and affords a spacious and convenient harbour. The strait which connects this bay with the river is very narrow, scarcely a pistol-shot across, and is well defended by Fort M'Henry. A small river, called Jones's Falls, empties into the north side of the harbour, and divides the city into two parts, called the Town and Fell's Point, which are connected by bridges.

At Fell's Point the water is deep enough for vessels of 5 or 600 tons, but none larger than 200 tons can go up to the city. Baltimore is well situated for commerce. It supplies Maryland, and large portions of Pennsylvania and the western states with foreign goods. In amount of shipping, it is the fourth city in the union. The number of tons in 1820 was 68,674. The growth of the city has been remarkably rapid. In 1765, the population was about 300; in 1790, 13,503; in 1800, 26,514; in 1810, 46,555, of whom 10,343 were blacks; in 1820, 62,627. The amount of shipping in 1790 was only 13,564 tons.

Annapolis, the seat of government, is on the south bank of the Severn, two miles from its mouth. Population about 2000.

Frederickstown, W. S., is a flourishing town on a branch of Monocosy Creek, 42 miles west of Baltimore, and has about 5000 inhabitants. It is in the midst of a fertile country, and transports great quantities of wheat and flour to Baltimore.

Hagerstown is situated in the fertile valley of Conecocheague, on the west bank of Antietam Creek, 27 miles north-west of Fredericktown.

Cumberland is at the head of boat navigation, on the Potomac.

The ports of entry, besides Baltimore and Annapolis, are, St. Mary's, on the Potomac; Nottingham, on the Patuxent; Havre de Grace, at the mouth of the Susquehannah; Chestertown, on Chester River; Oxford, on Treadhaven Creek, which falls into the Choptank, near its mouth; Vienna, on the Nanticoke; and Snowhill, on the Pocomoke. At each of the three last-mentioned places a considerable amount of shipping is owned.

Roads and Canals.

A turnpike has been completed from Baltimore to Cumberland on the Potomac, a distance of 135 miles. From Cumberland to Brownsville, on the Monongahela, in Pennsylvania, there is now completed by the United States a free road of a most excellent construction. The distance is 72 miles, making the whole distance from Baltimore to Brownsville 207 miles. A turnpike extends from Baltimore in a north-west direction 16 miles, to Reister town, and there divides; one branch, turning more to the north, meets the Pennsylvania line in 19 miles; the other, in a west-north-west direction, runs 29 miles in Maryland. A company was incorporated many years since by the states of Delaware and Maryland, for opening a communication between Delaware Bay and the Chesapeake, by means of a canal from Elk River to Christiana Creek. It is intended for vessels of 70 tons, and when completed will be 22 miles long. The expense is estimated at 850,000 dollars. The canals on the Potomac have been noticed.

Religion.

Maryland was originally settled by Roman Catholics, who are still the most numerous denomination of Christians. The other

denominations are Episcopalians, who had, in 1811, thirty churches, and thirty-five clergymen; Baptists, Friends, Presbyterians, &c.

Civil Divisions and Population.

Counties.	*Whites.*	*Free Blacks.*	*Slaves.*	*Total.*
Alleghany	7,664	195	795	8,654
Ann Arundel	13,482	3,382	10,301	27,165
Baltimore City	48,055	10,326	4,357	62,738
Baltimore County	24,580	2,163	6,720	33,463
Calvert	3,721	694	3,658	8,073
Caroline	7,144	1,390	1,574	10,108
Cecil	11,923	1,783	2,342	16,048
Charles	6,514	567	9,419	16,500
Dorchester	10,095	2,496	5,168	17,759
Frederick	31,997	1,777	6,685	40,459
Harford	11,217	1,387	3,320	15,924
Kent	5,315	2,067	4,071	11,453
Montgomery	9,082	922	6,396	16,400
Prince George's	7,925	1,096	11,195	20,216
Queen Ann	7,226	2,138	5,588	14,952
St. Mary's	6,033	894	6,047	12,974
Somerset	10,384	1,954	7,241	19,579
Talbot	7,387	2,234	4,768	14,389
Washington	19,247	627	3,201	23,075
Worcester	11,231	1,638	4,552	17,421
Total	260,222	39,730	107,398	407,350

Manufactures.

The value of the manufactures in 1810 was 11,468,794 dollars.

Commerce.

The principal exports are flour and tobacco. The value of the exports for the year ending September 30, 1820, was 6,609,364, of which 1,927,766 was foreign produce. Maryland, as already observed, is the fourth state in the union in amount of shipping.

Government.

The present constitution of Maryland was established in August, 1776. Its features are somewhat different from the constitutions of other states. The legislature consists of two houses, the senate and a house of delegates. The former is chosen by electors, who are elected by the freemen every fifth year; two from each county, and one from each of the cities of Baltimore and Annapolis. These electors choose by ballot nine senators from the western shore, and six from the eastern, who hold their offices five years, and must be worth each 1000*l*. The delegates are chosen annually, four by each county, without regard to its

opulation, and two from each city. They must be worth each 00*l*. The governor is chosen annually by a joint ballot of the wo houses. At the same time a council of five persons is chosen o assist him. The governor has, singly, very little power. He ıust be worth 5000*l*., of which 1000*l*. must be freehold estate. Ie cannot serve for a longer period than three years successively. The privilege of voting is possessed by all white persons twenty-ne years of age, having resided twelve months within the state, nd six months in the district.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

MARYLAND was the third English colony planted in North America. In 1631, William Clayborne obtained from Charles I. license to trade with those parts of America for which a patent ıad not been already granted. Availing himself of this permission, ıe planted a small colony on Kent Island, nearly opposite to he present town of Annapolis. About the same time, George Calvert, Lord Baltimore, an eminent statesman, who had been ecretary to James I., and a professor of the Roman Catholic eligion, made a voyage to Virginia, with a view to form a settle-nent of persons of the same religious persuasion, whom the into-erant policy of the prevailing party in England forbade to enjoy ranquillity at home. His wishes were, however, counteracted in Virginia, and he was destined to be the founder of an independent colony. Meeting with an unwelcome reception in Virginia, he fixed ıis attention on the territory north of the Potomac, and, as soon as ıe returned to England, obtained a grant of it from Charles I. Before a patent could be made out, however, he died, leaving his ıon Cecilius to complete the design. To this second Lord Bal-timore, the patent was granted on the 20th of June, 1632. The territory conveyed, was from the Potomac to the 40th degree of north latitude; being part of what had been previously conveyed to the Virginia company, and subsequently a considerable part of what was thus granted to Lord Baltimore, was patented to William Penn. So regardless were the English monarchs of vested rights. The country granted to Lord Baltimore was called Maryland, in honour of Henrietta Maria, then queen of England, wife of Charles I. The principles upon which the settlement of this colony was begun, were alike honourable to the humanity and wisdom of the founder. They were similar to those adopted by Roger Williams in the planting of Rhode Island, and subsequently by William Penn on a greater scale in the settlement of Pennsyl-vania. They advanced the prosperity and population of Mary-land at a rapid pace, and have left an imperishable brilliancy on the character of Lord Baltimore. The chief features by which

the policy of this settlement was honourably distinguished above others of that period, were universal toleration of religious opinions and practices, and the system of humanity towards the Indian nations, whom the proprietor conceived it was more in the spirit of Christianity to civilize than to exterminate, and whom he conceived it more prudent to make friends than enemies.

Acting on these principles the first emigration to Maryland, consisting of about 200 persons, chiefly Roman Catholics, persons of distinction, landed in 1634 on the north side of the Potomac, at an Indian town called Piscataway. Leonard Calvert was appointed by Lord Baltimore the first governor. The free toleration of religious sentiments, the fertility of the soil, and other natural advantages, soon drew numbers to Maryland, whom the harsh policy of Virginia and New England deterred from those settlements. The Indians perceiving that the new comers were disposed to treat them with humanity, freely ceded half their town, and united with them in planting corn. The town received the name of St. Mary's. The first legislative assembly was held at this place in 1635, and was attended by the whole body of the freemen. They drew up a body of laws which they sent over to Lord Baltimore for his approbation. The proprietor, however, rejected them, and sent them for their consideration, a code of laws drawn up by himself. The assembly, in their turn, rejected this code, and prepared a system of regulations for themselves. In 1639 an act was passed, establishing a representative government of two branches. One body was elected by the people, and called burgesses: the other was called by special writ, and included the governor and secretary. Both branches, however, sat in the same chamber. In 1650 a change took place in this system, by dividing the legislature into distinct houses. Those called by special writ composed the upper, and the representatives of the people formed the lower, house. The assent of each branch and of the governor was necessary to all laws.

The first trouble experienced by the people of Maryland arose from Clayborne, whom they had found settled on Kent Island. He appears to have possessed a vindictive and restless disposition, and contrived for a long time to harass the colony. On the arrival of the first settlers, he applied to the crown for a confirmation of his former license. This was refused: and notwithstanding the king's grant, the lords commissioners determined that Kent Island belonged to Lord Baltimore; and that neither a settlement, nor a trade with the Indians, was allowable without his consent. Clayborne, disgusted with his decision, and unable to contend with the power of the proprietary, intrigued with the Indians until he stirred them up to hostilities. A war commenced with the savages in 1642, which lasted several years, and ended with the submission of the natives. In 1645 he was more successful. By his address he raised an insurrection among the colonists, and

compelled Governor Calvert to fly to Virginia, while he and his associates obtained the helm of government. In the succeeding year, however, the insurgents were overthrown, and quiet was restored.

During the civil wars of England, the peace of the province was again disturbed. The majority of the landed proprietors were favourable to the cause of royalty; but the opposition was powerful, and a civil war ensued. After the death of Charles I., the parliament appointed commissioners for "reducing and governing" the colony. Clayborne was one of these commissioners; and it may be supposed he entered upon his duties with no very good will to the proprietary government. After various skirmishes fought with various success, the republican party prevailed. Stone, the governor of the province, was taken prisoner, and suffered a long confinement. An assembly was called by the triumphant party, when the sanguinary code of the English laws, to prevent the growth of popery, was enacted. Such were the severities inflicted upon those who had planted the colony, and displayed the most liberal sentiments towards Christians of other persuasions.

In 1656, the province was again disturbed by an insurrection, which was headed by Josias Fendall. Two years afterwards, the commissioners appointed by Cromwell surrendered the government into the hands of Fendall, who had received the nomination of governor from the proprietary. The affairs of the province remained, however, in an unsettled state, until the restoration of Charles II. gave confidence to the friends of monarchy. Philip Calvert was now appointed governor by Lord Baltimore, and the former order of things restored. In the same year, hostilities broke out with the Janadoah Indians. The war was not of long duration, the colonists being aided by the Susquehannah Indians. About this time, the number of white inhabitants had increased to upwards of 12,000.

Maryland, like the other English colonies in North America, was attacked in her charter by the last Stuart kings. In the general system of government, projected by James II., this province was included; but, owing probably to its insignificance, the usual steps to obtain a revocation of the charter were not taken until a late period of that monarch's reign. A *quo warranto* was sued out; but, before judgment could be obtained upon it, the revolution took place in England. In 1692, protestant doctrines being those of the predominant party, the assembly divided the colony into parishes for the diffusion of the episcopal faith. Two years afterwards, the town of Severn, on the western shore of the Chesapeake, received the name of Annapolis. In 1699, the assembly removed there from St. Mary's, and it has since been the seat of government. From the restoration of Charles II. until the year 1716, the government was sometimes in the hands

of the proprietary, and at others in the possession of the crown. In that year it was restored to the proprietary, and remained in his hands until the American revolution.

During that part of the 18th century which preceded the year 1776, Maryland enjoyed so unvaried a series of quiet prosperity that her annals afford few materials for history. Peace and good government generally prevailed, and the consequences were a rapid increase of strength and prosperity. The only incident worthy of record is the contest with William Penn respecting the boundary-line of the two provinces, a contest more of words than weapons, and which was speedily and harmoniously settled. One great source of evil, however, increased at the same time in the augmentation of the number of negro slaves, a calamity which Maryland will long have reason to deplore. The people of Maryland were not backward in supporting the cause of freedom. The spirit which was first roused in 1765, and which broke out in 1776, displayed itself, on both occasions, in that province. In 1776, the present constitution of the state was established. During the revolutionary war, and especially in the southern campaigns under General Green, the bravery and good conduct of the Maryland line were conspicuous. The articles of confederation were not, however, ratified by Maryland until the year 1781, owing to the fears entertained of the preponderance of the larger states in consequence of their claims to western lands. In that year, however, the delegates of Maryland were instructed to ratify the articles, congress having recommended, and some of the states having made, a cession of their western lands to the common fund.

After the revolution, when the languid state of trade and agriculture caused general distress, which was attempted to be relieved, in some of the states, by the emission of paper money, a contest arose between the senate and house of delegates, the latter being in favour of an emission of paper currency. The senate, however, firmly opposed the injudicious measure, and triumphed; and, though rendered unpopular at the time, they finally received the approbation of the community. In 1788, the convention of this state adopted the federal constitution by a large majority. Two years afterwards, the state ceded to the general government that part of the district of Columbia, which lies east of the Potomac, for the seat of the national legislature. Since that period, few events have occurred in the internal history of the state, which has uniformly performed her duties and maintained her rights as a member of the confederacy. During the last war with England, she became the theatre of a cruel and harassing warfare, the particulars of which are related in the sketch of the history of the United States.

GOVERNORS, &c.

Under the Proprietary and Royal Government.

1637 Leonard Calvert.
1647 Thomas Green.
1649 William Stone.
1654 *The Parliament Commissioners.*
1658 Josiah Fendall.
1660 Philip Calvert.
1662 Charles Calvert.
1675 Lord Baltimore, *Proprietor.*
1678 Teomas Notley.
1681 Lord Baltimore.
1692 Lionel Copley.
1694 Francis Nicholson.
1696 *In the hands of the Crown.*
1699 Nathaniel Blackstone.
1703 Thomas Finch, *President.*
1704 John Seymour.
1704 Edward Lloyd, *President.*
1714 John Hart.
1720 Charles Calvert.
1727 Benedict Calvert.
1733 Lord Baltimore.
1737 Samuel Ogle.
1742 Thomas Bladen.
1747 Samuel Ogle.
1751 Benjamin Tasker, *President.*
1753 Horatio Sharpe.
1769 Robert Eden.
1773 Robert Eden.

Under the Constitution, annually elected.

1776 Thomas Johnson.
1779 Thomas S. Lee.
1782 William Paca.
1785 William Smallwood.
1788 John Eagle Howard.
1792 George Plater.
1792 Thomas S. Lee.
1794 John H. Stone.
1798 John Henry.
1798 Benjamin Ogle.
1801 John Francis Mercer.
1803 Robert Bowie.
1805 Robert Wright.
1809 Edward Lloyd.
1811 Robert Bowie.
1812 Levin Winder.
1815 Charles Ridgeley, of Hampton.
1818 Charles Goldsborough.
1819 Samuel Sprigg, to 1821.

Places remarkable for Battles and Sieges.

1813, Frenchtown. Taken and burned by the British, April 29.—*Cecil.*

Havre de Grace. Taken and burned by the British, May 3.—*Harford.*

Frederickstown, E. S. Taken and burned by the British, May.—*Kent.*

Georgetown. Taken and burned by the British, May.—*Kent.*

1814, Bladensburg. Battle between the Americans and the British, in which the former are defeated, August 24.—*Prince George.*

North Point. Battle between the Americans and the British, in which the latter are defeated, September 12.—*Baltimore.*

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Situation and Extent.

THE district of Columbia is a tract of country 10 miles square, on both sides of Potomac River, situated 120 miles from its mouth. It was ceded to the United States by Maryland and Virginia, in 1890; and was accepted by Congress, and in 1800 became the seat of the general government. It is under the immediate government of Congress. The area is of course 100 square miles; the largest portion is on the Maryland side of the Potomac.

Climate.

The climate is assimilated to that of the contiguous parts of Virginia and Maryland. It may be stated briefly, that the summer weather is often very hot, and the winters very cold. The spring is variable, and the autumn pleasant.

Civil Divisions and Population, 1820.

	Whites.	*Free-coloured.*	*Slaves.*	*Total.*
Washington city, .	9607	1696	1944	13,247
Georgetown, . .	4940	894	1526	7,360
Washington county,	1512	168	1049	2,729
Alexandria, . .	5615	1168	1435	8,218
Alexandria county,	941	122	422	1,485
Total	22,615	4048	6376	33,039

In 1800, the population of this district was 14,093; in 1810, 24,023; and in 1820, 33,039, as exhibited in the above table. Of the population in 1820, 833 were engaged in agriculture, 2184 in manufactures, and 512 in commerce.

THE CITY OF WASHINGTON.

Washington city, the metropolis of the United States of America, is pleasantly situated on the Potomac River, at the junction of the eastern branch, three miles below the head of tide water. It is separated from Georgetown on the north-west by Rock Creek, and Tyber Creek passes through the middle of the city. Washington is regularly laid out, in streets running due north and south, intersected by others at right angles. Besides

these streets, which are from 80 to 110 feet wide, there are avenues from 130 to 160 feet broad, which diverge from centres in various parts of the city, crossing the other streets tranversely. The avenues are named after the different states of the union; the streets which run east and west after the letters of the alphabet, and those which run north and south are numbered 1, 2, 3, &c. At the points from which the avenues diverge, are spacious squares. The ground embraced in the plan of the city is very extensive, but only a small portion of it is yet occupied with buildings.

The principal public buildings and establishments are, 1. the Capitol, which is finely situated on an eminence, commanding a view of every part of the city, and a considerable portion of the adjacent country. According to the original plan, it is to be composed of a central edifice and two wings; the two wings were in a considerable state of forwardness in 1814, when the British army, under General Ross, gained possession of the city, and destroyed them, together with the president's house, and other public structures, and an extensive library which had been purchased for the use of Congress. The wings of the capitol are now rebuilt, and the central building has been commenced. The wings are each 100 feet square, and the whole building, when completed, will be a most magnificent edifice, presenting a front of 362 feet: 2. the president's house, situated about a mile and a half west of the capitol, on the avenue leading to Georgetown; it is 170 feet by 85, and two stories high: 3. four spacious brick buildings, erected in the vicinity of the president's house, for the accommodation of the different departments of the government: 4. a comfortable marine barrack, with a house for the residence of the commandant of the marine corps: 5. an extensive navy-yard, situated on the eastern branch, which forms a safe and commodious harbour. Here is an elegant marble monument, erected by American officers to the memory of their brethren who fell before Tripoli: 6. a small fort, which, from the extreme southern point of the land on which the city stands, commands the channel of the Potomac; and 7. the general post-office, a brick edifice, about a mile W. N. W. of the capitol, where the patent office is also kept. The style of the architecture of the capitol is Corinthian, and that of the president's house Ionic; and both buildings are constructed of free-stone. The capitol square is enclosed by a strong and handsome iron railing; and being planted with trees, and otherwise ornamented, affords a delightful walk for the inhabitants and visitors of the city. Similar improvements are making at the president's square, which will add greatly to its beauty and accommodations.

Besides the buildings and establishments above enumerated, Washington contains a city-hall, a theatre, a penitentiary, a circus, a masonic hall, four banks, including a branch of the United States

bank, a female orphan asylum, a Lancasterian school, seven printing-offices, an extensive cannon foundry, a paper-mill, a window-glass manufactory, and 12 houses for public worship, three for Presbyterians, two for Episcopalians, two for Baptists, two for Methodists, two for Catholics, and one for Friends. Adjoining the city is a brick edifice for a college, four stories high, and 117 feet long by 47 wide, situated on elevated ground, nearly north of the president's house, and commanding an extensive prospect of the city, Georgetown, Alexandria, the Potomac River, &c. Among the other literary institutions, are a medical society, a botanical society, and the Columbian Institute, which consist of five classes, *viz.*, mathematical sciences, physical sciences, moral and political sciences, general literature, and the fine arts. There is a bridge about one mile long over the Potomac, on piles, built in 1809; three over the eastern branch, and two over Rock Creek: there is also a canal connecting Tyber Creek with the eastern branch.

The amount expended by the United States on the public buildings, previously to their destruction by the British in August, 1814, was 1,214,291 dollars, and there have been appropriated towards rebuilding the same 1,207,788 dollars. The value of the lands belonging to the United States within the city on the 31st December, 1816, was estimated at more than 7,000,000 dollars, and the lots which had been sold previous to that period had yielded to the national treasury 689,195 dollars. The population of Washington, in 1800, was 3210; in 1810, 8208, of whom 2304 were people of colour. In 1820, the population was 13,322: and the number of houses 2141, of which about one-half were of brick.

Chief Towns.

Alexandria is on the west bank of the Potomac, seven miles south of Washington; it has a commodious harbour, sufficiently deep for the largest ships, and is a place of extensive trade, especially in the article of flour. Population in 1810, 7227; in 1820, 8218.

Georgetown is pleasantly situated on the east side of the Potomac, at the junction of Rock Creek, which separates it from Washington city, three miles west of the capitol in Washington, eight north of Alexandria. It contains five houses of public worship, two for Episcopalians, two for Methodists, and one for Presbyterians. The Roman Catholics have a college here, established in 1799, which has two spacious brick edifices, finely situated, with a library of 7000 volumes, and about 150 students. In 1815, it was raised by Congress to the rank of a university, and authorized to confer degrees. Georgetown has considerable trade: the amount of shipping, in 1815, was 6,795 tons. Population in 1810, 4948; in 1820, 7360.

Commerce and Manufactures.

The exports from this district in 1820 amounted to 1,204,915 dollars, of which 1,156,468 dollars was domestic produce, and 48,447 dollars foreign produce. The amount of shipping in 1815, was 21,753 tons. The value of the manufactures in 1810, was estimated at 1,000,000 dollars.

Government.

Congress assumed legislative jurisdiction over the district on the 27th of February, 1801, declaring at the same time that the laws of the two states from which it was taken should be continued in the parts taken for each. The citizens of the district are subject to the immediate and exclusive legislation of the federal government, whose authority, as regards them, is unrestricted. The laws of Maryland and Virginia have been altered in only a few instances. A circuit court, consisting of three judges, is established in the district, and sits alternately at Washington and Alexandria. Appeals and writs of error go from this court directly to the Supreme Court of the United States. A register of wills, a judge of the orphans' court, and justices of the peace, are appointed for each county, and an attorney and marshal for the district. The Supreme Court of the United States sits at Washington, on the first Monday of February annually. The city corporation consists of a mayor and eight aldermen, and twelve common council men, divided into two branches, who regulate the affairs of the inhabitants by ordinances. The mayor was formerly appointed by the president; but he is now elected annually by the board of aldermen and common council, and these latter are themselves chosen every year, (with the exception of a portion of the first branch) by the people.

Places remarkable for Battles, Sieges, &c.

1814, Washington: Taken by the British army, under General Ross, August 24.

Alexandria: Surrendered to a British squadron, August 29.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

UNDER the old confederation, by which the states were nominally bound together, the Congress was dependent upon the several sovereignties for a local habitation, and might have been to many purposes dissolved, by the mere refusal to permit the occupation of public buildings. It seemed becoming to the dignity,

and necessary to the strength and permanence of the federal government, that its legislature should exercise its powers at some spot where it should neither be liable to interruption from a state government nor from a faction, nor likely to favour local views at the expense of the general good. It was probably from this consideration that the framers of the constitution, adopted in 1787, gave in the eighth section of the first article express power to Congress "to exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as might, by cession of particular states and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the United States." Soon after this constitution went into operation, the states of Virginia and Maryland ceded to the United States their jurisdiction over a district of ten miles square, situated on both sides of the Potomac, and 120 miles from its mouth. By an act of Congress passed on the 16th of July, 1790, the government of the United States formally accepted the cession. The same act authorized the president to appoint three commissioners to survey, define, and limit the district; and gave to the commissioners power to purchase or accept such quantity of land on the eastern side of the Potomac, as the president should deem proper, for the use of the United States. It was also enacted, that the commissioners should, prior to the first Monday of December, 1800, provide suitable buildings for the accommodation of Congress and of the president, and for the public offices of the government. The ground upon which the city of Washington was laid out was at that time the property of individuals, who entered into an arrangement with the government, ceding one half to the public, in consideration of the enhanced value of the other by virtue of the cession. The metropolis of the United States was planned under the direction of General Washington, then president, by Pierre L'Enfant, in 1791. The foundation stone of the north wing of the capitol was laid in the presence of General Washington on the 16th of September, 1793, and the erection of the other public buildings, and of private houses commenced about the same time. The infant city being in a state of sufficient preparation, Congress passed an act on the 24th of April, 1800, directing the removal of all the public offices and papers, and providing, that on the first Monday of December following, the seat of government of the United States should be transferred to the district. Accordingly, the requisite arrangements having been made, the Congress convened at Washington city for the first time in December, 1800, and assumed legal jurisdiction over the district on the 27th of February, 1801, declaring at the same time, that the laws of Maryland, as they then existed, should be and continue in force. The superintendence of the public buildings, and the regulation of the city generally, were in the first instance placed in the hands of a board of commissioners. On the first of May, 1802, this board was abolished,

and the affairs of the city confided to the direction of a superintendent, subject to the control of the president of the United States. In addition to this office, there was instituted in 1815, a board of three commissioners for superintending the re-construction of the public edifices; but, in the year 1816, this board was also dissolved; the office of superintendent annulled; and the supervision of the national buildings, and of the affairs of the city in which the general government is directly concerned, committed to one commissioner.

Under the fostering care of the government, aided by the natural advantages of its situation, the district of Columbia soon made rapid advances in population. It was laid out on a magnificent scale, which will for a long time be contrasted with its actual size; but the public buildings, the extent and beauty of which were not surpassed by any in the union, were principally finished, when the war of 1814 gave a temporary check to its prosperity. On the 20th of August, a body of British troops, about 5000 in number, all veterans who had gained reputation and experience in the French war, landed at Benedict on the Patuxent, forty miles from Washington, and on the next day marched to Nottingham. Several vessels at the same time entered the Potomac. As soon as it was perceived that the object of the enemy was Washington, the American force, which was hastily collected, and consisted principally of raw and inefficient militia, was interposed between the invaders and the city. On the 22d of August the British flankers reached the Wood Yard, twelve miles from Washington. A large flotilla of gun-boats, commanded by Commodore Barney, was blown up to prevent their falling into the hands of the enemy. On the 23d the British troops reached Bladensburg, about six miles from Washington. Here they found the American force stationed. The two armies were divided by a stream, over which was a bridge. The British immediately crossed the bridge, and advanced to the attack. They were received by a portion of the American troops with great coolness; and so destructive was the fire of the latter, that the assailants were repeatedly driven back to the water's edge. Their discipline, however, finally triumphed, and, notwithstanding the determined courage displayed by a party of sailors under Commodore Barney, the American troops were routed and dispersed. No hope remained of defending the city, and it was reluctantly abandoned to its fate. On the evening of the same day, General Ross and Admiral Cockburn, the British land and naval commanders, entered Washington, and encamped with their army in sight of the capital. The scene that followed will long be remembered in America. It has few parallels in history, and modern annals afford no precedent for it. It was reserved for a nation glorifying itself upon its advancement in the arts, and its moral and religious character, to set the first example in modern times of the destruction of edifices connected in no

manner with the operations of war; to wage upon the beautiful and costly architecture of a kindred people a war of havoc and desolation, and even to mutilate and deface the monuments erected in honour of the distinguished dead. On this memorable day the capital of the United States, containing the chambers of the senate and house of representatives, the rooms of the supreme court of justice, the public library and public records of the government; the house of the president of the United States; the public offices of the secretaries of state, of war, of the navy, and of the treasury; in fine, every public building was committed to the flames. Great damage was also sustained from the burning of the stores at the navy-yard, and the destruction of a new frigate, to prevent their falling into the hands of the enemy. The following estimate of the public loss is derived from the report of a committee appointed by Congress to investigate the subject.

The capitol, from its foundation to its destruction, including the original cost, alterations, repairs, &c.	787,163	28
The president's house, including all costs .	334,334	00
Public offices	93,613	82
Dollars,	1,215,111	10
Loss sustained at the navy yard by the destruction of the new frigate, stores, &c. . . .	417,745	51
Dollars,	1,632,856	61

To which must be added the public library, of great extent; but the actual value of which could not be ascertained.

Having finished the destruction of the public buildings, the British army commenced their retreat at eight o'clock on the evening of the 25th, taking the same road by which they advanced. Unfortunately no troops could be collected in time to attack them in their confused march; otherwise ample satisfaction might have been taken for the conflagration of Washington. The enemy reached their ships in safety, leaving behind, however, about 500 wounded, deserters, and prisoners. Two days after the evacuation of the capital, Alexandria surrendered to some British frigates which had ascended the Potomac. The terms of capitulation were highly favourable to the enemy, who showed their gratitude to the inhabitants by carrying off all their flour and tobacco, besides a large amount of wine, sugar, and cotton.

On the recurrence of the period for the assembling of Congress, temporary accommodations were provided for that body. Soon after the commencement of the session, an attempt was made to transfer the seat of government to another place; but the resolution to this effect, of the passage of which there appeared at one time considerable probability, having failed, Congress appropri-

ated large sums of money for rebuilding the public edifices, and accepted the offer of the venerable Thomas Jefferson of his valuable and extensive library, at a moderate price. The appropriations which have since been made for completing the public buildings, denote a determination to render this district the permanent seat of government.

VIRGINIA.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

VIRGINIA is situated between 36° 33′ and 40° 39′ N. lat, and 1° 20′ E. and 6° 34′ W. long. It is bounded north by Pennsylvania and Maryland; north-east by Maryland; east by the Atlantic Ocean; south by North Carolina and Tennessee; west by Kentucky and Ohio. Its mean length is 320 miles, and breadth 200; and it contains about 64,000 square miles, or 49,960,000 acres.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

This extensive state may be divided into four parts, essentially differing from each other. The first, extending from the sea-coast to the termination of tide water, at Fredericksburg, Richmond, &c., is low and flat, in some places fenny, and others sandy; and, on the margins of rivers, composed of a rich loam, covered with a luxuriant, and even rank, vegetation. This division has been formed by a comparatively recent alluvion; marine shells and bones are every where found near the surface of the earth. The next division extends from the head of tide water to the Blue Ridge; the surface, near tide water, is level; higher up the rivers, it becomes swelling; and, near the mountains, often abrupt and broken: the soil is divided into sections of very unequal quality, parallel to each other, and extending across the state. The parallel of Chesterfield, Henrico, Hanover, &c., is a thin, sandy, and, except on the rivers, an unproductive soil. That of Goochland, Cumberland, Prince Edward, Halifax, &c., is generally fertile; Fluvanna, Buckingham, Campbell, and Pittsylvania, are but poor, and Culpepper, Orange, Albemarle, Bedford, &c., have a rich, though frequently a stoney and broken soil, on a substratum of tenacious, red-coloured clay. The scenery of the upper part of this section is highly picturesque and romantic.

The third division is the valley between the Blue Ridge and North and Alleghany Mountains; which extends, with little interruption, from the Potomac to Tennessee and North Carolina. It is narrower, but of greater length, than either of the preceding subdivisions; the soil is a mould formed on a bed of limestone, which often appears above the surface, in veins parallel to the mountains, and making every possible angle with the horizon: the surface of this valley is sometimes broken by sharp and solitary mountains, detached from the general chain, the sides of which, nearly bare, or but thinly covered with blasted pines, form disagreeable objects in the landscape. The bed of the valley is fertile, producing good crops of Indian corn, wheat, rye, oats, buckwheat, hemp, flax, &c. The fourth and last division extends from the Alleghany Mountains to the Ohio River, and is wild and broken, being in some places fertile, but generally barren. Here are mines of lead, iron, coal, and salt.

The forest, near the sea, is composed of pine, oak, cypress, cedar, juniper, holly, &c. Above tide water, of pine, oak, poplar, hickory, locust, chestnut, gum, ash, sycamore, elm, &c. In the valley, of nearly the same trees, with maple, scaly-bark hickory, fir, arbor vitæ, &c. In the more western parts of the state, buck eye, sugar maple, and some other trees become common; but the body of the forest is the same as between the mountains and tide water; except, indeed, that the western forests are far more heavy, more lofty, and less intermixed with copse. In respect to mineral productions, few are found in the first zone, the soil being alluvial; the second section contains pit-coal of a good quality, within 20 miles of Richmond, on James River; the third region has many inexhaustible mines of iron ore, of a fine quality; and the fourth is distinguished for its various mineral treasures.

Mountains and Rivers.

The Alleghany Mountains pass through the western part of the state, from south-west to north-east; the Blue Ridge is east of the Alleghany range, and runs parallel with it, dividing the state into two parts, nearly equal. The peaks of Otter, in the Blue Ridge, are 3,103 feet high, and are the highest land in the state. The principal rivers are the Potomac, Rappahannock, York, and James, which rise east of the Alleghany Mountains, and flow into Chesapeake Bay; and the Big Sandy, the Great Kanhawa, and the Little Kanhawa, which rise west of the mountains, and flow into the Ohio; the Shenandoah runs between the mountains, and discharges itself into the Potomac.

Natural Curiosities and Mineral Springs.

The natural bridge over Cedar Creek, in Rockbridge county, is one of the most magnificent curiosities in the world. It is a huge rock, in the form of an arch, 90 feet long, 60 wide, and

from 40 to 60 deep, thrown over the river more than 200 feet above its surface, and supported by abutments so gracefully curved, so long and light, and springing, as to appear scarcely more heavy than the capital of a Corinthian pillar. There is another natural bridge, in Scott county, of nearly the same height, but less beautiful. The falling spring, in Bath county, forms a beautiful cascade, streaming from a perpendicular precipice 200 feet high. The passage of the Potomac through the Blue Ridge at Harper's Ferry, is celebrated for its grandeur and magnificence. There are many mineral springs in Virginia: the hot and warm springs of Bath county, the sweet springs of Monroe, the sulphur springs of Greenbriar, those of Montgomery, and the baths of Berkeley county, are much frequented.

Climate.

In consequence of the great extent and varied surface of Virginia, the climate is very different in different situations. In the greater part of the country, below the head of tide waters, the summers are hot and sultry, and the winters are mild, though the cold is sometimes very severe. From the head of tide water to the mountains, the air is more elastic and pure, and both summers and winters are several degrees of temperature below that of the low country. Among the mountains, the summer weather is generally fine, though the heat is sometimes very oppressive; to the westward the climate is more mild than to the eastward. Except in the neighbourhood of stagnant waters in the low country, Virginia has, upon the whole, a salubrious climate; the greatest heat at Monticello, near the middle of the state, has been 98°, and the greatest cold 6° below 0; the mean annual temperature at Williamsburg is about 57°.

Civil Divisions and Population.

Virginia is divided into 100 counties, which are given in alphabetical order, in the following table, with the population in 1810, and 1820.

Counties.	*Pop. in* 1810.	*Pop. in* 1820.	*Seats of Justice.*
Accomac,	15,743	15,966	Drummond town.
Albemarle,	18,268	19,750	Charlottesville.
Amelia,	10,594	11,104	C. H.
Amherst,	10,548	10,423	C. H.
Augusta,	14,308	16,742	Staunton.
Bath,	4,837	5,237	Warmsprings.
Bedford,	16,148	19,305	Liberty.
Berkeley,	11,479	11,211	Martinsburg.
Botetourt,	13,301	13,589	Fincastle.
Brooke,	5,843	6,631	Wellsburg.
Carried forward	121,069	129,958	

Counties.	Pop. in 1810.	Pop. in 1820.	Seats of Justice.
Brought forward	121,069	129,958	
Brunswick,	15,411	16,687	C. H.
Buckingham,	20,059	17,569	Maysville.
Cabell,	2,717	4,789	Guyandot.
Campbell,	11,001	16,569	C. H.
Caroline,	17,544	18,008	Bowling-green.
Charles city,	5,186	5,255	C. H.
Charlotte,	13,161	13,290	Maryville.
Chesterfield,	9,979	18,003	C. H.
Culpepper,	18,967	20,944	Fairfax.
Cumberland,	9,992	11,023	C. H.
Dinwiddie,	12,524	13,792	C. H.
Elizabeth city,	3,608	3,789	Hampton.
Essex,	9,376	9,909	Tappahannock.
Fairfax,	13,111	11,404	C. H.
Fauquier,	22,689	23,103	Warrenton.
Fluvanna,	4,775	6,704	Columbia.
Franklin,	10,724	12,017	Rocky Mount.
Frederick,	22,574	24,706	Winchester.
Giles,	3,745	4,521	
Gloucester,	10,427	9,678	C. H.
Goochland,	10,203	10,007	C. H.
Grayson,	4,941	5,598	Greensville.
Greenbrier,	5,914	7,041	Louisburg.
Greensville,	6,853	6,858	Hicksford.
Halifax.	22,133	19,060	Bannister.
Hampshire,	9,784	10,889	Romney.
Hanover,	15,082	15,267	C. H.
Hardy,	5,525	5,700	Moorefields.
Harrison,	9,958	10,932	Clarksburg.
Henrico,	9,945	11,600	Richmond.
Henry,	5,611	5,624	Martinsville.
Isle of Wight,	9,186	10,139	C. H.
James city,	4,094	3,161	Williamsburg.
Jefferson,	11,851	13,087	Charleston.
Kanhawa,	3,866	6,399	Charleston.
King and Queen,	10,983	11,798	C. H.
King George,	6,454	6,116	C. H.
King William,	9,285	9,697	C. H.
Lancaster,	5,592	5,517	C. H.
Lee,	4,694	4,256	Jonesville.
Lewis,		4,247	
Loudon,	21,338	22,702	Leesburg.
Louisa,	11,900	13,746	C. H.
Lunenburg,	12,265	10,662	Lewistown.
Carried forward	576,101	621,821	

Counties.	Pop. in 1810.	Pop. in 1820.	Seats of Justice.
Brought forward	576,101	621,821	
Madison,	8,381	8,490	Madison.
Mason,	1,991	4,868	Point Pleasant.
Matthews,	4,227	6,920	C. H.
Mecklenburg,	18,453	19,786	Boyd town.
Middlesex,	4,414	4,057	Urbanna.
Monongalia,	12,793	11,060	Morgan town.
Monroe,	5,444	6,620	Union town.
Montgomery,	8,409	8,733	Christiansburg.
Morgan,		2,500	Frankfort.
Nansemond,	10,324	10,494	Suffolk.
New Kent,	6,478	6,630	C. H.
Nicholas,		1,853	
Norfolk county,	13,679	15,478	Norfolk.
Northampton,	7,474	7,705	C. H.
Northumberland,	8,308	8,016	Bridgetown.
Nottoway,	9,278	9,658	Nottaway.
Nelson,	9,684	10,137	C. H.
Ohio,	8,175	9,182	Wheeling.
Orange,	12,323	12,913	C. H.
Patrick,	4,695	5,089	Taylorsville.
Pendleton,	4,239	4,846	Franklin.
Pittsylvania,	17,172	21,323	C. H.
Powhatan,	8,073	8,292	Scottsville.
Preston,		3,422	
Prince Edward,	12,409	12,577	C. H.
Princess Anne,	9,498	8,768	Kempsville.
Prince William,	11,311	9,419	Dumfries.
Prince George,	8,050	8,030	C. H.
Randolph,	2,854	3,357	Beverly.
Richmond county,	6,214	5,706	C. H.
Rockbridge,	10,318	11,945	Lexington.
Rockingham,	12,753	14,784	Harrisonburg.
Russel,	6,316	5,536	Franklin.
Scott,		4,263	Estelsville.
Shenandoah,	13,646	18,926	Woodstock.
Southampton,	13,497	14,170	Jerusalem.
Spotsylvania,	13,296	14,254	C. H.
Stafford,	9,830	9,517	Stafford.
Surry,	6,855	6,594	C. H.
Sussex,	11,362	11,884	Hunting Quarter.
Tazwell,	3,007	3,916	Jeffersonville.
Tyler,		2,314	Middletown.
Warwick,	1,835	1,608	C. H.
Washington,	12,136	12,444	Abingdon.
Carried forward	925,302	1,009,905	

Counties.	*Pop. in 1810.*	*Pop. in 1820.*	*Seats of Justice.*
Brought forward	925,302	1,009,905	
Westmoreland,	8,102	6,901	C. H.
Wood,	3,036	5,860	Parkersburg.
Wythe,	8,356	9,692	Evensham.
York,	5,187	4,384	Yorktown.
Williamsburg,		1,402	
City of Richmond,	9,735	12,067	
Norfolk borough,	9,193	8,478	
Petersburg,	5,668	6,690	
Total,	974,579	1,065,379	

The following table shows the population at each of the four national enumerations:

	1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.
Whites,	442,117	518,674	551,534	603,008
Slaves,	292,627	345,796	392,518	425,153
Free Blacks,	12,866	21,679	30,570	36,889
Total,	747,610	886,149	974,622	1,065,050

Chief Towns.

Richmond, the seat of government, is beautifully situated on the north side of James River, 150 miles from its mouth, just below the falls. It is well situated for commerce, being on a great river, at the head of tide water, and having an extensive back country, abounding with tobacco, wheat, hemp, and coal. A canal has been cut around the falls, which opens the navigation for boats, 220 miles above the city. The growth of Richmond has been very rapid. In 1800, the population was 5,739; in 1810, 9,735, and in 1820, 12,067.

Norfolk, near the south-east corner of the state, on the east bank of Elizabeth River, a few miles before its entrance into Hampton Road, is the most commercial town in the state. It has a safe and commodious harbour, and, in 1821, had 23,809 tons of shipping.

Petersburg, on the Appomatox, below the falls, 12 miles from its mouth, is the emporium of a considerable district in North Carolina, as well as of the southern part of Virginia.

Fredericksburg, on the Rappahannock, below the falls, 100 miles from its mouth, at the head of navigation, is a depôt for the corn, flour, and tobacco of the surrounding country.

Lynchburg is at the head of navigation on James River, 20 miles below the Great Falls. From its situation, it has become the centre of commerce for the neighbouring districts, and a large extent of country west of the mountains.

Canals.

Near the south-east corner of the state, a canal passes through Dismal Swamp, connecting the waters which flow into Chesapeake Bay, with those which flow into Albemarle Sound, in North Carolina. Canals have been made around the falls and rapids of the Potomac, which have made it navigable beyond the mouth of the Shenandoah. There is a canal around the falls, at the mouth of the Shenandoah, which makes that river navigable for 200 miles; and another around the falls in the Appomatox, which has opened a navigation on that river for 80 miles above Petersburg. The board of public works have recently reported in favour of a canal, to connect James River with the Ohio.

Agriculture, Manufactures, Commerce, Revenue, &c.

The staple productions are wheat, Indian corn, and tobacco. The value of the exports, in 1817, was 5,621,442 dollars, and that of manufactures, in 1810, was estimated at 15,263,473 dollars. The amount of shipping, in 1816, was 70,492 tons. The ordinary revenue amounts to about 600,000 dollars, and is raised principally by a tax on lands and slaves.

Education.

There are four colleges in Virginia: William and Mary, at Williamsburg; Washington, at Lexington; Hampden Sidney, in Prince Edward county; and Central, at Charlottesville. Central college has been established at the expense of the state, and forms part of a very extensive plan of education, recently adopted. A literary fund has been created, amounting to about 1,000,000 dollars, the interest of which is appropriated by the legislature for the support of colleges and common schools.

Religion.

In 1817, the Baptists had 314 congregations; the Presbyterians 41 ordained ministers, and the Episcopalians 34 ministers. There were, besides, many Methodists and Friends, and some Roman Catholics and Lutherans.

Government.

The powers of government are divided into the legislative, the executive, and the judiciary. The legislature is called the General Assembly, and is composed of a senate and house of representatives. The senate consists of 24 members, who are chosen for four years, by districts, and vacate their seats in rotation, one-fourth each year. Each senator must be a resident freeholder. The representatives are chosen annually, two from each county, and one from each city and borough. They also must be resident freeholders. The Governor is chosen annually by joint ballot of both houses, and can hold the office but three years in seven. He is assisted by a privy-council of eight members, chosen in like manner, two of the members every three years

The superior courts are, a General Court, a Court of Chancery, and a Supreme Court, consisting of the judges of the superior courts, and constituting a Court of Appeals. The right of suffrage in Virginia, belongs to none but freeholders.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

The name Virginia, though now properly belonging to only one of the states of the American union, was originally given to the whole extent of country afterwards divided into 13 colonies. It was bestowed upon that part of North America which he attempted to colonise, by Sir Walter Raleigh, in honour of Queen Elizabeth, who was reputed to be a virgin queen. The first effectual settlement made within the limits of the present state of Virginia, took place in the month of April, 1607; and this was also the first permanent settlement effected by the English in North America. Previously to this, several ineffectual attempts had been made to plant a colony on the coast of Virginia and North Carolina. These first emigrants either abandoned their places of settlement, or were destroyed by the natives; and, in some cases, perished without leaving any memorial behind them. At length the business was undertaken by a company, to whom a patent had been granted by James I., and who were called the London company, to distinguish them from the Plymouth company, by whom the settlement of New England was effected. Three ships, on board of which were 105 persons, sailed from London in December, 1606; and, after a tedious and circuitous passage, entered the bay of the Chesapeake, in April, 1607. On a peninsula, a little distance up James River, they began their settlement, calling the place Jamestown, both the river and town being named after James I. The colony soon began to experience some of the hardships incidental to new settlers. Their provisions began to fail, and mismanagement, added to famine, brought the colony to the brink of ruin. To the great exertions and talents of Captain John Smith, one of the most distinguished persons connected with the early history of this country, the colony is indebted for its preservation. His resolute and persevering spirit prevailed on them not to abandon the settlement, while his activity and courage provided the means of continuance. An incident which occurred during this period, has lent to his history the attractions of romance. While on an exploring journey in search of provisions, he was taken prisoner by a large party of Indians, who determined to put him to death. His head was placed upon a stone, and the savages were about to beat out his brains with clubs, when Pocahontas, the daughter of the principal chief, Powhatan, after in vain imploring mercy for him,

rushed forward, and, resting her head upon that of the captive, and clasping his body with her arms, appeared determined to share his fate. Powhatan relented, and soon afterwards permitted Smith to return home. Two years afterwards, when the Indians had plotted the destruction of the whole colony, Pocahontas, faithful to the attachments she had formed, disclosed the plan to the English, and the Indians, finding them on their guard, abandoned the project.

Such was the distress of the colony in 1610, that the survivors had actually embarked on their return to England; when Lord Delaware, who had been appointed governor the preceding year under a new charter, arrived with a supply of provisions and 150 men. Under this governor and his successor, the affairs of the infant settlement were administered with so much prudence and vigour, that it soon began to acquire solidity and strength. Useful industry succeeded to their previous habits; and, aided by a fertile soil, they were enabled to raise large stocks of provisions. In 1619, the first legislature was convened, eleven corporations sending representatives. About this period upwards of 1260 additional emigrants arrived, among whom were 150 young women, who were sold to the planters for wives, at 150 pounds of tobacco each. About this period also arrived the first negro slaves: they were imported in a Dutch vessel, and were soon followed by many others. In 1622, a dreadful massacre of the settlers took place: they were surprised by the Indians, who destroyed 347 persons. Fortunately a friendly Indian gave previous notice to the inhabitants of Jamestown, in time to put them on their guard, otherwise the whole settlement would probably have been destroyed. To the distress occasioned by this horrible act, there succeeded a famine, which was, however, alleviated by the arrival of provisions from England. A reinforcement of settlers arriving at the same time, a general war was levied against the savages, and, in a short time, most of the neighbouring tribes were exterminated or slain. Two years afterwards the company was dissolved, and the charter resumed by the king, who issued a special commission for the government of the colony. All legislative and executive powers were vested in these commissioners, from whose arbitrary regulations the colony suffered severely. So oppressive was the government of Sir John Harvey, appointed in 1629, that the people seized him, and sent him to England a prisoner. He was succeeded by Sir William Berkeley, who called an assembly of the burgesses, and governed the province with mildness and prudence.

On the revolution in England, the Virginians adhered to the cause of the monarch. Even after the death of Charles I., they refused to acknowledge the authority of the commonwealth. A formidable armament was despatched by the parliament, to which the colonists were not able to offer any resistance. Their sub-

mission being forced, they eagerly availed themselves of an opportunity to declare their real sentiments. Before Charles II. had been recognised in England, his authority was restored in Virginia. Fortunately for the colony, the restoration of the monarch to his throne took place soon afterwards. In 1661, an assembly was called by Governor Berkeley; and, in the succeeding year, the Church of England was established by law throughout the colony. No person was allowed to preach, who had not received ordination from some bishop in England. Notwithstanding the loyalty manifested by the inhabitants of this colony, they suffered grievously from the arbitrary and monopolizing system of the British government. The effects of the Navigation Act, and other measures of a similar nature adopted about this time, were severely felt by the trade of Virginia. In addition to this cause of discontent, the landed proprietors were alarmed by the conduct of the king in granting to his courtiers large tracts of land, the titles to which had been regularly vested in others. From these causes arose an insurrection, memorable in the history of Virginia, and known by the name of Bacon's Rebellion. Colonel Nathaniel Bacon, an eloquent and ambitious man, put himself at the head of the people who had assembled, with the ostensible object of engaging in hostilities with the Indians. An injudicious step on the part of the assembly, which was then sitting, in advising the governor to issue a proclamation of rebellion against him, determined their purpose. They marched to Jamestown, and, after dispersing the assembly, Bacon called a convention, and assumed the reins of government. A civil war now ensued with all its horrors. Jamestown was burnt by Bacon's followers, and many parts of the colony given up to pillage. At length, after several months of bloodshed and confusion, Bacon suddenly died. The loss of this man proved the ruin of his party. The people returned to their homes, and the authority of Berkeley was restored; it was long, however, before the prosperity of Virginia was restored. Husbandry had been neglected, and licentious habits were introduced, which many years of order did not eradicate. Soon after these events, Berkeley returned to England, and was succeeded by Lord Culpeper, who brought with him several bills drawn up by the ministry in England, to which he required the assent of the legislature, on pain of being treated as rebels. The object of these acts was the increase of his official emoluments, and the effect was the oppression and impoverishment of the people. During the reign of Charles II. and his successor James, Virginia suffered in common with her sister colonies, from the endeavours of the British to extend their despotic system across the Atlantic, and rejoiced in the change of government which drove the Stuarts from the throne.

For a considerable period after the revolution of 1688, Virginia enjoyed great internal tranquillity, and experienced nothing

to interrupt her growth. In the year 1732, she gave birth to the most illustrious of her sons, the great statesman and patriot, who was destined afterwards to achieve the independence of all the colonies. During the wars between France and England, prior to 1754, her local situation exempted her from hostilities. From 1754 to 1758, when the French began to put into operation their schemes for uniting Canada and Louisiana, the frontiers of Virginia were harassed by incursions of French and Indian parties; to repel which a regiment was raised, in which Washington first distinguished himself. On the conclusion of peace, when the British attempted to raise a revenue within the colonies, the statesmen of Virginia were among the first to raise the voice of opposition. The eloquence and talents of her orators contributed greatly to excite public feeling on this occasion. The services and sufferings of Virginia in the war of the revolution, were at least as great as those of any other state, and in Virginia the last important measure of the war took place in the surrender of Cornwallis.

Since the peace of 1783, Virginia has retained an elevated rank in the family of states. Fruitful of illustrious men, this state has given four presidents to the union. Her population has, however, not increased with the rapidity of that of New York or Pennsylvania, and she has declined, as respects the number of free inhabitants, from the second to the fourth rank. During the late war with England, her citizens displayed great patriotism in opposing the common enemy, and her maritime frontier suffered severely from his predatory incursions.

Places remarkable for Battles and Sieges.

1775, Hampton. Attacked by the British, who are repulsed, Oct. 25.—*Elizabeth city.*

Great Bridge. British defeated in an attempt to storm the American works, Dec. 9.—*Norfolk.*

1776, Norfolk. Captured and burned by the British, Jan. 1.—*Norfolk.*

1781, Jamestown. Indecisive action between the Americans and the British, July 6.—*James city.*

Yorktown. The British army, under Lord Cornwallis, surrenders to the Americans and French, Oct. 17.—*York.*

1813, Craney Island. The British defeated, June 22.—*Elizabeth city.*

Hampton. Taken and plundered by the British, June 25.—*Elizabeth city.*

GOVERNORS.

Sir Thomas Smith*, 1606.
Sir George Yeardley, 1618.
Sir Francis Wyatt, 1621.
Sir George Yeardley, 1625.
Captain Francis West, Nov. 1627.
John Pott, March, 1628.
Sir John Harvey, 1629.
Captain John West, 1635.
Sir John Harvey, 1636.
Sir Francis Wyatt, 1639.
Sir William Berkeley, 1641.
Richard Kempe, 1644.
Sir William Berkeley, 1645.
Richard Bennet, 1652.
Edward Digges, 1655.
Samuel Matthews, 1656.
Sir William Berkeley, 1659.
} (elected by the people).
Francis Moryson, 1661.
Sir William Berkeley, 1662.
Lord Culpepper, appointed by king Charles II. 1675.
Arrived in the colony, and sworn in as governor, 1680.
During this interval, after Sir William Berkeley left the colony in 1677.
Herbert Jeffries, acted as *Lieut. Gov.* 1677.
Sir Henry Chirchley, *Deputy*, 1678.
Nicholas Spencer, *President*, 1683.
Francis, Lord Howard, 1684.
Nathaniel Bacon, *Pres. of Council*, 1688.
Francis Nicholson, *Lieut.* 1690.
Sir Edmund Andros, chief *Gov.* 1692.
Francis Nicholson, *Ditto.* 1698.
Edward Nott, 1705.
Edward Jennings, *Pres.* 1706.
Alexander Spotswood, 1710.
Hugh Drysdale, 1722.
Robert Carter, *Pres.* 1726.
William Gooch, 1727.
In the interval till 1752, patents were signed by Thomas Lee, and Lewis Burwell, *Pres. of the council.*
Robert Dinwiddie, 1752.
Francis Fauquier, *Lieut.* 1758.
John Blair, *Pres.* 1767.
Norborne, Lord Botetourt, 1767.
William Nelson, *Pres.* 1770.
John, Lord Dunmore, 1772.

Convention at Richmond, Peyton Randolph, *President*, organizes provisional government, July, 1775.
Convention at Richmond, Edmund Pendleton, *President*, Dec. 1775.
Ditto. Patrick Henry, *first Gov.* of independent Virginia, 1776 to 1778.

Thomas Jefferson, 1779.
Thomas Nelson, 1781.
Benjamin Harrison, 1782.
Patrick Henry, 1785.
Edmund Randolph, 1786.
Beverly Randolph, 1788.
Henry Lee, Dec. 1791.
Robert Brooke, Dec. 1794.
James Wood, Dec. 1797.
James Monroe, 1800.
John Page, 1803.
William H. Cabell, 1806.
John Tyler, 1809.
James Monroe, Dec. 1810.
George W. Smith, Dec. 1811, (burnt in the theatre).
James Barbour, 1812.
Wilson Carey Nicholas, 1814.
James P. Preston, 1816.
Thomas M. Randolph, 1819 to 1822.

* Sir Thomas Smith presided over the council and company in England. During his time the following persons actually governed Virginia.

1 Edward Maria Wingfield, *Pres. of Council.*
2 John Radcliffe, *President of Council.*
3 John Smith, *the father of Virginia, do.*
4 George Percy, *Pres. of council.*
5 Lord De la War, *Gov.*
6 Sir Thomas Dale,
7 Sir Thomas Gates,
8 Sir Thomas Dale,
9 Capt. George Yeardley,
10 Capt. Argall,
} *Gov.*

NORTH CAROLINA.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

NORTH CAROLINA is situated between 33° 53′ and 36° 33′ N. lat. and 1° 33′ E. and 6° 20′ W. long. It is bounded north by Virginia; east by the Atlantic; south by South Carolina, and west by Tennessee. Its mean length is about 362 miles, and mean breadth 121; its area being about 43,800 square miles, or 28,032,000 acres.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

Along the whole coast of North Carolina is a ridge of sand, separated from the main land, in some places by narrow sounds, in others by broad bays. The passages or inlets through it are shallow and dangerous, and Ocracoke Inlet is the only one, north of Cape Fear, through which vessels pass. In the counties on the sea-coast, the land is low and covered with extensive swamps and marshes, and for 60 or 80 miles from the shore is a dead level. Beyond this, the country swells into hills, and in the most western part of the state, rises into mountains. In the low country the soil is generally sandy, and covered with immense forests of pitch pine; in the swamps, rice of a fine quality is raised; and in the upper country, wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, and Indian corn.

Capes, Inlets, Sounds, and Swamps.

The three principal capes are Cape Hatteras, Cape Lookout, and Cape Fear. All of them are dangerous to mariners, particularly Cape Hatteras. Numerous vessels have been shipwrecked on this coast. The principal inlets are Currituck, Roanoke, and Ocracoke: the last only is navigable. Albemarle Sound, in the N. E. part of the state, is 60 miles long from east to west, and from four to 15 wide. It communicates with Pamlico Sound and the ocean, by several narrow inlets, and with Chesapeake Bay by a canal cut through Dismal Swamp. Pamlico Sound is 86 miles long, and from 10 to 20 broad. The Great Dismal Swamp is in the north-east part of the state, and extends into Virginia. It is 30 miles long from north to south, and 10 broad, and embraces about 150,000 acres generally covered with trees. In the centre is Drummond's pond, 15 miles in circum-

ference. The Little Dismal, or Alligator Swamp, lies between Albemarle and Pamlico Sounds.

Rivers.

The Chowan rises in Virginia, and falls into Albemarle Sound. The Roanoke is formed by the union of the Staunton and Dan, both of which rise in Virginia. It empties itself into Albemarle Sound, and is navigable for vessels of 30 or 40 tons to the Great Falls, 70 miles from its mouth. A canal is now in progress around the falls, which will open a batteaux navigation through the whole length of the river, and another canal is completed around the falls of the Dan, at Danville, in Virginia, which, with the removal of a few other obstructions, will continue the navigation on the Dan for some distance above that town. The Pamlico, or Tar River, rises in the northern part of the state, and flowing south-east, falls into Pamlico Sound. It is navigable for boats to Tarborough, 90 miles. The Neuse rises also in the northern part of the state, and, after a south-east course of more than 500 miles, falls into Pamlico Sound, 70 miles below Newbern. It is navigable for sea vessels 12 miles above Newbern, and for boats 200. Cape Fear River is formed by two branches, which unite above Wilmington, 35 miles from the ocean. There is 18 feet water on the bar at its mouth. Large vessels can ascend 21 miles, and vessels drawing 10 or 12 feet water, to Wilmington. The north-west branch is formed by the union of the Haw and Deep Rivers, and is navigable for boats to Fayetteville, 90 miles. The north-east branch is navigable for boats 70 miles. The Yadkin rises in the western part of the state, between the Alleghany and Brushy Mountains, and flows south-east into South Carolina, under the name of the Great Pedee. In Montgomery county are the Narrows, where the river descends 321 feet in 24 miles. The Catawba rises in the western part of the state, and passes into South Carolina, where it takes the name of Wateree.

Climate.

The climate in the low country is subject to great and sudden changes, and is often unhealthy in the fall. Generally the winters are mild, but very changeable. The spring is early, but subject to occasional frosts. The summers are hot and sultry, but the autumns are serene and beautiful. In the neighbourhood of marshes and swamps, however, the exhalations from decaying vegetables is, during this period, very pernicious. In the upper country the weather is settled, and the climate very healthy. Among the mountains the climate is delightful, though the winter weather is sometimes very cold.

Civil Divisions and Population.

	Whites.	*Coloured.*	*Total.*
Anson	8,851	3,683	12,534
Ash	4,045	290	4,335
Buncombe	9,467	1,075	10,542
Burke	11,419	1,992	13,411
Beaufort	5,869	3,981	9,850
Bladen	4,406	2,870	7,276
Bertie	4,830	5,975	10,805
Brunswick	2,937	2,543	5,480
Camden	4,441	1,906	6,347
Cumberland	9,125	5,321	14,446
Currituck	6,098	2,000	8,098
Carteret	4,171	1,438	5,609
Columbus	2,922	990	3,912
Chatham	8,672	3,989	12,661
Chowan	2,839	3,625	6,464
Craven	6,563	6,831	13,394
Cabarras	5,632	1,616	7,248
Caswell	7,743	5,510	13,253
Duplin	6,064	3,690	9,744
Edgecomb	7,273	6,003	13,276
Franklin	4,873	4,868	9,741
Guilford	12,692	1,819	14,511
Granville	8,624	9,598	18,222
Gates	3,989	2,848	6,837
Green	2,294	2,289	4,533
Hyde	3,241	1,726	4,967
Halifax	6,236	11,001	17,237
Hertford	3,680	4,032	7,712
Heywood	3,780	293	4,073
Iredel	10,058	3,013	13,071
Jones	2,300	2,916	5,216
Johnson	6,406	3,201	9,607
Lenoir	3,331	3,468	6,799
Lincoln	14,791	3,356	18,147
Mecklenburg	11,685	5,210	16,895
Martin	3,378	2,942	6,320
Moore	5,778	1,350	7,128
Montgomery	6,863	1,830	8,693
Northampton	5,254	7,966	13,220
Nash	4,582	3,663	8,245
New Hanover	5,186	5,680	10,866
Onslow	4,171	2,845	7,016
Orange	16,777	6,715	23,492
Pitt	5,331	4,670	10,001
Pasquotank	4,869	3,148	8,008
Person	5,275	3,754	9,029
Perquemans	4,179	2,678	6,857
Rutherford	11,989	3,362	15,351
Rockingham	8,350	3,124	11,474
Richmond	5,459	2,078	7,537
Randolph	10,017	1,314	11,331
Robeson	5,677	2,527	8,204
Rowan	20,499	5,510	27,009
Surrey	10,623	1,697	12,320
Stokes	11,651	2,879	14,033
Sampson	5,878	3,030	8,908
Tyrrel	3,007	1,312	4,319
Wilks	8,643	1,324	9,967
Wake	11,951	8,151	20,102
Washington	2,242	1,744	3,986
Warren	4,214	6,944	11,158
Wayne	5,721	3,319	9,040
Total Whites			419,200
Total Coloured			219,629
General Total			638,829

By the census of 1790, North Carolina contained 393,751 inhabitants. In 1800, 478,103. In 1810, 555,500. In 1820, 638,829, as in the foregoing table. Of these there are free white males, 209,644; free white females, 209,556. The free coloured population amounts to 14,612; and there are 205,017 slaves.

Chief Towns.

Raleigh, the seat of government, is pleasantly situated near the centre of the state. Newbern, the largest town, is on a flat sandy point of land, at the junction of Neuse River with the Trent. Fayetteville is regularly laid out near the west bank of Cape Fear River, at the head of boat navigation, and is one of the most flourishing commercial towns in the state. Wilmington is on the east side of Cape Fear River, just below the confluence of the two branches, 35 miles from the sea. The harbour admits vessels of 300 tons; but the entrance is rendered dangerous and difficult by a large shoal. More produce is exported from this port than

from any other in the state. Edenton is on Albemarle Sound, near the mouth of Chowan River.

Internal Improvements.

Since the year 1815, the state has been zealously engaged in the business of internal improvements. It is intended to improve the navigation of the inlets and sounds, so as to open a direct and easy communication with the ocean; to remove the obstructions in the navigation of the principal rivers; to connect the rivers by navigable canals; to improve the roads; and to drain the marshes and swamps of the eastern and southern counties. In prosecution of these plans, skilful engineers have been employed, for several years, in making the necessary surveys, and several private companies have been formed under the patronage of the state. In 1820, the legislature appropriated, for the purpose of internal improvements, the proceeds of the sale of all the Cherokee lands, which have lately come into the possession of the state.

Natural Curiosity.

Ararat, or Pilot Mountain, near Salem, in Stokes county, is regarded as a curiosity. It rises gradually, like a pyramid, to the height of several thousand feet, and then shoots up suddenly like a steeple, to the height of 300 feet, and terminates in a flat surface, from which there is a noble view of the surrounding country, for an immense distance. The diameter of the steeple part of the mountain, at the bottom, is not more than from 100 to 200 feet. This mountain can be seen at the distance of 60 or 70 miles, overlooking the country below. It was called Pilot Mountain by the Indians, because it served them for a beacon, by which they conducted their routes in the old Indian wars.

Commerce and Manufactures.

Not a single point has been found on the coast within the limits of the state, at which a safe and commodious port could be established. Hitherto the productions of the northern parts of the state lying on the Roanoke and its branches, and also on the upper parts of the Tar and Neuse, have been sent to the markets of Virginia; and the trade of the Catawba and the Yadkin has gone to South Carolina. The principal exports are pitch, tar, turpentine, lumber, Indian corn, tobacco, &c. The exports in 1820, amounted in value to 808,319 dollars, and consisted almost exclusively of domestic produce. The amount of revenue paid into the national treasury in 1815, was 345,204 dollars. The value of the manufactures in 1810 was 6,653,152 dollars.

Education.

Within a few years much zeal has been displayed in the establishment of academies and schools. Until 1804, there were but

two academies in the state. The number at present is 50, and is rapidly increasing; and there is a flourishing university at Chapel Hill, 28 miles west of Raleigh, called the university of North Carolina.

Religion.

The most numerous denominations of Christians, are the methodists and baptists, especially in the low country. The western part of the state was settled by presbyterians from Pennsylvania.

Government.

The constitution of this state was formed in December, 1776. The legislature is styled the General Assemby, and consists of a senate and house of commons. The senators are chosen annually, one from each county, and must possess 300 acres of land, and have resided the preceding year in the county. The members of the house of commons are chosen annually, two from each county, and one from each of the towns of Edenton, Newbern, Wilmington, Salisbury, Hillsborough, and Halifax, and must be possessed of 100 acres of land, and have been residents for a year. Electors of the senate must possess 50 acres, and have resided in the county one year. Electors of members of the house of commons, must have resided one year, and paid taxes. The governor is chosen annually, by a joint ballot of the two houses, and is eligible 3 years in 6. He must be 30 years of age, have a freehold worth 1000 dollars, and have resided in the state five years. He is assisted by an executive council, composed of seven persons, chosen annually, by joint ballot of the two houses. The judges of the supreme courts are also elected by joint ballot of the assembly, and hold their offices during good behaviour.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

NORTH CAROLINA was the first seat of English colonization in North America. This country originally formed part of that extensive region, which, by the French, was named *Florida*, and by the English, *Virginia;* and was included in the patent granted in 1584 to Sir Walter Raleigh. Amidas and Barlow, who had been sent out under his direction, discovered Pamlico Sound, and took possession of the country in the name of Queen Elizabeth, on the 4th of July, a memorable day in the history of the United States. After exploring the country, where they were hospitably received, they returned to England, carrying with them two of the Indians. A second expedition, commanded by Ralph Lane and Sir Richard Granville, arrived on the coast of North Carolina, in July of the following year. They landed a party, who engaged in a dispute with the Indians, and wantonly burnt their

town and destroyed their corn. In August the vessels returned to England, leaving a colony of about one hundred persons on the island of Roanoke. Soon after their departure, the Indians entered into a plot to destroy the colony. The scheme was ripe for execution, when the secret was discovered to Lane, who took effectual measures to counteract it. The colony escaped destruction, but their sufferings had been great, and when, in the spring of 1586, Sir Francis Drake visited the coast, they took advantage of the opportunity, and returned to England. A few days after their departure, several vessels arrived with stores and colonists, but finding no remains of the colony, they left the coast. Raleigh, not discouraged by these disappointments, fitted out three vessels the next spring, and stocking them with colonists, obtained a charter for the company, under the name of "The Governor and Assistants of the City of Raleigh, in Virginia." Misfortunes still attended the attempt. A colony was left on Roanoke, consisting of upwards of one hundred persons; but when, three years afterwards, some vessels touched at the island, they found a deserted and ruined town, without seeing a human being, and from that period no knowledge has been gained of the missing colony. Many years passed away before the attempt to settle North Carolina was renewed.

About the middle of the seventeenth century, some planters emigrated from Virginia, and with others began a settlement in the county of Albemarle. They found the climate mild, and the soil fertile. From the flattering description which they gave of the country, a considerable number of families were induced to join them, and thus began the first permanent settlement of North Carolina. In 1661, another settlement was made near Cape Fear, by a number of adventurers from Massachusetts, who obtained a grant of their lands from the native proprietors of the soil. They suffered severely, however, from the Indians, who at last broke up the settlement, on the pretence that some of their children, whom the settlers had obtained for the ostensible purpose of sending them to Massachusetts for education, had been sold into slavery. In 1665, a colony arrived from Barbadoes, and purchased a considerable tract of land from Sir William Berkeley, who allowed three years for the payment of quit rents, and held out encouraging offers to settlers. To each person who should make an actual settlement, he offered 100 acres in fee; the same quantity for each child and man servant, and for women servants and slaves, the portion was 50 acres. This colony, which consisted of 800 persons, carried on a commerce with Barbadoes, exchanging staves for dry goods, and the produce of the island.

While these settlements were struggling with the difficulties incidental to their situation, the whole country between the 31st and 36th degrees of north latitude, was granted by Charles II. to Lord Clarendon and others. Under this patent the proprietors

claimed Carolina, and also jurisdiction over all who had settled within it, and placed them under the general superintendence of Sir William Berkeley, the governor of Virginia. The inhabitants of Albemarle, who had purchased their lands of the Indians, and supported themselves without the aid of the patentees, were naturally dissatisfied with the prospect of being compelled to pay quit rents. They petitioned that they might be allowed to hold their lands on the same terms as lands were held in Virginia. This reasonable request was not immediately granted, and the settlers revolted from the government of the proprietors for nearly two years; but, on receiving assurances that their petition was granted, they submitted to the new order of things. In 1667, a constitution was framed for the government of the infant colony. A general assembly was to be constituted, consisting of the governor, who was to be chosen by the proprietors, 12 counsellors, and 12 delegates, annually chosen by the freeholders. No taxes were to be laid, except by consent of the assembly. Two years afterwards, a constitution, remarkable for the novelty and extravagance of its features, and equally remarkable as having been the production of the famous John Locke, was attempted to be put in force. By the provisions of this singular instrument, a palatine or president was to be chosen for life; an hereditary nobility was to be created, consisting of landgraves and caciques; the former to possess 16,000, the latter 4000 acres of land; the estates and titles to descend concurrently for ever; the parliament was to consist of the proprietors, the nobility, and the representatives of the freeholders; they were all to assemble in one apartment; they had no power of originating laws, but could only decide on such as should be prepared in the grand council of governor, nobility, and proprietary deputies. The whole number of regulations in this constitution, amounted to 120. Unfortunately there were no nobility in the settlement, and the titles sat awkwardly on the rude planters. The commonalty were dissatisfied with the proposition; and their discontent, aggravated by other causes, at last found vent in an open insurrection. The palatine, and some of the new-fledged nobles, were overpowered and put in prison, and the insurgents exercised authority during the space of two years. For many years after this period, a state of things prevailed in North Carolina not very favourable to the improvement of the colony. Government was feebly administered, the presiding officers were frequently changed or deposed, and morals were greatly relaxed. The progress of the settlements was very slow. In 1702, the whole province is said to have contained only 6000 persons. In 1710, a considerable number of Palatines arrived, and settled near the Roanoke, in Albemarle and Bath counties.

For many years the settlers of North Carolina had lived in great harmony with the Indians; and it does not appear that any provocation was given to the latter, other than that which arose from the increasing numbers and gradual encroachment of the

whites. In 1712, however, a horrible outrage was committed. The Corees and Tuscaroras conceived the design of destroying in cold blood all the whites in Carolina. Accordingly, on a night mutually fixed for the purpose, when the planters were unsuspicious of evil, the savages entered their houses, and commenced an indiscriminate slaughter. Of the Roanoke settlers, 107 were butchered in one night. The alarm having been given, many escaped the meditated destruction. Information was sent immediately to Charleston, whence the assembly sent a body of 600 militia, under Colonel Barnwell, who were joined by a number of friendly Indians. With much difficulty the commander explored his way through the wilderness that then separated the two Carolinas. Having overcome these difficulties, however, he surprised the Tuscaroras, killed about 300, and made 100 prisoners; those who survived sought refuge in their fortified town, but they were pursued by Barnwell, and attacked. A great number were killed, and the survivors, to whom terms of peace had been granted, soon afterwards left the country, and united themselves with the Five Nations. In 1717, the proprietors sold the province to the crown for the sum of 17,500*l.* sterling; and from this period to the epoch of independence, the government was administered by officers appointed by the king. The colony soon afterwards received an accession of numbers by the arrival of some Moravians, who settled between the rivers Yadkin and Dan, and of Irish and Scotch Presbyterians, who established themselves in the north-western parts. Its prosperity, however, was again retarded by an insurrection in 1771, of the inhabitants of the western counties, who styled themselves "Regulators;" and, complaining of oppressions practised in the administration of justice, professed a desire to regulate these matters by destroying the lawyers. With this charitable view they organized themselves into a formidable body of 1500 men, but Governor Tryon marched against them with about 1000 militia, and totally defeated them. Three hundred were killed, and the remainder sued for mercy. Soon after this period, the contest with Great Britain commenced, and although this colony had suffered perhaps less than any other from British misgovernment, the majority of the inhabitants joined heartily with their brethren of the other colonies in opposition to the schemes of the British ministry, and afterwards in the declaration of independence.

During the war of the revolution, North Carolina was for a long time the theatre of hostilities, in which much blood was spilt. Since the peace of 1783, her progress has been so tranquil as to afford few materials for history.

GOVERNORS.

Under the Royal Government.

1729 Sir Richard Everard, Bart.	1754 Arthur Dobbs.
1734 Gabriel Johnston.	1766 William Tryon.
1753 Matthew Rowan.	1773. Joseph Martin.

Under the Republican Government.

1777 Richard Caswell.	1802 James Turner.
1780 Abner Nash.	1805 Nathaniel Alexander.
1782 Thomas Burke.	1807 Benjamin Williams.
1784 Alexander Martin.	1808 David Stone.
1785 Richard Caswell.	1810 Benjamin Smith.
1788 Samuel Johnston.	1811 William Hawkins.
1790 Alexander Martin.	1814 William Miller.
1793 Richard D. Spaight.	1817 John Branch.
1796 Samuel Ashe.	1820 Jesse Franklin.
1799 Benjamin Williams.	1821 Gabriel Holmes.

Places remarkable for Battles and Sieges.

1776, Moore's Creek Bridge. The royalists defeated by the provincials with loss, February 21.

1780, King's Mountain. The British defeated, and compelled to surrender by the American militia, October 7.

1781, Guilford. Battle between the Americans and the British, in which the former were defeated, March 15.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

SOUTH CAROLINA is situated between 32° 2′ and 35° 10′ N. lat. and 1° 45′ and 6° 15′ W. long. It is bounded north and north-east by North Carolina; south-east by the Atlantic; and south-west by Georgia, from which it is separated by Savannah River. It is 188 miles long, by 160 broad; the area being 30,080 square miles, or 19,251,200 acres.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

The sea-coast is bordered with a fine chain of islands, between which and the shore there is a very convenient navigation. The main land is by nature divided into the Lower and Upper country. The low country extends 80 or 100 miles from the coast, and is covered with extensive forests of pitch pine, called pine barrens, interpersed with swamps and marshes of a rich soil. After leaving the low country, in proceeding into the interior, you first pass through a region of little sand hills, resembling the waves of the ocean in a high sea. This curious country, sometimes called the middle country, continues for 50 or 60 miles, till you arrive at the

Ridge, which is a remarkable tract of high ground as you approach it from the sea, but level as you advance from the north-west. Beyond this ridge, commences a fine healthy country of hills and dales, and, in the western extremity of the state, rising into lofty mountains. The banks of the large rivers and the creeks in the low country, are bordered with a belt of excellent land, producing cotton and maize in abundance; the marshes and swamps in this district make fine rice plantations; and some of the low grounds between the sand hills in the middle district, are suitable for agriculture and pasturage; but with these exceptions, the country below the Ridge has generally a sandy barren soil, not worth cultivation. The soil of the upper country is generally strong and productive. Cotton and rice are the staple productions of the state; the climate and soil are well adapted to tobacco, grain, and indigo, and these were formerly cultivated to a great extent; but the cultivation of cotton has become so profitable that almost every thing else is neglected.

Climate.

The climate of the upper country is healthy at all seasons of the year. In the low country, the summer months are sickly, particularly August and September; and at this season the climate frequently proves fatal to strangers.

Rivers and Canal.

The Savannah, on the west, separates the state from Georgia. It rises in the Alleghany Mountains, and its course is south-east to the ocean. It is navigable for large vessels 18 miles, to Savannah, and for smaller vessels to the falls at Augusta, 140 miles further. Boats proceed above the falls 60 miles without obstruction.

The Pedee, in the eastern part of the state, falls into Georgetown Bay. It rises in North Carolina, where it is called the Yadkin. It is navigable for boats nearly to the boundary between the two states.

The Santee, the great river of South Carolina, is formed by the union of the Congaree and the Wateree, near the centre of the state, and, running south-east, falls into the ocean by two mouths. It is navigable through its whole extent, and as far as Camden on the Wateree branch, and Columbia on the Congaree.

Cooper and Ashley Rivers fall into Charlestown harbour.

Edisto River empties itself at Edisto Island, 20 miles south-west of Charleston, and the Combahee a few miles further west.

There is a canal 22 miles long, connecting Santee and Cooper Rivers, by which the produce of a large section of this state, and of a part of North Carolina, is brought to the city of Charleston.

Chief Towns.

Charleston, the largest town in the state, is situated on a penin-

sula between the rivers Ashley and Cooper, which unite immediately below the city, and form a spacious and convenient harbour, communicating with the ocean at Sullivan's Island, seven miles south-east of the city. The harbour has a bar at its mouth, through which are two channels for sea vessels; the deepest has 16 feet of water at low tide. This city is considered more healthy than any other part of the low country of the southern states, and during the sickly season is the resort of rich planters from the country and the West Indies.

Civil Divisions and Population.

	Whites.	*Slaves.*	*Free Blacks.*	*Total.*
City of Charleston .	10,653	12,652	1,475	24,780
St. James, St. Andrews, St. John's Colleton, St. Philip . . .	6,626	24,639	1,865	33,130
St. Thomas, St. Dennis, St. Stephen, Christ Church, St. James Santee, St. John's, Berkley .	2,117	19,930	255	22,302
Chester district . .	9,611	4,542	36	14,189
Laurens district,	12,755	4,878	49	17,682
Marlborough district,	3,250	3,033	142	6,425
Union district,	9,786	4,278	62	14,126
Pendleton district,	22,140	4,715	167	27,022
Newberry district,	10,177	5,749	178	16,104
Marion district,	6,652	3,463	86	10,201
Lexington district,	5,267	2,801	15	8,083
Williamsburg district,	2,795	5,864	57	8,716
Lancaster district,	5,848	2,798	70	8,716
Darlington district,	6,407	4,473	69	10,949
Edgefield district,	12,864	12,198	57	25,119
Georgetown district,	1,830	15,546	227	17,603
Chesterfield district,	4,412	2,062	171	6,645
Horry district,	3,568	1,434	23	5,025
Barnwell district,	8,162	6,336	252	14,750
Abbeville district,	13,488	9,615	64	23,167
Greenville district,	11,017	3,423	90	14,530
Orangeburg district,	6,760	8,829	64	15,653
Sumter district,	8,844	16,143	382	25,369
Beaufort district,	4,679	27,339	181	32,199
York district,	10,251	4,590	95	14,936
Richland district,	4,429	7,627	195	12,321
Colleton district,	4,341	21,770	293	26,404
Spartanburg district,	13,655	3,308	26	16,989
Fairfield district,	9,378	7,748	48	17,174
Kershaw district,	5,628	6,692	112	12,432
Totals	237,460	258,475	6,306	502,741

Columbia, the seat of government, is regularly laid out on an elevated plain on the banks of the Congaree.

Georgetown is on Winyaw Bay, near the mouth of the Pedee, 13 miles from the sea. It is well situated for trade, being in the neighbourhod of fertile lands, and connected by the Pedee and its branches with an extensive back country; but there is a bar at the mouth of Winyaw Bay which prevents the entrance of vessels drawing more than 11 feet water.

Beaufort is on an island, 72 miles south-west of Charleston.

Commerce and Manufactures.

In 1820, the domestic exports of South Carolina exceeded those of any other state, amounting to 8,690,539 dollars. Cotton is the staple of the state. The other articles are rice, lumber, pitch, tar, turpentine, &c. A large part of this produce is exported in ships belonging to the merchants of the northern states. The amount of shipping in 1816 belonging to the state was only 37,614 tons. Very little attention is paid to manufactures in this state. The value of the manufactures in 1810 was only 3,623,595 dollars.

Education.

South Carolina college at Columbia is a flourishing institution, and has been liberally patronised by the state. Colleges have been incorporated in Abbeville district, in Beaufort, and in Winnsborough; but they have not taken a higher rank than academies. Free schools are established throughout the state, and the sum of 30,000 dollars annually has been appropriated by the legislature for their support.

Religion.

The most numerous religious denominations are Methodists and Baptists. Next to them are the Presbyterians and Episcopalians.

Government.

The present constitution of South Carolina was adopted in 1790. The legislature consists of a senate and a house of representatives. The former is composed of 43 members, who are elected for four years by districts. A senator must be a free white man, and 30 years of age, and, if a resident in the district, must be worth a freehold estate of 300*l.* sterling; if a non-resident in the district, must possess a freehold therein worth 1000*l.* sterling. One half of the senators vacate their seats every two years. The house of representatives consists of 124 members, chosen every two years by districts. A representative must be a free white man, 21 years of age; if a resident, must be worth 500 acres of land, or a real estate of the value of 150*l.* sterling. If a non-resident he must be possessed of a freehold estate therein of the value of 500*l.* sterling. The governor is chosen every two years by a joint ballot of both houses. He can serve the office only two years in six. He must

be 30 years of age, and have resided within the state and been a citizen thereof ten years, and must possess a settled estate within the same of the value of 1500*l.* sterling. A lieutenant-governor is chosen for the same time, and must have the same qualifications. The judicial power is vested in such superior and inferior courts of law and equity as the legislature from time to time direct and establish. The judges of each hold their commissions during good behaviour, and the superior courts receive for their services a compensation which can neither be increased nor diminished during their continuance in office. The elective franchise is vested in all free white men of the age of 21 years, (paupers and non-commissioned officers and soldiers of the United States army excepted), who are citizens of the state, and have resided therein two years next preceding the election, and who have a freehold of 50 acres of land, or a town lot, or, not having such property, have been residents in the election district six months before the election.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

NEARLY two centuries elapsed from the discovery of the coast of Carolina before any permanent settlement was effected. The germ of the population of South Carolina was first planted at or near Port Royal, in 1670, by a few emigrants from England, under the direction of William Sayle, the first governor of the province. Dissatisfied with the situation, they removed, in 1671, to the western bank of Ashley River, and there laid the foundation of old Charleston. The site was injudiciously chosen, for it could not be approached by vessels of large burden, and it was in consequence abandoned. A second removal took place in 1680 to Oyster Point, a spot at the confluence of the rivers Ashley and Cooper, where the foundation of the present city of Charleston was laid, and in one year thirty houses were built.

The territory which now composes the two states of North and South Carolina, was, at the period of the settlement of the latter province, vested in a number of proprietors. In 1662, after the restoration of Charles II. the Earl of Clarendon and seven others obtained a grant of all lands lying between the 31st and 36th degrees of north latitude. Two years afterwards a second charter enlarged their boundaries, extending them eastward as far as the north end of Currituck Inlet, upon a straight line westwardly to Wyonoke Creek, in about 36° 30′; and so west in a direct line as far as the South Sea; and south and westward as far as the latitude of 29° inclusive, and so west in direct lines to the South Sea. Of this large territory the king constituted these eight persons absolute lords proprietors; giving them all the necessary powers

to settle and govern the same. The settlement at Port Royal received the name of South Carolina soon after its commencement; but the colonies continued the joint property of the same persons for many years. They had, however, separate governors and assemblies. On the settlement of South Carolina, the proprietors engaged the celebrated John Locke to frame for them a constitution and body of laws. The system of government proposed by this philosopher, was ill suited to the condition or views of the American settlers. The constitution consisted of 120 articles, and was partly aristocratical and partly founded on feudal principles. Three classes of nobility were to be established, viz., barons, caciques, and landgraves. The first were to possess 12, the second 24, and the third 48 thousand acres of land; which was to remain unalienable in their families. The parliament, which consisted of one house only, was composed of the lords proprietors, landgraves, caciques, and deputies from the free inhabitants holding heritable property. This plan of government produced nothing but anarchy and discord. Its spirit was adverse to the democratical opinions of the colonists, and encouraged the proprietaries in many violent and arbitrary proceedings. But their most bitter dissensions were respecting religion. The episcopalians being more numerous than the dissenters, attempted to exclude the latter from a seat in the legislature. This attempt succeeded by a majority of votes, and the church of England was established by law. A train of evil consequences followed, which were the principal cause of the revolution that happened not long afterwards. The obnoxious act was annulled by the British government on a remonstrance from the inhabitants in 1705; but tranquillity was not restored. A change of government was generally desired by the colonists. They preferred the control of a monarch to the tyranny of an oligarchy, and in 1719 effected a change in the system, by which the government was vested in the crown.

In 1729, the proprietors gave up their rights to the government upon receiving an indemnity, except Lord Carteret, who never formally ceded his share. From this period the colony was governed on the same plan as the others, and its growth became more rapid. Population began to pour in when discord subsided. After the final conquest of New York by the English, many Dutch emigrants settled in the province. The revocation of the edict of Nantz contributed greatly to its prosperity, more by the respectability and useful character of the French protestants, who established themselves in Carolina, than by their numbers. They generally settled themselves on the Santee River. The insurrections in England in 1715 and 1745 in favour of the Stuarts, sent a number of exiles to South Carolina: many arrived from Germany and Switzerland, and the British government transported 1500 French colonists from Nova Scotia. Besides these,

the bounty of 14*l.* currency which had been allowed in 1712, for the importation of every healthy male person between 12 and 30, was the means of procuring great numbers of settlers. The prosperity of Carolina had also been promoted by another cause. About the end of the 17th century a vessel from Madagascár touched at this province. Governor Smith visited the captain, who presented him with a bag of seed rice, informing him of the manner of cultivating it, of its nutriciousness and great increase. The seed was divided among several planters, and was found fully to answer expectation. From this accidental circumstance was introduced what soon became one of the staple commodities of South Carolina.

The progress of this state in population and prosperity, was, however, impeded in the early part of the 18th century, by the hostility of the Indians and of the Spaniards of Florida. In 1702, an expedition was fitted out at the suggestion of Governor Moore, for an attack on St. Augustine, although war had not been formally declared by Britain against Spain. The governor was in person at the head of the expedition, which was unfortunate in its management and conclusion. The troops were landed, and the siege commenced; but on the arrival of two Spanish vessels, the governor hastily retreated by land with his men, abandoning his ships to the Spaniards. The next year, the Apalachian Indians having been the cause of great annoyance to the settlers, Governor Moore marched into their country, destroyed their towns between the Alatahama and the Savannah, and, after killing a large number, compelled these savages to submit to the British government. In 1706, the Spaniards and French, as a retaliation for the attempt upon St. Augustine, prepared an expedition against Charleston. It consisted of a French frigate under Captain Le Feboure, and four armed sloops, having on board about 800 men. The province was then under the direction of Governor Johnson, a man of courage and abilities. By his strenuous exertions the town was placed in a state of defence, which deterred the Spaniards from prosecuting their attempt further than to land a small body of troops. These were attacked by Johnson, and most of them killed or taken prisoners. The squadron and the remainder of the troops returned to Florida, without having effected any of the purposes for which they were sent out. From 1712 to 1718, the inhabitants of South Carolina, were engaged in an unvarying round of hostilities with the Tuscaroras of North Carolina, and with the Yamassees of their own province. These wars were undertaken by the Indians with the declared object of exterminating the whites. From 1755 to 1759, the province was harassed by the encroachments of the Cherokees, who made incursions into the frontier settlements, and broke them up. Quiet was restored for a short time by a treaty of peace; but, in 1760, hostilities again broke out with these savages. The unfor-

tunate settlers were exposed to every variety of hardship and suffering, and, to add to their calamities, the small-pox raged with destructive violence among them. This state of things continued until 1763, when a general peace was concluded.

From this period until the revolution of 1776, the province of South Carolina enjoyed great prosperity, and the population nearly doubled itself. At the commencement of the revolutionary contest, the Carolinians, who had experienced little of the oppressive system which the British government had exercised towards the more northern colonies, were somewhat undecided as to the part they ought to take. At this period a mail brought by the English packet was seized by the patriotic committee, and was found to contain instructions to the governors of Virginia and the Carolinas, to make an immediate and effectual use of military force. This circumstance seems to have determined the conduct of the colonists of South Carolina. During the long struggle which followed, this state suffered much both from the British and Indians and the disaffected within. The war in South Carolina and its vicinity was remarkable both for general actions of great importance to the public cause, and for the display of individual bravery and patriotism. The battles of the Cowpens and Eutaw Springs may vie with any in the revolutionary contest for the skill and courage of the troops; while the names of Marion, Sumter, and Lee, the gallant leaders of the partisan war will occupy a prominent place in history. The city of Charleston was twice besieged by the enemy. Once in 1776 unsuccessfully, and again in 1780, when, notwithstanding the determined resistance of the inhabitants and garrison, it fell into the hands of the British. The victory of Eutaw Springs, in 1781, relieved the state from the pressure of the war, and contributed to the successful issue of the conflict.

The history of South Carolina since the revolution is merged in that of the United States.

GOVERNORS.

Under the Proprietary Government.

1670 William Sayle.	1693 Thomas Smith.
1671 Joseph West.	1694 Joseph Blake.
1671 John Yeamans.	1695 John Archdale.
1674 Joseph West.	1696 Joseph Blake.
1682 Joseph Morton.	1700 James Moore.
1684 Joseph West.	1703 Nathaniel Johnson.
1684 Richard Kirk.	1709 Edward Tynte.
1684 Robert Quarry.	1710 Robert Gibbes.
1685 Joseph Morton.	1712 Charles Craven.
1686 James Colleton.	1716 Robert Daniel.
1690 Seth Sothell.	1719 Robert Johnson.
1692 Philip Ludwell.	1719 James Moore.

In 1719 the proprietary government was abolished, and the people established a temporary republican government.

1719 Arthur Middleton.

Under the Regal Government.

1721 Francis Nicholson.
1725 Arthur Middleton.
1730 Robert Johnson.
1735 Thomas Broughton.
1737 William Bull.
1743 James Glen.
1756 William H. Littleton.
1760 William Bull.
1762 Thomas Boone.
1763 William Bull.
1766 Charles Montague.
1769 William Bull.
1775 William Campbell.

Under the Republican Government.

1775 John Rutledge.
1778 Rawlins Lowndes.
1779 John Rutledge.
1782 John Mathews.
1783 Benjamin Guerard.
1785 William Moultrie.
1787 Thomas Pinckney.
1789 Charles Pinckney.
1790 Charles Pinckney.
1792 Arnoldus Vanderhorst.
1794 William Moultrie.
1796 Charles Pinckney.
1798 Edward Rutledge.
1800 John Drayton.
1802 James B. Richardson.
1804 Paul Hamilton.
1806 Charles Pinckney.
1808 John Drayton.
1810 Henry Middleton.
1812 Joseph Alston.
1814 David R. Williams.
1816 Andrew Pickens.
1818 John Geddes.
1820 Thomas Bennet.

Places remarkable for Battles, and Sieges.

1776, Fort Moultrie. The British defeated in an attempt upon Charleston, June 28.—*Charleston.*

1779, Port Royal. The British attacked and defeated by General Moultrie.—*Beaufort.*

1779, St. John's. General Lincoln attacks the British post without success.—*Charleston.*

1780, Monk's Corner. The American cavalry surprised and defeated by the British, April 14.—*Charleston.*

1780, Charleston taken by the British, May 12.

1780, Camden. The Americans defeated by the British under Cornwallis, August 16.—*Kershaw.*

1780, Broad River. The British attack and are defeated by General Sumter, Oct.—*Beaufort.*

1780, Tyger River. Tarleton attacks General Sumter, and is defeated, Oct.—*Union.*

1781, Cowpens. The British defeated by General Morgan, Jan. 17.—*Spartanburg.*

1781, Fort Watson. Taken by Lieutenant-Colonel Lee from the British, April 14.—*Sumter.*

1781, Hobkirk's Hill. The Americans repulsed by the British, April 25.—*Kershaw.*

1781, Ninety-Six. General Greene assaults the British post, but is repulsed, June 18.—*Edgefield.*

1781, Eutaw Springs. The British totally defeated by General Greene, Sept. 8.—*Charleston.*

GEORGIA.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

GEORGIA is situated between 30° 19′ and 35° N. lat. and 5° 52′ and 8° 47′ W. long. It is bounded north by Tennessee; north-east by South Carolina; south-east by the Atlantic; south by Florida; and west by Alabama and West Florida. Its mean length is 300 miles, and mean breadth 194 miles; the area being 58,200 square miles, or 37,120,000 acres.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

From the ocean, for the distance of seven miles, there is a margin of islands and marshes, intersected by rivers, creeks, and inlets, which communicate with each other, and form an inland navigation for vessels of 100 tons along the whole coast. These sea-islands consist of salt marsh, and of a species of land called hammock, which produces cotton of a superior quality. A narrow margin on the coast of the main consists also of salt-marshes and hammock lands. Immediately back of this are the pine barrens, interspersed with numerous inland swamps. The rivers and creeks have also near their mouths marshy lands, called brackish swamps; and, higher up the river, tide-swamps, which are entirely fresh. Both of these and the salt-marshes are overflowed partially or wholly at the return of the tide. The pine barrens reach from 60 to 90 miles from the coast. Beyond this commences a country of sand-hills, from 30 to 40 miles wide, interspersed with fertile tracts, and extending to the falls of the rivers. The part of the state above the falls of the rivers is called the Upper Country, and has generally a strong fertile soil. Cotton is the principal production: it is of two kinds,—the black-seed or sea-island, and the green-seed or upland. Rice is extensively cultivated in the swamps of the Low Country. The fruits are figs, oranges, melons, pomegranates, olives, lemons, &c. The forests afford fine timber, chiefly oak and pine.

Rivers.

Savannah River separates the state from South Carolina. It is navigable for large vessels 18 miles, to Savannah; and for smaller vessels to the Falls at Augusta, 140 miles further. Above the Falls, boats can go 60 miles without obstruction.

The Ogechee falls into the ocean 15 miles south-west of Savannah.

The Alatamaha is formed by the Oconee and Oakmulgee. It

runs south-east, and discharges itself into the Atlantic through several mouths, 60 miles south-west of Savannah. It is navigable for vessels of 30 tons as far as Milledgeville on the Oconee branch, 200 miles from the ocean. The bar at the mouth has 14 feet at low water.

Satilla River enters the ocean north of Cumberland Island: it rises near Cyprus Swamp, in the country of the Creek Indians.

The St. Mary's is a remarkably deep river. It rises in Eokefanoke Swamp, and, after a very crooked course of 150 miles, falls into the ocean between Cumberland and Amelia Islands. It is navigable to its source.

Flint River joins the Chatahoochee in the south-west corner of the state, and the united stream takes the name of Appelachicola.

The Chatahouchee rises in the northern part of the state; and, in the lower part of its course forms the boundary between Georgia and Alabama.

Islands and Swamps.

The principal islands on the coast are Tybee, Ossabaw, St. Catharine's, Sapelo, St. Simon's, and Cumberland.

Eokefanoke Swamp is partly in this state, and partly in Florida. It is 180 miles in circumference, and abounds with alligators, snakes, frogs, and swarms of insects, which render it uninhabitable by any human being.

Cyprus Swamp is near the sources of Satilla River.

Climate.

The Low Country has an agreeable healthy climate for eight or nine months in the year; but, in the latter part of summer and fall, it is often sickly, except on the sea islands, which are generally healthy. The climate of the Upper Country is generally agreeable; and, in the north-west, near the foot of the mountains, it is esteemed among the best in the Atlantic states.

Civil Divisions and Population.

Counties.	*Whites.*	*Free Blacks*	*Slaves.*	*All others.*	*Total.*
Appling	1178	8	78	0	1,264
Baldwin	2622	1	3042	0	5,665
Town of Milledgeville	865	8	1196	0	2,069
Bryan	759	24	2238	0	3,021
Bullock	1877	4	697	0	2,578
Burke	5673	84	5820	0	11,577
Camden	1278	20	2095	0	3,402
Town of St. Mary's .	406	19	345	1	771
Town of Jefferson .	124	3	42	0	169
Chatham	703	44	6467	0	7,214
City of Savannah .	3866	582	3075	0	7,523
Clark	5285	21	3461	0	8,767
Carried forward,	24,634	827	28,556	1	54,000

Counties.	Whites.	Free Blacks.	Slaves.	All others.	Total.
Brought forward,	24,634	827	28,556	1	54,020
Columbia	5213	62	7420	0	12,695
Early	551	1	216	0	768
Effingham	1654	17	1347	0	3,018
Elbert	6629	0	5159	9	11,788
Emanuel	2526	35	367	0	2,928
Franklin	7240	26	1774	0	9,040
Glynn	643	15	2760	0	3,418
Greene	6599	53	6937	0	13,589
Gwinnett	4050	1	538	0	4,589
Habersham	2868	0	277	0	3,145
Hall	4681	6	399	0	5,086
Hancock	5847	24	6863	0	12,734
Irwin	372	0	39	0	411
Jackson	6346	12	1997	0	8,355
Jasper	9086	34	5494	0	14,614
Jefferson	3667	14	2680	1	6,362
Town of Louisville	265	14	414	1	694
Jones	9300	48	6381	0	15,729
Town of Clinton	320	16	505	0	841
Laurens	3450	11	1975	0	5,436
Liberty	1641	17	5037	0	6,695
Lincoln	3378	17	3063	0	6,458
M'Intosh	1343	71	3715	0	5,129
Madison	2829	2	904	0	3,735
Montgomery	1165	1	703	0	1,869
Morgan	7463	12	6045	0	13,520
Oglethorpe	6703	5	7338	0	14,046
Pulaski	3237	25	2021	0	5,283
Putnam	8208	26	7241	0	15,475
Rabun	509	0	15	0	524
Richmond	3667	110	4831	0	8,608
Scriven	2090	18	1833	0	3,941
Tatnall	2063	13	568	0	2,644
Telfair	1423	35	646	0	2,104
Twiggs	6968	17	3462	0	10,447
Town of Marion	128	0	65	0	193
Walton	3556	5	631	0	4,192
Warren	6530	59	4041	0	10,630
Washington	6697	32	3898	0	10,627
Wayne	671	6	333	0	1,010
Wilkes	7499	56	9356	1	16,912
Town of Washington	339	7	349	0	695
Wilkinson	5516	13	1463	0	6,992
Total	189,564	1763	149,656	4	340,989

Chief Towns.

Savannah, the largest town, and the centre of commerce for the state, is on the Savannah River, 18 miles from the bar at its

mouth. Vessels drawing 14 feet water can come up to the city; larger vessels receive their cargoes three miles below.

Augusta is on the Savannah, just below the Falls, 127 miles by land north of Savannah. Large quantities of cotton and other produce are brought to Augusta from the back country, and carried down the river to Savannah.

Milledgeville, the seat of government, is on Oconee River, near the centre of the state.

Darien is on Alatamaha River, 12 miles from the bar at its mouth. It will, probably, soon be a place of great importance, as it is the centre of commerce for the country on the Alatamaha and its branches, which is rapidly becoming populous.

Sunbury, Brunswick, and St. Mary's, are on the sea-coast, south-west of Savannah.

Petersburg is on Savannah River, 53 miles above Augusta.

Washington 50 miles north-west of Augusta.

Athens is on a branch of the Oconee, about 70 miles north of Milledgeville.

Education.

The university of Georgia consists of a college called Franklin College, established at Athens, and of an academy, either established, or to be established, in each county. This body of institutions is under the direction of a Senatus Academicus, consisting of the governor and senate of the state, and fifteen trustees. The senatus academicus appoints a board of commissioners in each county, to superintend the academy of the county and the inferior schools. In 1817, 200,000 dollars were appropriated by the legislature for the establishment of free-schools throughout the state.

Religion.

The baptists and methodists are by far the most numerous religious denominations. There are but few settled ministers in the state.

Commerce and Manufactures.

In 1820, Georgia was the sixth state in the union in the value of her exports. The amount was 6,594,623 dollars, and consisted almost wholly of domestic produce. The stapleof the state is cotton. Most of the produce is exported in ships belonging to the merchants of the northern states. The shipping of the state in 1821 amounted only to 14,662 tons. The amount of revenue paid by the state into the national treasury in 1815 was 882,453 dollars.

The value of manufacture in 1810 was 3,658,481 dollars.

Indian Country.

The western part of the state is in possession of the Indians,

viz., the Creeks and Cherokees. The Indian country lately embraced more than 40,000 square miles, or two-thirds of the whole state; but, by the treaty of Fort Jackson, the claim of the Creeks was extinguished to more than 11,000 square miles in the southern part of the state, including the whole country below the parallel of 31° 35′; and, by another treaty made in January, 1821, the extensive tract between Flint and Oakmalgee Rivers was ceded to the United States. The Creeks now own in this state about 8000 square miles, lying between Flint and Chatahouchee Rivers. The Cherokees lately possessed about 16,000 square miles in the northern part of the state, but in 1819 they ceded a large district of it to the United States.

Government.

The first constitution of Georgia was adopted in February, 1777, when the then-existing parishes were formed into counties. In 1785, a second constitution was formed, and in 1789 was amended. The existing being the third constitution was adopted in May, 1798. In its principal features it resembles those of a majority of the state constitutions. The legislature (styled the *General Assembly*) consists of a senate and house of representatives. The members of the former body are chosen annually, one from each county. Each senator must be twenty-five years of age, and possess a freehold of 500 dollars, or taxable property value 1000 dollars. The representatives are also annnally chosen by counties, each sending at least one; but no county can send more than four. A representative must be twenty-one years of age, and possess a freehold of 250 dollars, or taxable property value 500 dollars. The governor is chosen for two years by the assembly. He must be thirty years of age, and possess 500 acres of land, or other property to the amount of 4000 dollars. The elective franchise is exercised by all persons twenty-one years of age and upwards, who have paid taxes one year, and resided in the county six months previous to the election. The judicial power is vested in a superior court, composed of four judges; in an inferior court in each county, consisting of five judges; and in justices' courts, consisting of one justice of the peace, assisted by seven jurors. The judges of the superior courts are elected for the term of three years by the assembly, and those of the inferior courts annually by the voters in each county. Justices of the peace are elected annually by the voters in each militia captain's district.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

Of the thirteen provinces which declared themselves independent states in 1776, Georgia was the last settled. The country lying within its present boundaries was, previous to the year 1733, a wilderness; and, though comprehended within the charter of Carolina, had been claimed by Spain, as well as England. The sufferings of the English poor from the existing state of trade and industry, led to the first attempt at settlement in Georgia. A company was formed for the purpose of assisting such as might be disposed to emigrate in search of the means of subsistence. To this company George II., by patent dated in 1732, granted the territory, which in compliment to him, was called Georgia, and a corporation of 21 persons was created under the title of "the Trustees for settling the colony of Georgia." In November of that year, a large sum of money having been subscribed, 160 persons embarked at Gravesend, under the direction of General James Oglethorpe, and arrived at Charleston in January, 1733. From this place, Oglethorpe proceeded to explore the country destined for their place of settlement. A treaty was held with the Creek Indians, and a large tract of land obtained by cession. On a high bluff, overlooking a river, the foundation of a town was laid, which received the name of Savannah, after the Indian name of the river. Here the settlement was commenced in the spring of 1733; but the injudicious system of the trustees, and, perhaps, the character of the settlers themselves, impeded a rapid advance. Taking as their model the feudal tenures, the trustees granted their lands in tail-male; which, on the termination of male descendants of the grantee, were to revert to the donors, to be again granted to such persons as would be most likely to render personal services; the condition upon which the lands were parcelled out, was military duty; each possessor was to appear in arms, and take the field when called upon for the public defence. Any part of the land which was not enclosed, cleared, and cultivated within 18 years, was to revert to the trustees. By another regulation, more reconcilable with good policy, the importation of negroes and the use of rum was absolutely prohibited.

These restrictions drove many settlers into Carolina, where lands were held in fee simple; the number of inhabitants in the colony continued, nevertheless, to increase. In 1734, about 600 emigrants arrived; but being principally idle and dissolute characters, the "cankers of a calm world," they were little fitted for the toil of clearing a wilderness of wood. For the purpose of obtaining settlers more suitable to the business of colonizing, the

trustees divided the country on the Savannah and other rivers, into lots of 50 acres, and offered a lot to each person who would make a settlement. In consequence of these regulations, a large number of hardy emigrants arrived soon afterwards from Scotland and Germany. In addition to a previous grant, the parliament now gave 25,000*l.* for the benefit of the colony. In this state of things war took place between Spain and England, an event calculated to retard the prosperity of Georgia, from her liability to invasion on the side of Florida and Havannah. Oglethorpe was appointed commander-in-chief of the King's forces in South Carolina and Georgia, and immediately applied himself assiduously to the task of defence. He brought with him 600 soldiers into Georgia; and having erected forts for the defence of the province, and secured the friendship of the Creeks, whom the Spaniards had endeavoured to excite to hostilities, he found himself strong enough to attempt an attack upon a Spanish settlement; South Carolina granted a large sum of money for the purpose, and troops were raised in the Carolinas and Virginia. With these troops, 400 regulars and some Indians, Oglethorpe invaded Florida. St. Augustine was the object of his enterprise, which proved unsuccessful, and was abandoned, greatly to his mortification. In 1742, this invasion was retaliated by a large Spanish force. An expedition of 32 sail, with 3000 men, arrived in the River Alatamaha, and took possession of fort St. Simon, which had been previously abandoned by Oglethorpe. The Spanish commander next attempted to proceed through the woods to the attack of fort Frederica, on the island of St. Simon; but finding unlooked-for obstacles in his way, and being deceived by a stratagem of Oglethorpe, he re-embarked his troops in haste, leaving behind many pieces of artillery, provisions, and military stores, and returned to Florida. Georgia was preserved on this occasion principally by the address and skill of General Oglethorpe.

The restoration of peace, which took place soon afterwards, freed Georgia from one source of disquiet; but the condition of the colony was materially different from that of the others settled by the English in North America. Notwithstanding upwards of 100,000*l.* sterling had been granted by parliament and individuals, and that emigration had been encouraged by premiums, the state of things at the middle of the 18th century was very unpromising. Many of the emigrants had abandoned their settlements; and those who remained with difficulty obtained a scanty subsistence. The regulations respecting the tenure of land before mentioned, the prohibition of the importation of negroes and of rum operated to produce this effect. By prohibiting the importation of rum, the trustees had deprived the colonists of an excellent market in the West Indies for the sale of their lumber. So trifling was the produce of this now productive soil, that about the year 1750, the whole annual exports of Georgia did not exceed 10,000*l.* sterling.

In the year 1820, her exports exceeded six and a half millions of dollars. The complaints arising from their mismanagement, at last induced the trustees to surrender the charter to the crown. In 1752, the government was taken into the hands of the king, and the same privileges and regulations as to land and trade that prevailed in the other colonies, were extended to Georgia. The first good effect of the change of government was felt in the establishment of a general assembly of representatives in 1755. In 1763, all the lands lying between the rivers Alatamaha and St. Mary's were annexed to Georgia by a royal proclamation. From this period the colony began to make a rapid progress in prosperity and population. The rich swamps and low lands on the rivers began to be brought into cultivation, and the effects of judicious government were soon visible in the increased amount of exports. In 1763, the value of exports was no more than 27,000*l.* sterling; but, in 1773, the value had risen to upwards of 121,000*l.* Much of this increase of prosperity is attributed to the influence of Governor Wright, who first set the example of cultivating the low lands and river swamps, thereby acquiring for himself an ample fortune, and directing the industry of the people into a proper channel.

Georgia, at the commencement of the American revolution, was only in the infancy of her strength, and had just begun to enjoy some of the blessings of peace and the advantages of a better system of government. Her inhabitants had never experienced the evils which the tyrannical administration of the Stuarts had inflicted on the elder provinces, and knew the operation of the royal government only by its favourable contrast with that of the trustees. Notwithstanding these motives for continuing in connexion with England, the people of this province did not hesitate to take part with their northern brethren. In March, 1775, they appointed a delegate to Congress: and, in July, of the same year, a convention of delegates assembled, by whom the sanction of the province was given to the measures of Congress. During the war which ensued, Georgia was overrun by the British troops, and the principal inhabitants were compelled to abandon their possessions, and fly into the neighbouring states. In proportion to their numbers, the exertions and losses of her citizens were as great as in any of the states.

After the conclusion of the revolutionary war, Georgia suffered on her frontiers from the excursions of the Creek Islands, whose hostility has been too often provoked by the whites. In 1790, a treaty was concluded with the head warriors of this nation, by which the boundaries of Georgia were established, and since that period several other treaties have been entered into. By a treaty held at Fort Wilkinson, in 1802, the Creeks ceded to the United States a large tract of country, which has since been ceded by the United States to Georgia, and forms the south-west corner of the

state. Georgia possessed, as included within her limits, a claim to an immense body of western land, of which, in 1795, the legislature sold a large portion, said to contain twenty-two millions of acres, to a company, by whom it was again sold to other purchasers. In the succeeding year, the legislature declared the sale unconstitutional, and on this ground, and that it was obtained through bribery, they declared it to be void, and ordered all the records to be burned. In 1802, Georgia ceded to the United States all the lands west of the Chatahouchee River, and of a certain line, including the contested lands; and, in 1814, Congress passed an act by which a compromise was made with the Yazoo purchasers, who received a certain amount of public stock. The recent history of Georgia is barren of important events.

GOVERNORS, &c.

1732 James Oglethorpe.
1743 William Stephens, *Acting Gov.*
1751 Henry Parker, *Acting Gov.*
1754 John Reynolds.
1757 Henry Ellis.
1760 James Wright.
1771 James Habersham, *Acting Gov.*

During the Revolution.

1775 William Ewin, *president of council of safety.*
1776 Archibald Bullock, *president of council of safety.*
1777 Button Gwinnet.

Under the Constitution.

1777 John Adam Trutler.
1778 John Houston,
1779 George Walter.
1780 Richard Howley.
1781 Nathan Brownson.
1782 John Martin.
1783 Lyman Hall.
1784 John Houston.
1785 Samuel Elbert.
1786 Edward Telfair.
1787 George Matthews.
1788 George Handley.
1789 George Walton.
1790 Edward Telfair.
1793 George Matthews.
1796 Jerard Irwin.
1798 James Jackson.
1801 Josiah Tatnall.
1802 John Milledge.
1808 Jerard Irwin.
1809 David B. Mitchell.
1813 Peter Early.
1815 David B. Mitchell.
1817 William Rabun.
1819 John Clarke.
1821 John Clarke.

Places remarkable for Battles and Sieges.

1778, Savannah. Battle between the Americans and British, in which the former are defeated, and the British take Savannah, December 29.—*Chatham.*

1779, Sunbury. Taken by the British, after a slight resistance, January.—*Liberty.*

Augusta. Taken by the British, January.—*Richmond.*

Briar's Creek. A detachment of the American army surprised, and defeated by the British.

Savannah. Besieged by the Americans and French, who are defeated in an attempt to storm it, October 9.—*Chatham.*

OHIO.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

Ohio is situated between 38° 28′ and 42° N. lat., and 3° 31′, and 7° 48′ W. long. It is bounded north, by Michigan and Lake Erie; east by Pennsylvania; south-east by Virginia; south by Kentucky, and west by Indiana. It is about 210 miles long, from east to west, by 185 broad, from north to south, and its area is about 39,000 square miles, or 24,960,000 acres.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

The interior parts of the state, and the country bordering on Lake Erie, are generally level, and, in some places, marshy. About one-third, or one quarter of the state, comprehending the eastern and south-eastern part, bordering on Ohio River, is generally hilly and broken, but not mountainous. Immediately on the banks of the Ohio, and of several of its tributaries, are numerous tracts of intervale land of most exuberant fertility. On both sides of the Scioto, and of the Great and Little Miami Rivers, are perhaps the most extensive bodies of rich and level land of any part of the state. In many places are extensive prairies, particularly on the head waters of the Muskingum and Scioto, and between the Scioto and the sources of the two Miami Rivers. Some of these prairies are low and marshy, and yield spontaneously a large quantity of coarse grass, from two to five feet in height; others are elevated, and are frequently called barrens, not, however, on account of their sterility, for they are often fertile. The height of land, which divides the waters of Ohio River from those of Lake Erie, is the most marshy of any in the state, while the driest land lies along the margins of the rivers. Wheat is the principal production. From 70 to 100 bushels of maize are said to be frequently produced on an acre. Other kinds of grain, and various sorts of fruits are also cultivated.

Minerals.

Coal abounds in the eastern part of the state, near the Ohio. Salt springs have been discovered, and salt works erected on the Muskingum, a few miles below Zanesville, and in various other places.

Rivers.

Ohio River runs along the whole southern border, a distance of 420 miles, separating the state from Virginia and Kentucky. The

principal rivers which fall into the Ohio, beginning in the east, are the Muskingum, the Hockhocking, the Scioto, the Little Miami, and the Great Miami. The principal rivers which fall into Lake Erie, beginning in the west, are the Miami of the Lakes, or Maumee, the Sandusky, and the Cayahoga.

Climate.

Ohio being situated nearly on a parallel with Pennsylvania and Maryland, the climate is assimilated pretty much to that of these states; but, having Lake Erie on the north, and the south-west wind being most prevalent, it is a little more mild and more moist. In 1819, the mean heat, at sundry places, was as follows: Wooster, 43° 45′, Zanesville, 55° 7′, Marietta, 55° 60′, Chillicothe, 58° 82′, Cincinnati, 56° 89′. At Marietta, the mean heat in August was 80°, and in December 35°. The range of the thermometer, during the year, was 81°, the lowest being 12°, and the highest 93°.

Civil Divisions and Population.

Counties.	*Pop. in* 1810.	*Pop. in* 1820.	*Chief Towns.*
Adams	9,434	10,406	West Union.
Ashtabula		7,382	Jefferson.
Athens	2,791	6,338	Athens.
Belmont	11,097	20,329	St. Clairsville.
Brown		13,356	Ripley.
Butler	11,150	21,746	Hamilton.
Champaign	6,303	8,479	Urbanna.
Clark		9,533	Springfield.
Clermont	9,965	15,820	Williamsburg.
Clinton	2,674	8,085	Wilmington.
Columbiana	10,878	22,033	New Lisbon.
Coshocton		7,086	Coshocton.
Cayahoga	1,450	6,328	Cleveland.
Darke		3,717	Greenville.
Delaware	2,000	7,639	Delaware.
Fairfield	11,361	16,633	Lancaster.
Fayette	1,854	6,316	Washington.
Franklin	3,486	10,292	Columbus.
Gallia	4,181	7,098	Galliopolis.
Geuga		7,791	Chardon.
Greene	5,870	10,529	Xenia.
Guernsey	3,051	9,292	Cambridge.
Hamilton	15,258	31,764	Cincinnati.
Harrison		14,345	Cadiz.
Highland	5,766	12,308	Hillsborough.
Hocking		2,130	Logan.
Huron		6,675	Huron.
Jackson		3,746	Jackson.
Jefferson	17,260	18,531	Steubenville.
Carried forward	135,829	325,727	

Counties.	*Pop. in* 1810.	*Pop. in* 1820.	*Chief Towns.*
Brought forward	135,829	325,727	
Knox	2,149	8,326	Mount Vernon.
Lawrence		3,499	Burlington.
Licking	3,852	11,861	Newark.
Logan		3,181	
Madison	1,603	4,799	New London.
Medina		3,082	Mecca.
Meigs		4,480	Salisbury.
Miami	3,941	8,851	Troy.
Monroe		4,645	Woodsfield.
Montgomery	7,722	15,999	Dayton.
Morgan		5,297	
Muskingum	10,036	17,824	Zanesville.
Perry		8,429	Somerset.
Pickaway	7,124	13,149	Circleville.
Pike		4,253	Piketon.
Portage	2,995	10,095	Ravenna.
Preble	3,304	10,237	Eaton.
Richland		9,169	Mansfield.
Ross	15,514	20,619	Chillicothe.
Sandusky		852	Chroghansville.
Scioto	3,399	5,750	Portsmouth.
Shelby		2,106	
Starke	2,734	12,406	Canton.
Trumbull	8,671	15,546	Warren.
Tuscarawas	3,045	8,328	New Philadelphia.
Union		1,996	
Warren	9,925	17,837	Lebanon.
Washington	5,991	10,425	Marietta.
Wayne		11,933	Wooster.
Wood		733	Perrysburg.
Total	227,834	581,434	

The population of Ohio is made up of emigrants, principally from the eastern states, and many from Europe. The mass of the emigrants have been farmers and mechanics, and they are, in general, industrious, temperate, and frugal, possessing much intelligence and enterprise. The population has increased with astonishing rapidity. In 1790, it was but 3000; in 1800, 42,156; in 1810, 230,760; and in 1820, 581,434. The increase will probably continue to be rapid for some time to come. The recent extinction of the Indian title to the north-western quarter of the state, called the Indian reservation, will have an immediate and beneficial effect on the progress of population in that quarter.

Chief Towns.

Cincinnati, the largest town, is near the south-west corner of the state, on Ohio River, 20 miles above the mouth of the Great Miami. Numerous and extensive manufacturing establishments

have been erected here, and the commerce and population have increased with a rapidity almost without a parallel. In 1805, the population was 500; in 1810, 2540; in 1820, 9733. Chillicothe is on the west bank of the Scioto, 45 miles, in a direct line, from its mouth. It has many valuable mills and manufactories, and is the second town in the state in size. Columbus, the seat of government, is regularly laid out on a pleasant rising ground, on the east bank of the Scioto, just below the confluence of the Whetstone, 45 miles north of Chillicothe. Marietta, the oldest town in the state, is on the Ohio, at the mouth of the Muskingum. Its situation is unfortunate, parts of the town being liable to annual inundation; an inconvenience which has much retarded its growth. Zanesville is on the Muskingum, 60 miles north of Marietta. Steubenville is on the Ohio, near the Pennsylvania boundary. Athens is on the Hockhocking, about 50 miles east of Chillicothe. Cleveland is on Lake Erie, at the mouth of the Cayahoga.

Roads, and Canals.

It has been proposed to connect Lake Erie with the Ohio River, by means of a canal between the Cayahoga, which falls into Lake Erie, and the Tuscarawa, one of the upper streams of the Muskingum. Between these rivers there is now only a short portage, and in the law of Congress, appropriating a portion of the public lands to the improvement of inland navigation, 100,000 acres were assigned towards defraying the expense of carrying into effect this project. Of all the canals, proposed for connecting the waters of the lakes with those of the Mississippi, this will probably be first opened, and will be of immense benefit to the country through which it passes. It is supposed that Lake Erie may be connected with the Ohio, by canals uniting the branches of the Maumee, with a branch of the Great Miami. Three per cent of the net proceeds, arising from the sale of the United States lands within the limits of Ohio, have been appropriated for the purpose of opening and improving its roads.

Manufactures and Commerce.

The principal manufactures are flour, and spirits, and woollen and cotton cloth, with family manufactures to a great amount.

The principal exports are flour, pork, and tobacco. These are carried down the Ohio and Mississippi to New Orleans. Foreign goods are received from the same place by the steam-boats, and from Philadelphia and Baltimore, across the Alleghany Mountains.

Education.

Education is pretty generally attended to through this state. There is a university at Athens, called the Ohio University, and another at Oxford, called the Miami University. One section, or thirty-sixth part of every township, has been granted by the

government of the United States for the support of schools. There are many incorporated academies in different parts of the state, and a college at Cincinnati.

Religion.

In 1817 the number of ministers of the several religious denominations was stated as follows:—Presbyterians, 48; Methodists, 34; Baptists, 13; New-Lights of the Christian church, 9; Seceders, 6; Episcopalians, 3; Congregationalists, 3; Meetings of Friends in this state and Indiana, 59.

Government.

The constitution of Ohio was adopted on the first of November, 1802, in pursuance of authority given by Congress. The division of the powers of government into the three departments of Legislative, Executive, and Judiciary, has been preserved in a manner similar to the constitutions of the other states. The legislative authority is vested in a general assembly, which consists of a senate and house of representatives. The members of the first body are chosen biennially, and vacate their seats by rotation. Representatives are elected annually, and are apportioned by the legislature according to an enumeration of voters, which must be made every four years, and at such rates that the whole number of representatives must never be less than 36 nor more than 72. The executive power is exercised by a governor, who is chosen biennially by the people, and holds his office until another governor is elected and qualified. His powers are limited in comparison with those of other governors. He can only appoint to offices in case of a vacancy occurring during the recess of the legislature, and has no veto upon legislative acts. The judicial power is vested in a Supreme Court, in courts of Common Pleas for each county, in justices of the peace, and in such other courts as the legislature may from time to time establish. The Supreme Court and the Common Pleas have chancery powers, in addition to those of Common Law Courts. The judges of the Supreme Court and of the Common Pleas are elected by a joint ballot of both Houses of Assembly, and hold their offices for seven years, if they so long behave well. Justices of the peace are elected by the people, for a term of three years. The right of suffrage is almost universal. All white male inhabitants above the age of 21 years, who have resided in the state one year next preceding the election, and who have paid, *or are charged with*, a state or county tax, enjoy the privilege of electors. All elections must be by ballot.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

THE history of this state, as a distinct territorial district, properly begins with the first year of the present century. Previous to that time it had formed part of the great north-western territory, of whose annals, as far as they are material to the present sketch, it is proper to give a brief outline.

The French were the first to explore the country on the waters of the Ohio. In 1680, M. de la Salle traversed, before any other European, the tract between the lakes and the Mississippi. He was followed by many of his countrymen, who, for upwards of half a century, seem to have been exclusively the visitors of this region. Their object was the prosecution of the fur trade, and, unlike their English neighbours, they manifested little disposition to appropriate the country by settlements. Within the actual limits of Ohio, no settlement appears to have been made by the French. About the middle of the eighteenth century, a controversy arose between the traders of Canada and those of the English colonies respecting this country, which finally involved both nations in a long and destructive war. The charters of many of the British provinces extended their claims from the Atlantic to the Southern Ocean. Their settlements had proceeded regularly westward, and it was not supposed that any obstacle would be met with, except what arose from the Indian title. The French claims, on the other hand, extended from north to south, and necessarily intersected those of the English; or, as respects actual occupation, their possessions formed a cordon round those of the English. In 1750, an association of persons, principally residing in Virginia and England, obtained from the crown a grant for 600,000 acres of land, lying in the country claimed by both nations. Measures were immediately taken to obtain the advantages expected from the grant, by erecting trading-houses, and engaging persons to make surveys, when intelligence of this intrusion reached the governor of Canada. France and England being then at peace, he remonstrated forcibly with the governors of New York and Pennsylvania. Finding expostulation and threats equally vain, the French seized some British subjects, who were found trading among the Twightwees, a nation of Indians near the Ohio, and sent them to Presqu'isle, on Lake Erie, where a strong fort was erected. This, and other acts of violence, determined the governor of Virginia to send an officer to the French posts. The illustrious WASHINGTON, then a major of militia, was commissioned for the purpose, and, after great difficulties, succeeded in reaching a French commandant at a fort on the river Le Bœuf, to whom he delivered a letter, requiring him to withdraw from the British dominions on the Ohio. The answer was of such a nature

that, on the return of Washington, the Virginia assembly caused a regiment to be raised, in which he received the second command. In April, 1754, the chief command having devolved upon him by the death of the colonel, he advanced with two companies into the disputed country, and defeated a party of the enemy; but, on his route to the confluence of the Alleghany and Monongahela, was attacked by a much superior force, and compelled to surrender on honourable terms. Soon after this event, open war was declared, and the British government sent out General Braddock, with a powerful force. The object of the campaign of 1755 was the capture of fort Du Quesne, and the secure possession of the country on the Ohio. The schemes of the British government were blasted by the disgraceful defeat of Braddock, and the French remained unmolested on the Ohio until the surrender of Canada. By the treaty of 1763, the British succeeded to all the French possessions in the countries lying between the Alleghany and the Mississippi.

The beautiful valley of the Ohio was now thrown open to the American trade; but, from whatever causes it may have arisen, the British government was not disposed to encourage settlements. The Indians were still numerous and powerful, and, on the breaking out of the war of independence, were incited by the British against the frontier settlers. During the continuance of this conflict, no attempts were made at settlement in this tract of country. The treaty of peace, although it transferred to the United States the sovereignty possessed by the British over the north-western territory, yet left it subject to Indian depredations; and it was not until 1787, that any settlement was begun within the limits of the state of Ohio. Previously to that year, the right of soil, subject to the Indian title, was claimed by several of the states as having passed to them by their charters. Soon after the peace of 1783, jealousies arose in consequence of the vast extent of these possessions; to allay which, those states liberally ceded them to the common fund. Virginia, however, reserved a portion of land near the Rapids of the Ohio, for her state troops; and Connecticut retained a tract near Lake Erie, which has since been known by the name of the "Connecticut Reserve." In 1800, she relinquished her jurisdiction over this tract, reserving, however, her claim to the soil. It remained for the United States to purchase from the Indians the soil and right of possession, which, owing to the hostility of this people, was not completely effected for many years, nor until after much blood had been shed on both sides. A part of this land had, previously to the opening of the land office, been sold to companies in large bodies; but, since that period, the sales have been made in small tracts.

In 1787, Congress began the exercise of its jurisdiction over the north-western territory. A provincial government was insti-

tuted, consisting of a governor, secretary, and three judges, who, in addition to their executive and judicial functions, had also a partial legislative power. The officers appointed under these provisions, administered the government of the whole territory till 1799. During a great part of this period, an harassing warfare was maintained with the Indians, who received encouragement, if not assistance, from the British authorities of Canada. In 1791, General St. Clair, who had been sent with an expedition to destroy the Indian villages on the Miamies, and to expel the savages from the country, was surprised and totally routed. The consequences of this disaster were severely felt, and operated as a serious check upon the progress of settlements. In the year 1794, however, a decided victory was obtained by General Wayne, over a large force of the savages; and, in the succeeding year, a period was put to hostilities by the treaty of Greenville. From this time the population of Ohio increased with rapidity. In 1799, the north-western territory, having a sufficient population, was admitted to the second grade of territorial government, which entitled it to a legislative body, composed of representatives chosen by the people, and of a council appointed by Congress, from nominations made by the house of representatives. Shortly after this, the country composing the state of Ohio was detached from the north-western territory, and formed into a distinct jurisdiction. In April, 1802, on the petition of the people, Congress passed a law enabling them to form a constitution and state government. Under this authority, the present constitution was established, and the conditions prescribed by Congress having been complied with, Ohio became a sovereign state, and a member of the union, in 1803.

Thus admitted to all the privileges of self-government, and enjoying the advantages of a population unmixed with slaves, the growth of Ohio has been prodigious. In rapidity of increase she has surpassed the other members of the family of the west. The proof of this will be seen in the statement of her population, at different periods, as made by direction of the government of the United States. From the official returns, it appears that the number of inhabitants, which, in 1790, did not exceed 3000, had, in the interval between that year and 1820, increased to 581,434, an augmentation unparalleled in history. The people of Ohio had nevertheless suffered greatly during the last war with England, and many valuable citizens perished in that conflict. No state in the union displayed more patriotism and valour, or maintained the common cause of the republic with more zeal and constancy, than this young commonwealth. Her quotas of troops were principally volunteers, and her proportion of the direct tax was paid by the legislature, in advance, into the national treasury. Since the peace of 1815, Ohio has suffered, with the rest of the western states, from the effects of an over issue of paper money, and a

diminished demand for her productions; but the solid strength of the community is uninjured. With a climate favourable to human life, a fertile soil, free and firm institutions, and protected from external danger by an union with a powerful confederacy, every thing seems to promise a continuance of prosperity.

GOVERNORS, &c.

1803 Edward Tiffin.
1807 Thomas Kirker, (Speaker of the Senate,) acting Governor.
1808 Samuel Hunting.
1810 Return Jonathan Meigs.
1814 Othniel Looker, (Speaker of the Senate,) acting Governor.
1814 Thomas Worthington.
1818 Ethan Allen Brown.
1822 Allen Trimble, (Speaker of the Senate,) acting Governor.

Places remarkable for Battles and Sieges.

1791, Miami Villages. General St. Clair surprised and defeated by the Indians—*Nov.* 3.

1794, Miamis. General Wayne gains a decided victory over the Indians—*Aug.* 20.

1812, Miami Rapids. General Tupper defeats a body of Indians—*Nov.* 14.

1813, Fort Meigs. Besieged by the British and Indians without success—*May* 1.

1813, Fort Meigs. The British and Indians attacked by a body of Kentuckians without success—*May.*

1813, Fort Meigs. Again unsuccessfully besieged by the allies July 20.

1813, Fort Sandusky. Besieged by the British and Indians, who are gallantly repulsed—Aug. 1.

KENTUCKY.

Situation, Boundaries and Extent.

KENTUCKY is situated between 36° 30′ and 39° 10′ N. lat. and 4° 50′ and 12° W. long from Washington. It is bounded north by Illinois, Indiana, and Ohio; east by Virginia; south by Tennessee; and west by Missouri. Its mean length is 289 miles, and mean breadth 135, the area being 39,000 square miles, or 24,960,000 acres.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

The only mountains are the Cumberland range, which separates the state from Virginia on the south-east. The eastern counties

are mountainous. A tract along the banks of the Ohio, from 5 to 20 miles wide, and extending through the whole length of the state, is hilly and broken, but has a good soil: the part of this tract lying immediately upon the Ohio, for about one mile in width on an average, consists of bottom lands, and is subject to periodical inundation. Between this tract, the eastern counties, and Green River, lies the garden of the state. It is about 150 miles long, and from 50 to 100 miles wide, and comprises the counties of Mason, Fleming, Montgomery, Clarke, Bourbon, Fayette, Scott, Harrison, Franklin, Woodford, Mercer, Jessamine, Madison, Garrard, Logan, Casey, Lincoln, Washington, and Green. The surface of this district is agreeably undulating, and the soil black and friable, producing black walnut, black cherry, honey locust, buckeye, pawpaw, sugar-tree, mulberry, elm, ash, cottonwood, and white-thorn. The country between Green and Cumberland Rivers is called "the barrens." In 1800, the legislature of Kentucky bestowed this tract gratuitously on actual settlers, under the impression that it was of little value; but it proves to be excellent land for grain; and hogs and cattle are raised in abundance.

The whole state, below the mountains, rests on an immense bed of limestone, usually about eight feet below the surface. There are everywhere apertures in this limestone, through which, the waters of the rivers sink into the earth. The large rivers of Kentucky, for this reason, are more diminished during the dry season than those of any part of the United States, and the small streams entirely disappear. The banks of the rivers are natural curiosities. They have generally worn very deep channels in the calcareous rocks over which they flow. The precipices formed by Kentucky River are in many places awfully sublime, presenting perpendicular banks of 300 feet of solid limestone. In the southwest part of the state, between Green River and the Cumberland, there are several wonderful caves; one, called the Mammoth cave is said to be eight or nine miles long.

The principal productions of Kentucky are hemp, tobacco, wheat, and Indian corn. Salt springs are numerous, and supply not only this state, but a great part of Ohio and Tennessee with that mineral.

Rivers.

Kentucky is almost insulated by navigable rivers. The Big Sandy, which rises in the Cumberland Mountains, near the sources of Tennessee and Cumberland Rivers, forms the eastern boundary of the state during its whole course of nearly 200 miles.

The Ohio forms the northern boundary for more than 600 miles.

The Mississippi is the western boundary.

Cumberland River rises in the Cumberland Mountains, and passes into the state of Tennessee, where it makes a circular bend,

and, returning to Kentucky, falls into the Ohio, 60 miles from its mouth. It is 600 miles long, and navigable for boats of 15 tons, 500 miles.

The Tennessee falls into the Ohio 12 miles below the mouth of the Cumberland. The principal rivers which lie wholly within the state, are Green, Kentucky, and Licking, all of which fall into the Ohio, and are navigable by boats, for a considerable distance during the winter floods; but in the summer and autumn are much reduced in size.

Climate.

Situated in the central part of the United States, on the table land of the western country, with the Alleghany Mountains to the eastward, and the high lands of Tennessee on the south, Kentucky enjoys a climate not excelled by any part of the United States. In Lexington, near the centre of the state, the heat of summer seldom exceeds 80°, and the cold of winter is seldom below 25°. The average temperature of the year is about 58°. The whole of the state being, as above remarked, on a bed of limestone, there are no swamps or stagnant waters, except in some local situations, and the air is generally remarkably sweet and pure.

Chief Towns.

Frankfort, the seat of government, is regularly laid out on the east side of Kentucky River, 60 miles above its confluence with the Ohio. The site of the town is a semicircular alluvial plain, from 150 to 200 feet lower than the table land in its rear. The river is here about 80 yards wide, and, after heavy rains, frequently rises 60 feet. Steam-boats of 300 tons come up the river as far as this place, when the water is high, and most of the foreign goods consumed in Kentucky are landed here or at Louisville. Population in 1820, 1679.

Lexington, the largest and wealthiest town in the state, is delightfully situated 25 miles east-south-east of Frankfort, in a beautiful valley on Town Fork, a small stream which falls into the south branch of Elkhorn River. It is regularly laid out, and contains numerous and extensive manufacturing establishments. The growth of this town has been exceedingly rapid. In 1797, it contained only about 50 houses, and the best farmers lived in log cabins. It is now a large and beautiful town, covered with stately and elegant buildings. The surrounding country is much admired for the beauty of its scenery, and is adorned with more than 50 country seats. Population in 1820, 5279.

Louisville, on the Ohio, immediately above the rapids, 50 miles west of Frankfort, is the second town in the state in wealth and consequence. The great command of water power afforded by the rapids of the river, and the other advantages of its situation,

have given birth to several extensive manufacturing establishments. A very active commerce is carried on between this place and Natchez, New Orleans, and St. Louis. There were, in 1821, upwards of 25 steam-boats, measuring together 6050 tons, employed in this trade. The population of the town in 1820, was 4012.

The other principal towns are, Maysville, on the Ohio, 63 miles north-east of Lexington, the chief port for the north-east part of the state; containing in 1820, 1130 inhabitants; Russelville, situated in a very fertile country, 200 miles south-west of Lexington, and containing in 1820, 1712 inhabitants; Henderson, on the Ohio, 75 miles below Louisville, a place of some trade, and containing in 1820, 532 inhabitants; and Newport, on the Ohio, immediately above the mouth of Licking River, and opposite Cincinnati: it contains a United States' arsenal, and had, in 1820, 611 inhabitants.

Manufactures.

The principal manufactures are cloth, spirits, cordage, salt, and maple sugar.

Commerce.

Hemp, tobacco, and wheat, are the principal exports. These are carried down the Ohio and Mississippi to New Orleans, and foreign goods received from the same place in return. Louisville, on the Ohio, is the centre of this trade.

Education.

The principal literary institution is Transylvania University, at Lexington. It was originally incorporated, before the separation of Kentucky from Virginia. In 1818, it was re-organized under a board of 13 trustees, who are chosen biennially by the legislature. In 1820, its officers were, a president, seven professors, including four medical professors, five tutors, and a principal of the preparatory department; the library contained, at the same period, about 3000 volumes, and a considerable sum has been recently expended in the purchase of a chemical and philosophical apparatus. The number of students, including medical students, and those in the preparatory department, was 235.

Very little has been done as yet for public schools in this state. Respectable private schools are fast increasing.

Religion

The principal religious denominations are Baptists, Presbyterians, and Methodists.

Civil Divisions and Population.

Counties.	*Whites.*	*Free Blacks.*	*Slaves.*	*All others.*	*Total.*
Adair,	7,249	7	1509	0	8,765
Allen,	4,594	10	723	0	5,327
Barren,	7,875	7	2446	0	10,328
Bath,	6,685	52	1224	0	7,960
Boone,	5,227	19	1296	0	6,542
Bourbon,	12,369	130	5165	0	17,664
Bracken,	4,560	44	676	0	5,280
Breckenridge,	6,217	1	1267	0	7,485
Bullet,	4,578	8	1245	0	5,831
Butler,	2,611	0	472	0	3,083
Caldwell,	7,567	11	1444	0	9,022
Campbell,	6,115	10	897	0	7,022
Casey,	3,876	17	456	0	4,349
Christian,	6,943	25	3491	0	10,459
Clark,	7,945	41	5463	0	11,449
Clay,	4,018	90	285	0	4,393
Cumberland,	6,712	14	1332	0	8,058
Daviess,	3,017	7	852	0	3,876
Estill,	3,218	8	281	0	3,507
Fayette,	10,205	133	7633	0	17,971
Lexington,(town)	3,523	115	1641	0	5,279
Fleming,	11,011	31	1144	0	12,186
Floyd,	7,867	143	197	0	8,207
Franklin,	6,377	61	2907	0	9,345
Frankfort (town,)	884	78	643	74	1,679
Gallatin,	5,817	16	1242	0	7,075
Garrard,	7,901	32	2918	0	10,851
Grant,	1,666	2	137	0	1,805
Grayson,	3,836	35	184	0	4,055
Greene,	8,683	19	3241	0	11,943
Greenup,	3,730	15	566	0	4,311
Hardin,	9,009	23	1466	0	10,498
Harlan,	1,851	2	108	0	1,961
Harrison,	10,051	90	2137	0	12,278
Hart,	3,572	16	596	0	4,184
Henderson,	3,419	30	2265	0	5,714
Henry,	8,808	4	2004	0	10,816
Hopkins,	4,334	6	982	0	5,322
Jefferson,	10,779	122	5855	0	16,756
Town of Louisville	2,886	93	1031	2	4,012
Jessamine,	6,395	100	2802	0	9,297
Knox,	3,305	19	337	0	3,661
Lewis,	3,505	4	464	0	3,973
Lincoln,	6,862	58	3053	6	9,979
Livingstone,	4,770	34	1020	0	5,824
Logan,	8,566	126	4019	0	12,711
To, of Russelville	1,024	9	679	0	1,712
Carried forward	272,012	1917	81,695	82	353,805

his own and five other families, and 40 men. Notwithstanding the hostility of the savages, by which several of the settlers were destroyed, they proceeded in their enterprise; and, after various impediments, reached the Kentucky River in March 1775, where they immediately formed a settlement; this intrepid adventurer congratulating himself that his wife and daughter were the first white women who had stood on the banks of this stream.

In the mean time, the country becoming more generally known, attracted the attention of others. A grant had been made by the Indians in 1768, to some British commissioners, of a large tract comprehending this territory; but the savages seem not to have paid much attention to their engagements. After their defeat by Colonel Lewis at the Great Kenhaway, they were reduced to submission for the time, and emigration to Kentucky began to be more rapid. The assembly of Virginia, within whose limits this region lay, encouraged its population by offering 400 acres of land to every person who engaged to build a cabin, clear a piece of land, and produce a crop of Indian corn. These favourable terms attracted a number of settlers. Another claim to the right of selling the land was asserted. Richard Henderson, of North Carolina, a man of considerable enterprise and abilities, had obtained from the Cherokee Indians a grant of the same tract of country; and though the bargain was void by the laws which forbade any purchase of the Indians by individuals, he proceeded in the design of establishing a colony. He actually took formal possession of the country, and granted lands. Virginia was at this time sufficiently occupied in the contest with Great Britain, and paid little attention to the claims of Henderson. Afterwards, in the year 1781, the subject was investigated, and, though he had no legal claim, the government agreed, for the purpose of avoiding an unpleasant contest, and as an indemnification for his expense and trouble, to grant him a tract of country 12 miles square, lying on the forks of the Ohio and Green Rivers.

Though a considerable number of persons had emigrated to Kentucky from other parts of the union, 1778, 1779, and 1780, yet so distressed was the settlement in 1780, after an unusually severe and rigorous winter, that the settlers came to the determination of abandoning the country for ever. They were fortunately diverted from this step by a seasonable reniforcement of emigrants. During the early part of the war, the incursions of the savages, incited to assume the tomahawk by the British government, made this young settlement a scene of distress and suffering such as is rarely witnessed. In 1778, General Clarke, after various engagements, overcame the savages, and laid waste their villages. From this time the inhabitants began to feel more secure, and the settlements extended. In 1777, the legislature of Virginia erected this territory into a county. In 1782, the inconvenience of repairing nearly 600 miles for the transaction of

legal business being severely felt, a supreme court, with an attorney-general, was established within the district. In the years 1783, 1784, and 1785, the district was laid out into counties, and great part of the country surveyed and patented. In 1785, the number of inhabitants having become considerable, and the inconvenience attending the great distance from the seat of government being sensibly felt, the first attempt was made to form an independent state. Deputies from each county accordingly assembled in convention at Danville, when it was determined to petition Virginia for this purpose. An act had already passed the legislature of that state, authorizing any district of country over the mountains to separate whenever a majority of the inhabitants should wish it. Notwithstanding the consent of Virginia had thus been given by anticipation to the independence of Kentucky, this measure was not effected for several years. The change of the federal government was one of the causes which produced this delay. Kentucky did not become a separate state until December 1790, and was not admitted into the union until the first of June 1792.

We are now to regard Kentucky as one of the great family of states. So rapid was her growth, that she soon obtained a respectable rank and influence, and naturally took the lead among the western states. Her political weight has uniformly been thrown into the scale of the republican party. The measures of Mr. Adams's administration were no where opposed with more warmth than in Kentucky, where those of his successor received a cordial support. The war declared in 1812 against England, was hailed with acclamations, and supported with zeal by her patriotic inhabitants. When the news of the surrender of the army of General Hull reached Kentucky, it excited no feeling of despondency. The whole quota of the state, consisting of upwards of 5000 men, was composed of volunteers, and was called into actual service. In addition to these, a force of mounted volunteers was raised, and at one time upwards of 7000 Kentuckians are said to have been in the field. So universal was the desire to share in the dangers and glories of the war, that the executive authority was obliged to interpose to limit the numbers. During this period the chair of the state government was filled by Isaac Shelby, a hero of the revolutionary war, who, at an advanced age, manifested the same enterprise and bravery that had gained him an honourable distinction at the battle of King's Mountain. At the battle of Frenchtown, and the barbarous massacre that followed it, many of the best citizens of Kentucky were destroyed; and the impetuous but ill-regulated courage of her militia, at the unfortunate attempt to relieve Fort Meigs, proved fatal to a large body of her troops. Since the peace of 1815, this state has suffered with the rest of the western states, from an excess of domestic produce, for which no adequate market could be obtained, and

from some injudicious attempts to give circulation and support to paper currency. Its history has otherwise been barren of important events.

GOVERNORS, &c.

1792 Isaac Shelby, first governor of Kentucky.
1796 James Garrard.
1804 Christopher Greenup.
1808 Charles Scott.
1812 Isaac Shelby.
George Madison was elected and qualified as governor, August 1816, but died very soon after, and, on his decease,
Gabriel Slaughter, lieutenant-governor, acted as governor for the remainder of the term.
1820 John Adair.

TENNESSEE.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

Tennessee is situated between 35° and 36° 36′ N. lat. and 4° 50′ and 13° 8′ W. long. It is bounded north by Kentucky; east by North Carolina; south by Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi; and west by Mississippi River, which separates it from Arkansa territory. It is about 430 miles long, and 104 broad, and contains 41,300 square miles, or 26,432,000 acres.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

The Cumberland Mountains run from south-west to north-east through the centre of the state, and divide it into East Tenessee and West Tennessee. East Tennessee is intersected by mountains; the valleys between the ridges are fertile. West Tennessee is partly level and partly hilly, and contains much fertile soil, particularly on the banks of the rivers. The principal productions are cotton, tobacco, wheat, hemp, and Indian corn.

Rivers.

The Mississippi is the western boundary.

The Cumberland is partly in this state, but rises in Kentucky, and the principal part of its course is in that state.

Tennessee River is formed by several branches which rise in the western parts of Virginia and the Carolinas, and unite a little west of Knoxville in East Tennessee. It runs south-west into Alabama, where it makes a circular bend, and returning, passes through Tennessee into Kentucky, and falls into the Ohio, 12 miles below the mouth of the Cumberland. Its course resembles

the letter V. It is navigable to the Muscle Shoals, 250 miles, at all seasons of the year. Here it spreads out, and becomes so shallow, that it is difficult for boats to pass when the water is low. Above the shoals there is no obstruction for 250 miles, till you arrive at the Suck or Whirl, where the river breaks through the Cumberland Mountains. The river is here compressed to a width of about 70 yards. Just as it enters the mountain, a large rock projects from the northern shore, which causes a sudden bend in the river; the water is thrown with great violence and rapidity against the southern shore, whence it rebounds around the point of the rock, and produces the whirl. Boats ascend and descend the whirl without much danger or difficulty. The principal branches of the Tennessee are the Clinch and the Holstone both of which rise in Virginia, and running south-west, unite at Kingston.

French Broad River falls into the Holston, four miles above Knoxville.

The Hiwassee rises in Georgia, and joins the Tennessee near Washington, about 70 miles above the Suck.

Duck River rises on the west side of the Cumberland Mountains, and running north-west, joins the Tennessee 57 miles west of Nashville.

Climate.

The climate of Tennessee is generally healthy. The season of vegetation commences six or seven weeks sooner than in New Hampshire, and continues as much later. Snow falls seldom, and does not lie long. The snow is regarded as deep at ten inches, and does not last generally more than eight or ten days. Cumberland River has been frozen but three or four times since the settlement of the country.

Civil Divisions and Population.

Counties.	*Whites.*	*Free Blacks.*	*Slaves.*	*All others.*	*Total.*
Anderson	4,295	24	349	0	4,668
Bedford	12,334	88	3590	0	16,012
Bledsoe	3,616	28	361	0	4,005
Blount	10,154	54	1050	0	11,258
Campbell	4,093	35	116	0	4,244
Carter	4,484	6	345	0	4,835
Claiborne	5,101	30	377	0	5,508
Cock	4,409	15	468	0	4,892
Davidson	12,066	189	7899	0	20,154
Dickson	3,861	24	1305	0	5,190
Franklin	12,338	66	4167	0	16,571
Giles	9,272	25	3261	0	12,558
Granger	6,796	199	656	0	7,651
Greene	10,465	30	829	0	11,324
Carried forward,	103,284	823	24,773	0	128,870

of the state, included between Tennessee and Mississippi River, was recently in possession of the Chickasaws, but has been ceded by them to the United States.

Government.

The present constitution of the state of Tennessee was adopted by a convention held at Knoxville, on the 6th of February, 1796.

The legislative authority is vested in a General Assembly, which consists of a senate and house of representatives. The number of representatives is apportioned among the several counties, according to the number of taxable inhabitants in each; and it is provided by the constitution that the whole number of representatives shall never exceed forty. Senators are apportioned among the districts according to the number of taxable inhabitants, and the number can never be less than one-third, nor more than one-half of the number of representatives. Both senators and representatives are elected once in two years, and at the same time. No person can be elected to a seat in either body unless he has resided three years in the state, and one year in the county, immediately preceding the election; and unless he possesses, in his own right, in the county which he represents, not less thau two hundred acres of land. The executive power is exercised by a governor, who is elected biennially by the people, and is eligible only six years in any term of eight. He must be twenty-five years of age, and possess a freehold estate of five hundred acres of land, and have been a citizen or inhabitant of the state four years next before the election. The judiciary power is vested in such superior and inferior courts of law and equity, as the legislature shall from time to time establish. The judges of the several courts are elected by joint ballot of the two houses, and hold their offices during good behaviour. Every freeman who has been an inhabitant of the county in which he resides for six months, immediately preceding the election, is entitled to vote for members of assembly. No person who denies the being of God, or a future state of rewards and punishments, can hold any office in the civil department of the state.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

Like most others of the newly-established states, Tennessee derives her name from her chief river. In the language of the Indians, by whom this district was traversed when first visited by the whites, the word Ten-assee is said to have signified a carved

spoon, the curvature to their imagination resembling that of the river Tennessee.

In the year 1664, Charles II. granted to the Earl of Clarendon and seven others, then proprietors of Carolina, a second charter for that province, by which its boundaries were extended eastward as far as the north end of Currituck Inlet, upon a straight line westwardly to Wyonoke Creek, lying about 36° 30′ N. lat., and so west in a direct line as far as the South Sea; and south and westward as far as 29° N. lat. inclusive; and so west in direct lines to the South Sea. Within this territory the country within the limits of the state of Tennessee was included. About the beginning of the next century Carolina was divided into two provinces, and Tennessee fell to the lot of the northern province. Nearly a century elapsed from the grant of Charles II. before any settlement of a permanent character was effected within the state. Besides the dangers arising from hostile Indians, and the remoteness of the situation, population was checked in its progress by a barrier of lofty mountains. Between the years 1740 and 1750, the eastern parts of the district were explored by Colonel Wood and other persons, who had received large grants from the government. These persons, however, made no settlement. At the commencement of the French war, in 1754, about fifty families were settled on the Cumberland River. They were, however, dislodged by the savages before the close of the next year. About the same time, the Shawnee Indians, who lived near the river Savannah, settled on the Cumberland River, in the vicinity of the spot upon which the town of Nashville now stands; but were driven away by the Cherokees, who possessed the country at the time of the first settlement.

In 1765, a number of emigrants settled themselves beyond the present limits of North Carolina, and were the first of the colonists of Tennessee. In 1773, population had increased to a very considerable extent. In the succeeding year a war broke out with the northern Indians residing across the Ohio, and terminated in their suing for peace, which was granted to them on easy terms. The year 1776, was rendered memorable by a formidable invasion of the Cherokees, who were excited by the British superintendent, Henry Stewart, to attack the infant settlements. This person had made proposals to the Tennesseans to join the British standard, offering them great advantages as the price of their adopting this line of policy. The proposals were rejected by this brave and patriotic people with indignation, and they unanimously determined to support the measures of Congress. The consequence was the invasion by the Cherokees, who threatened to depopulate the country as far as the Kanhawa. Fortunately their savage design was frustrated, and they met with a total defeat. When the constitution of North Carolina was

formed in 1776, this district sent deputies to the meeting. This was the first appearance of representatives from Tennessee.

In 1780, the militia and volunteers of the mountainous country lying on the borders of North Carolina and Tennessee, distinguished themselves by many gallant enterprises against the British and the tories. One of the most brilliant actions that occurred during the war, was that of King's Mountain, where upwards of one thousand of the enemy were attacked by a party of nine hundred mountaineers, commanded by Colonels Campbell, Shelby, and others; and, after losing two hundred of their number, the British surrendered themselves prisoners of war. Their commander, Colonel Ferguson, was among the killed. Soon after this event, the Cherokees having threatened an invasion, Colonel A. Campbell, with seven hundred mountaineers, penetrated into their country, and dispersed the savages. During this expedition he introduced a novel mode of fighting, by attacking the Indians with mounted riflemen, an experiment which proved completely successful. In the celebrated battle of Guilford, fought in March, 1781, the mountaineers, who were on the left wing of the American army, behaved with their usual gallantry. The peace, which took place in the succeeding year, enabled these brave and patriotic men to devote their attention to agriculture, and the improvement of their settlements.

In the year 1780, a small colony of about forty families, under the direction of James Robertson, crossed the mountains, and passing through a wilderness of three hundred miles, settled on the Cumberland River, where they founded the town of Nasville. Their nearest white neighbours were the inhabitants of the then infant settlement of Kentucky, and between them was a wilderness of two hundred miles. In 1782, the legislature of North Carolina appointed commissioners to explore the western part of the state, and to report to the succeeding legislature which part was most suitable for the bounty lands promised to the officers and soldiers of the continental line. According to their recommendation, the legislature, in 1783, laid off a tract of land on the Cumberland River, for the discharge of the military bounties. This district included the infant colony at Nasville, a small tract having been allotted to each of the settlers. A county was also laid off on the waters of the Cumberland, and received the name of Davidson, in commemoration of a gallant officer who fell during the revolutionary war. After this event population began to increase with rapidity. Many of the officers and soldiers to whom the military land had been granted, repaired thither with their families, while others sold their warrants to citizens of different states.

In 1785, the inhabitants of this district, feeling sensibly the inconveniences of a government so remote as that in the capital

of North Carolina, endeavoured to form an independent one, to which they intended to give the name of the "State of Franklin;" but differing among themselves, the scheme was abandoned for the time. In 1789, the legislature of North Carolina passed an act ceding the territory, on certain conditions, to the United States. Congress, in the following year, accepted the cession, and by another act passed on the 26th of May, 1790, provided for its government under the title of "The territory of the United States south of the Ohio." On the 8th of June following, the president appointed William Blount governor of the territory, which office he held during the continuance of the territorial government. Six years afterwards Congress passed an act enabling the people of this district to form a state constitution, which having been adopted, was approved by Congress, and Tennessee was admitted as a sovereign state into the union.

Since the period of her admission into the union, Tennessee has maintained an honourable rank among the states. Her citizens have been surpassed by no others in patriotism and bravery, to which the country of the Seminoles, and still more signally the vicinity of New Orleans, bear witness. In population the growth of this state has been remarkably rapid, although many of its citizens have emigrated to the comparatively newer settlements in Mississippi and Alabama.

MISSISSIPPI.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

MISSISSIPPI is situated between 30° 10′ and 35° N. lat. and 11° 10′ and 14° 25′ W. long. It is bounded north by Tennessee; east by Alabama; south by the Gulf of Mexico and Louisiana; west by Louisiana and Arkansas territory. The medium length is about 275, and the medium breadth 165 miles; the area being 45,350 square miles, or 29,024,000 acres.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

The southern part of the state for about 100 miles from the Gulf of Mexico is mostly a flat country, with occasional hills of moderate elevation, and is covered with forests of the long-leaved pine, interspersed with cypress swamps, open prairies, and inundated marshes. As you proceed farther north, the country becomes more elevated, and agreeably diversified, and the soil is a deep rich

mould. The Indian country is very fertile, and enjoys as fine and healthy a climate as any on the continent. On the Mississippi, between the mouth of the Yazoo and the southern boundary of the state, there are extensive bottom lands, occupying a surface of about 600 square miles, liable to annual inundation. The hilly country rises like a buttress from this plain, and for 10 or 15 miles towards the interior, presents a waving country, the soil being generally composed of rich loam, and well adapted to the cultivation of cotton. The price of land in this part of the state is very high, and immense profits have been realized by the cotton planters. The sugar cane is sometimes planted as high up as Natchez, but not with the same success as is experienced farther south. Tobacco and indigo were formerly extensively cultivated, but since the introduction of cotton, they have been almost abandoned. Most of the flour and grain used in the settlements on the Mississippi is brought from Kentucky.

Rivers.

The Mississippi River is the western boundary from N. lat. 35° to 31°, and is of great importance to the state, not only for the settlements it affords on its banks, but as being the great highway to the market at New Orleans.

The Yazoo rises in the northern part of the state, in the Chicasaw country; and, running a little west of south, falls into the Mississippi, 140 miles above Natchez. It waters some of the most fertile lands in the state, which were the subject of the Yazoo speculation. The Yazoo is 200 yards wide at its outlet, and is navigable by boats for 150 miles. The Yellow Creek is an eastern branch of the Yazoo.

Big Black River rises in the Choctaw country; and, running S. W. falls into the Mississippi, about 50 miles above Natchez.

The Homochitto joins the Mississippi near the S. W. corner of the state, after a S. W. course of about 70 miles. Buffaloe Creek falls into the same river, a few miles farther south.

The Amite rises in this state; and, flowing south, enters Louisiana.

Pearl River rises in the Choctaw country; and, running south, falls into the narrow strait which connects Lake Pontchartrain with Lake Borgne. Below lat. 31° it is the boundary between this state and Louisiana, It is about 200 yards wide, and navigable for about 150 miles. Like the Yazoo, it waters some of the finest lands in the state, and its waters are so transparent that it received its present name in consequence.

Pascagoula River is formed by Leaf and Chickasawhay Rivers, which unite in about lat. 31° N.; it runs S. E. by S. about 40 miles, and falls into the Gulf of Mexico. This is a very fine river, about 200 yards wide, and navigable by large boats through its whole course. The two branches are also navigable, the Leaf

30, and the Chickasawhay 70 miles. They are each about 80 yards wide at the junction.

Indian Country.

About one-half of the territory of this state, embracing the northern and north-eastern parts, is in the possession of the Chickasaw and Choctaw Indians. In 1820, the Choctaws ceded to the United States a large tract, including all their lands on the Mississippi River below the mouth of the Arkansa.

Climate.

The climate is, upon the whole, more temperate and agreeable than would naturally be expected in that southern latitude; the summers being agreeably tempered by breezes from the gulf and the moisture arising from the Mississippi. On the margin of that river it is rather unhealthy during the summer months; but in the elevated parts the climate is very salubrious. The bay of St. Louis in the southern part of the state, is esteemed one of the most healthy places in that latitude, and is the retreat of many of the citizens of New Orleans during the sickly season.

Civil Divisions and Population.

Counties.	*Whites.*	*Coloured.*	*Total.*
Adams	2557	7335	9892
Natchez City	1448	736	2184
Amite	4006	2847	6853
Claiborne	2840	3123	5963
Covington	1824	406	2230
Franklin	2277	1544	3821
Greene	1063	382	1445
Hancock	1142	452	1594
Jackson	1300	382	1682
Jefferson	1354	3668	6822
Lawrence	3919	997	4916
Marion	1884	1232	3116
Monroe	2192	529	2721
Perry	1539	498	2037
Pike	3443	995	4438
Warren	1401	1292	2693
Wilkinson	3937	5781	9718
Wayne	2250	1073	3323
Total	42,176	33,272	75,448

Chief Towns.

Natchez, in Adams county, is by far the largest town; it is on the Mississippi, 320 miles above New Orleans, by the course of the river, and 156 by land. The principal part of the town is on a bluff, elevated more than 150 feet above the surface of the river. The surrounding country is fertile, populous, and well cultivated,

and produces great quantities of cotton. Natchez is the commercial depôt for all the settlements in the western part of the state. Washington is very pleasantly situated in a fine healthy country, six miles east of Natchez. Shieldsborough is on the Bay of St. Louis, about 40 miles N. E. of New Orleans, in a pleasant and healthy situation. Pascagoula is near the mouth of Pascagoula River. Monticello, the seat of government, is on Pearl River, about 90 miles east of Natchez. Elliot is a missionary station in the Choctaw country, on the Yellow Creek, about 30 miles above its junction with the Yazoo, and has a water communication with Natchez and New Orleans.

Public Lands, Roads, and Canals.

In the act of Congress admitting this state into the union, the government of the United States agreed, that, after paying a debt of 1,250,000 dollars to Georgia, and indemnifying certain claimants, five per cent. of the net proceeds of the public lands lying within the state, shall be devoted to making roads and canals for the benefit of the state. As the condition of this grant, the state has provided, that the public lands shall be exempted from all taxes, while belonging to the United States, and for five years from the day of sale; that lands belonging to citizens of the United States, residing without the state, shall never be taxed higher than lands belonging to persons residing therein; and that the River Mississippi, and the navigable rivers and waters leading into the same or into the Gulf of Mexico, shall be common highways, and for ever free of toll or duty to all citizens of the United States.

Government.

The constitution of the state of Mississippi was adopted by a convention, on the 15th of August, 1817. Most of its provisions are similar to those of the other states. The legislative power is vested in two distinct branches, a senate and house of representatives, which form together "The General Assembly." The representatives are chosen annually; senators are chosen for three years, and vacate their seats in rotation. Both senators and representatives must possess a certain amount of landed estate. The executive power is exercised by a governor, chosen by the people, who holds his office for two years, and must possess landed property of a certain value. He has a qualified veto on the acts of the assembly, two-thirds of each house being required to pass a bill of which he has disapproved. A lieutenant-governor is also chosen by the same people for the same term, and is, by virtue of his office, president of the senate. The appointment of officers, not otherwise directed by the constitution, is vested in the general assembly. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court, and in such superior and inferior courts of law and equity, as the legislature may from time to time establish. The judges hold

their offices during good behaviour, or until they reach the age of 65. The right of voting is vested in each free white male person of the age of 21 years, who is a citizen of the United States, and has resided in the state one year next preceding an election, and, unless exempted, has been enrolled in the militia, or paid a state or county tax.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

THE first European by whom the present state of Mississippi was visited, appears to have been Ferdinand de Soto, a native of Badajoz, in Spain; who landed on the coast of Florida, on the 25th of May, 1539. Having learned from the Indians that gold existed in abundance in the interior of the country, he set off with a party of several hundred men in quest of this ignis fatuus, which had already caused so much disappointment and disaster to the adventurers of that period. Led on by the reports of the different Indian nations whom he encountered, and who uniformly represented the precious metal at some spot at no great distance in advance, he traversed various remote districts; and, after two years of marching and countermarching, arrived on the banks of a deep river, with a strong current and muddy water, which seems to have been the Mississippi. Another year was spent in descending the river and exploring the country in its vicinity; but death put a period to his enterprises, and he was buried on the banks of the Mississippi, in May, 1542. Of these principal facts no doubt can be entertained. The printed account of this expedition, however, abounds with the most romantic incidents and marvellous descriptions. Fabulous adventures, and equally fabulous countries and nations, are encountered by the reader in almost every page. The natives whom De Soto met, according to the historian of his travels, differed in almost every respect from the existing race of Indians, and from those whom more authentic narratives have represented as occupying the country soon after the period of his visit. We hear of walled towns, of houses built with architectural taste, thatched with reeds, and kept in a state of great cleanliness; of the houses of great lords being distinguished from those of the meaner sort by great galleries and benches made of cane; by hangings of tapestry, and seats, over which were thrown "coverlets embroidered with devices of very wittie and fine workmanship, and fringed round about with a fringe dyed in the colour of scarlet." We find these Indians possessing churches, the steeples of which are surmounted with vanes, and fields regularly surveyed and bounded, and cultivated with method and success. We are told of queens governing populous nations; extending their authority over districts of 300 miles in

extent; wearing necklaces of pearls; and navigated in barges magnificently ornamented. The Indians whom De Soto encountered, were sufficiently gentle to be great admirers of music, and sufficiently credulous to suppose that their invaders could be moved by a concord of sweet sounds; for we find that on one occasion, when the subjects of the King of Caliqueen, who had been arrested by De Soto, in his own territory, for some breach of politeness, and who, when he attempted to make his escape from his keepers was retaken by the aid of a bloodhound, were desirous of obtaining his release, they approached the Spaniards playing a mournful melody upon their *flutes;* but finding this species of remonstrance ineffectual, they were obliged to have recourse to the more natural argument of bows and arrows. Of other Indian nations, the same traveller states that they carried umbrellas over the heads of their kings, wore linen garments, used standards in time of war, and possessed dogs. Notwithstanding they found them thus far advanced in civilization, it seems the Spaniards still considered them in fact as outlaws and savages, for we find them seizing the Indian kings whenever they had an opportunity, and slaughtering the people and destroying their towns on the slightest pretext. After the death of De Soto, his followers passed another year in this country; and at last, sailing down the Mississippi to its mouth, proceeded to New Spain.

From this period, to the descent of the Mississippi, in 1683, by M. de Salle, little more seems to have been known of the country upon that river. The name of Louisiana, which now belongs to the state on the lower Mississippi, was, at the first establishment of the colony, applied to the territory on both sides of the river, between the lakes and the Gulf of Mexico, and between the Mexican and Alleghany Mountains. Over this vast extent of country France claimed to have jurisdiction, in consequence of the discovery of the Mississippi by M. de la Salle. In 1716, the French formed a settlement at the Natchez, and built a fort for its protection, which they named Rosalie. Subsequently, other settlers planted themselves among the Natchez Indians, and some penetrated to the Yazoos, where they built a fort, which was destroyed by the Chickasaws, in 1722. The French were favourably received by the Natchez; but the kindness of these Indians was requited by the most horrible ingratitude. In 1723, a dispute arising between an old Indian and a soldier at Fort Rosalie, the former was wantonly killed by some of the garrison. The perpetrators went unpunished, and the indignation of the Indians, being excited, they attacked the French, and killed many of them. At last peace was restored, and the Indians, not suspecting the faith of those Christian colonists, threw aside their arms, and were lulled into security. M. Beauville, the governor of Louisiana, availing himself of this circumstance, marched a body of 700 men to the fort, attacked the defenceless natives, and having inhumanly slaugh-

tered a great number of them, demanded, as the price of peace, the head of their principal chiefs. With this demand they were forced to comply; but from that moment they perceived that an extermination of the French, or their own abandonment of the country must take place. Affairs, however, remained without an open rupture until 1729, when a circumstance occurred which gave a new edge to their resentment, and led to the final catastrophe. M. de Chopart, governor of Fort Rosalie, was a man of an overbearing disposition and vindictive temper; who had made himself odious to the Indians by different acts of injustice. Having determined to build a town, he selected, with wanton cruelty, the site of a village of the Natchez, then occupied by a numerous population of the unoffending people. Accordingly he directed the chiefs to remove the inhabitants, and plant them in another place. The Natchez, perceiving that their ruin was resolved upon, endeavoured to gain time, while they effected an union among themselves, and an alliance with other tribes. By the promise of a tribute for each hut, they succeeded in inducing the commander to postpone the execution of his resolve until after the harvest. In the mean time, the plan of operations was concerted. The Chickasaws were invited, and agreed to engage in the enterprise. By some misfortune they mistook the time at which the blow was to be struck, and did not participate in the struggle. The French, too, were cautioned by a woman of the Natchez to be on their guard; but M. de Chopart blindly disregarded the counsel. At length, on the last day of November, 1729, the flame burst forth. The Natchez, on pretence of offering the tribute, repaired to the fort, of which they soon got possession. A general massacre ensued, M. de Chopart fell by the hands of one of the meanest of the Indians, the chiefs disdaining to stain their hands with his blood. Of the 700 French then settled in the vicinity of Fort Rosalie, very few escaped. The settlements at the Yazoos and Washita shared the same fate. When intelligence of this disaster reached the capital of Louisiana, effectual measures were taken to retrieve it. A detachment of troops was sent against the fort, of which the Natchez now had possession, and the Chickasaws, their former allies, now also turned their arms against them. The Natchez endeavoured to provide against the impending danger by fortifying the fort; but finding the strength of their adversaries too great for them, they proposed a cessation of hostilities for a day, which was agreed to by the French. During the night, they silently deserted the fort, loaded their boats with all the plunder they could carry, and crossed the Mississippi. The next morning the French, to their utter astonishment, found an empty fort; but were not then able to pursue the fugitives, who retired about 180 miles up Red River, where they erected a fortification. The French, having obtained a reinforcement, pursued them, attacked them in their

fort, and, after a sanguinary struggle, compelled them to surrender at discretion. Their women and children were reduced to slavery, and compelled to work on the plantations. Of the surviving warriors a few escaped, and united themselves to the Chickasaws and Creeks, among whom their ancient language is still preserved; the remainder were sold as slaves, and sent to St. Domingo.

The French retained an acknowledged title to the country on each side of the Mississippi until the treaty of 1763, when they ceded their possessions east of that river to the English. In the succeeding year, the latter took possession of the posts within this territory. During the passage of a regiment up the Mississippi to Natchez, it was attacked by the Tonnicas, and defeated with great slaughter. Notwithstanding the hostile disposition of the natives, the English directed their attention to the country, and began to cultivate about Natchez. By the treaty of 1783, Great Britain relinquished the Floridas to Spain, without any specific boundaries; and, at the same time, ceded to the United States all the country north of the 31st degree. The terms of this cession opened an ample field of dispute between the United States and Spain, which continued to agitate the two nations for several years. The Spaniards retained possession of Natchez and the posts north of the 31st degree, until 1798, when they finally abandoned them to the United States.

In the year 1800, the territory between the Mississippi and the western boundary of Georgia was erected into a distinct territorial government. By treaty in 1801, at fort Adams, the Choctaw Indians relinquished to the United States a large body of land, and other cessions have since been made. On the 1st of March, 1817, an act of Congress was passed, authorizing the people of the western part of the Mississippi territory to form a constitution and state government, and providing for the admission of the state thus formed into the union. Accordingly a convention met in July, 1817, by which a state constitution was formed: and the provisions required by the act of Congress having been complied with, the new state of Mississippi was admitted into the union in December following.

GOVERNORS.

1817 David Holmes.	1821 Walter Leake.
1819 George Poindexter.	

ALABAMA.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

ALABAMA is situated between 30° 17′ and 35° N. lat. and 7° 58′ and 11° 26′ W. long. It is bounded north by Tennessee; east, by Georgia; south, by Florida and the Gulf of Mexico; and west, by the state of Mississippi. It extends from north to south 275 miles, and from east to west 185 miles, its area being 50,800 square miles, or 32,512,090 acres.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

The land rises as you proceed from the coast into the interior. On the coast it is low and level, in the middle it is hilly, and in the north it is somewhat mountainous. With respect to soil, the country bordering on Tennessee River, above and below the Muscle Shoals, for the space of 100 miles, and for 40 miles north and south, is by some persons regarded as the garden of North America. This country was not many years since purchased from the Indians, and has been settled with unexampled rapidity. Madison county, which lies in this region, was, eight or ten years ago, a mere wilderness: it is now very populous, and produces annually 15,000 bales of cotton. The lands on the Mobile and Tombeckbee may be divided into three sections: first, low rice lands, on or near the banks, of a most excellent quality; secondly, what are called by the people of the country second low grounds, or level flat cane lands, about four or five feet higher than the low rice lands; and thirdly, the high upland or open country. The first, or low lands, extend about half a mile from the river, and may almost every where be easily drained and converted into most excellent rice fields. The second low grounds are in general about three-quarters of a mile wide, extremely rich, and well calculated for all kinds of grain, indigo, hemp, flax, and tobacco. The soil of the uplands is of a good quality, but much inferior to that of the low grounds. It answers well for raising Indian corn, potatoes, and such other productions as thrive best in a dry soil.

The country between the Alabama and Tombigbee is represented as the best part of the state. That east of the Alabama consists of good land, a considerable portion of it of the first quality. Of the lands lying to the north and west of the Alabama and Coosa Rivers, but little has been surveyed, and consequently but little of them is known. There are some fine bottom lands on the Tallapoosa in the lower part of its course.

Rivers.

The Chatahoochee, in the south-east, separates Alabama from Georgia.

The Tennessee enters the state near its north-east corner; and, bending round in a semicircular curve, leaves it at the north-west corner.

The Mobile is formed by the union of Alabama and Tombeckbee Rivers. After a course of three miles it divides, and enters Mobile Bay by several channels. The main western channel retains the name of Mobile River; the main eastern channel is the deepest and widest, and is called the Tensaw.

The Alabama is the eastern branch of the Mobile, and is formed by the Coosa and Tallapoosa, which rise in Georgia, and running south-west, unite near Fort Jackson. It is navigable for sea-vessels to Fort Claiborne, and for large boats throughout its whole extent. The Coosa and Tallapoosa are not navigable except for a few miles.

The Cahawba falls into the Alabama at the town of Cahawba, sixty miles by land below Fort Jackson.

The Tombeckbee is the western branch of the Mobile. It rises in the state of Mississippi, near the Muscle Shoals in Tennessee River, and pursues a southerly course of about 450 miles, before it joins the Alabama. It is navigable for schooners to St. Stephens, and for boats to the mouth of the Black Warrior.

The Black Warrior is a fine stream, which rises in the northern part of the state, and is navigable for boats to the falls near its source. This river is of importance, because it will probably become the channel of communication between the immense fertile country on Tennessee River and the sea-ports on Mobile Bay. From the falls of the Black Warrior to Huntsville, on a branch of the Tennessee, is 160 miles by land, principally through a level country.

Climate.

This state, ranging over five degrees of latitude, has a considerable variety of climate. The south part, beginning between 30° and 31° N. lat., has, of course, a hot climate in summer; but the heat is considerably meliorated by breezes from the Gulf of Mexico. As the state rises in elevation, the climate becomes more temperate, and the northern part has probably one of the finest climates in the United States.

Civil Divisions and Population.

Counties.	*Whites.*	*Free-coloured.*	*Slaves.*	*Total.*
Monroe	5014	30	3794	8838
Mobile	1673	183	816	2672
Clarke,	3778	26	2035	5839
Jackson,	9129	83	539	8751
Carried forward	18,594	322	7184	26,100

Counties.	*Whites.*	*Free-coloured.*	*Slaves.*	*Total.*
Brought forward	18,594	322	7184	26,100
Connecuh	3769	13	1931	5713
St. Clair	3607	6	553	4166
Tuscaloosa	5894	0	2335	8229
Shelby	2011	0	405	2416
Marengo	2052	15	866	2933
Baldwin	651	61	1001	1713
Butler	835	1	569	1405
Autauga	2203	3	1647	3853
Wilcox	1556	7	1354	2917
Blount	2239	1	175	2415
Bibb	2930	0	746	3676
Dallas	3324	2	2677	6003
Greene	2861	2	1691	4554
Limestone	6922	30	2919	9871
Morgan	4394	11	858	5263
Franklin	3308	13	1667	4988
Lauderdale	3556	29	1378	4963
Henry	2011	1	626	2638
Madison	8813	46	8622	17,481
Montgomery	3941	8	2655	6604
Decatur, Lawrence, Marion, Jefferson, Pickens, Perry, Washington, Pike, Covington	Laid out since the census was taken.			
Total,	85,471	571	41,859	127,901

Chief Towns and Forts.

Mobile is on the western channel of Mobile River, near its entrance into Mobile Bay. It is built on a high bank, in a dry and commanding situation; but the approach to the town for vessels drawing more than eight feet of water is difficult and circuitous. The country in the rear is unsettled pine woods. While this town was under the dominion of the French and Spaniards, it was a mere military post. When it came into possession of the United States, in 1813, it contained only 100 houses; but since the rapid progress of the settlements on the Tombeckbee and Alabama, an attempt has been made to make it the depôt for the produce of the country on those rivers. There is, however, a vigorous rivalry between this place and Blakely.

Blakely is on the Tensaw, or eastern outlet of Mobile River, 10 miles E. N. E. of Mobile. It is a new town, laid out in 1813, and has considerable advantages as an emporium for commerce. The same wind that enables a vessel to enter Mobile Bay will

carry her to the wharves of Blakely. Another advantage is an open road to the rapidly improving country on Alabama River. Vessels drawing twelve feet of water can enter the port at full tide. The town is abundantly supplied with excellent water.

Huntsville is a flourishing town in Madison county, on Indian Creek, ten miles north of Tennessee River. The surrounding country is fertile, and rapidly increasing in population.

St. Stephen's is on the west side of the Tombeckbee, at the head of schooner navigation, 80 miles by land above Mobile, 120 by water.

Cahawba, the seat of government, is at the junction of Cahawba River with the Alabama, 77 miles north-east of St. Stephen's.

Demopolis is a French settlement on the Tombeckbee, at the confluence of the Black Warrior.

Fort Stoddart is on the west side of Mobile River, about half way between Mobile and St. Stephen's.

Fort Claiborne is on the east side of the Alabama, at the head of schooner navigation, 60 miles above its junction with the Tombeckbee.

Fort Jackson is near the junction of the Coosa and Tallapoosa Rivers.

Education, Roads, Canals, &c.

When Alabama was admitted into the union in 1819, the government of the United States granted to the state, on certain conditions, one section or thirty-sixth part of every township, for the support of schools, and two townships for the establishment of an university. Five per cent. also of the net proceeds arising from the sale of public lands is appropriated to the making of roads and canals, and improving the navigation of rivers. As the condition of these grants, the state agrees that no lands belonging to the United States shall be taxed for any purpose for the term of five years from the day of sale, and that all the navigable waters within the state shall for ever remain public highways, free to all the citizens of the United States without any tax or toll.

Government.

The constitution of the state of Alabama was adopted by a convention which met at Huntsville, in July, 1819, in pursuance of an act of Congress passed in the month of March preceding. The powers of government are divided into three distinct departments. The legislative power is vested in two branches, a senate and a house of representatives, together called the general assembly. The members of the house of representatives are chosen annually. No other than a citizen of the United States, who has been an inhabitant of the state two years next before his election, can be elected a representative. Each county sends a number of representatives proportioned to its population. Senators are chosen for a term of three years, and vacate their seats by rotation,

one-third being chosen annually. They are elected by districts, and in addition to the qualifications required of representatives, each senator must have attained the age of 27. The executive power is vested in a governor, who is chosen by the people for a term of two years, and is not eligible for more than four years in any term of six. He must be thirty years of age, a native citizen of the United States, and have resided in the state at least four years preceding the election. Every bill which has passed both houses is presented to the governor. If he disapproves, he returns it to the house in which it originated, with his objections. Notwithstanding which a majority of the whole number elected in each house is competent to pass it into a law. The judicial power is vested in one supreme court, in circuit courts for each county, and in such inferior courts as the legislature may from time to time establish. The judges are elected by joint ballot of the assembly, hold their offices during good behaviour, and receive a stated compensation, which cannot be diminished during their continuance in office. The elective franchise is vested in all white male persons of the age of 21 years and upwards, citizens of the United States, who have resided in the state one year next preceding an election, and three months in the county, city, or town in which the election is held.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

THE country within the limits of the state of Alabama, although but very recently settled, is believed to have been visited by Europeans so long ago as the middle of the sixteenth century. In May, 1539, Ferdinand de Soto, governor of Cuba, landed in Florida, with a considerable body of men, and led them into the interior of the country. His object was gold, and in search of this he appears to have encountered numerous difficulties, and to have traversed a vast extent of country. After passing through a series of romantic adventures, he is said to have died on the bank of the Mississippi in the year 1542.

From this period many years elapsed without any further attempt to penetrate into the country east of the Mississippi. Nearly the whole territory between the present limits of Georgia and those of Louisiana, remained until after the middle of the eighteenth century in the same condition as when first discovered. Scattered settlements were made within the present state of Mississippi previous to the American revolution: but Alabama continued exclusively the hunting ground of savages until a much later period. By the treaty of peace concluded in 1783, the Mississippi, to the 31st degree of north latitude, was made the western

boundary of the United States, thence by a line to be drawn due east from the determination of this boundary to the middle of the river Apalachicola or Chatahouchi; thence along the middle thereof to its junction with the Flint River; thence straight to the head of St. Mary's River; and thence down along the middle of St. Mary's River to the Atlantic Ocean. This territory, as far north as the latitude of 35°, was claimed by Georgia, and continued under her jurisdiction until the beginning of the present century. In 1795 an act of the legislature of Georgia was passed, by which about 22 millions of acres of its *western territory*, as it was then called, were sold to certain companies for the price of five hundred thousand dollars, and the purchase money was paid into the treasury agreeably to the terms of the act. The land was soon afterwards sold at an advanced price by the original purchasers to various persons principally in the middle and eastern states. The sale of this territory excited a warm and violent opposition in Georgia. The transaction was impeached on the ground of bribery and unconstitutionality, and at the succeeding session of the legislature an act was passed, declaring the law of 1795 to be unconstitutional and void, and ordering it to be formally *burnt*, together with all records, &c., relating to the sale. That part of the purchase money which had been paid was deposited in the state treasury to be returned to the purchasers upon application, and the treasurer was ordered not to receive the balance. Those who had acquired titles from the original purchasers instituted suits in the federal courts. In 1802, however, Georgia ceded to the United States all her western territory in consideration of the sum of 1,250,000 dollars, to be paid by the United States out of the first net proceeds of the sales of public lands within the ceded district. The United States also engaged to extinguish at their own expense the Indian title to lands in Georgia. On this event the purchasers of the Yazoo land petitioned Congress for redress and compensation, and after considerable opposition an act was finally passed for reimbursing the claimants with funded stock called the Mississippi stock, and which was to be paid out of the proceeds of the sales of land.

In 1800, the territory which now forms the states of Mississippi and Alabama was erected into a territorial government, with the privileges and under the restrictions usual to such governments. In 1812, that part of West Florida lying between the Pearl River and the Perdido, and which had then recently been taken possession of by the government of the United States, was annexed to the territory of Mississippi. On the 15th of April 1812, Mobile was taken possession of by the troops under General Wilkinson. After these events population began to flow into the Mississippi territory: but its progress was checked by the ravages of the Indians. The Creeks and Cherokees had experienced the protection and favour of the United States to a greater

extent than any other tribes; but, like other savages, they felt an aversion to the progress of civilization; and the intrigues of the celebrated Tecumseh stirred them up to hostilities. The first warlike proceedings arose from the Creeks and Seminoles living within the limits of Florida. Having been joined by a number of fugitive negroes from the United States, they commenced a cruel and harassing warfare against the whites. In September, 1812, a party of volunteers from Georgia was attacked near the Lachway towns by a superior force of Indians; but, after a sharp conflict, succeeded in repulsing them. No event of great importance occurred until the summer of the following year. Intimidated by the threats of the Indians, most of the settlers on the Alabama had taken refuge on forts temporarily erected. In one of these, called Fort Mims, a party of 150 men, with a number of women and children, were collected. In August, 1813, the Indians surprised the place, and after a desperate conflict drove the garrison into the houses, to which they set fire. Those who escaped the flames were destroyed by the tomahawk, and of 300 persons only 17 escaped. This horrible outrage was followed by the ruin and devastation of the remaining settlements. The state of Tennessee immediately took measures to check the progress of the savage enemy. Twenty-five hundred militia were called out and ordered to be placed under General Jackson. The latter, having collected a portion of his force, joined Colonel Coffee, and marched to the Ten Islands on the Coosa. General Coffee was detached in November, with 900 men, to attack and disperse a body of the enemy at Tallushatchee. After a desperate conflict, in which most of the Indians fell, refusing quarter, the survivors surrendered. In December, General Jackson, hearing that the enemy had invested a fort of the friendly Indians at Talladega, marched against them, attacked with his usual impetuosity, and totally defeated them. Three hundred warriors were left dead on the field, and many more were killed in the pursuit. Fifteen of the Americans were killed, and eighty wounded. In another quarter the Indians suffered similar retribution. General Cocke, who commanded the detached militia of East Tennessee, despatched General White with a part of his force against the towns of the Hillabee tribe. The object was effectually accomplished, and a large number of prisoners taken. About the same time, too, the Georgia militia, under General Floyd, obtained a signal victory over a body of the enemy at the Autossee towns on the Tallapoosa.

Great discontent about this time prevailed among General Jackson's irregular troops. The term of service of most of the militia expired about the beginning of 1814, and the greater part of this force returned home. A reinforcement of 1000 mounted volunteers, however, arrived soon after, who were engaged for 60 days only. These Jackson resolved to lead against the enemy. They accordingly marched on the 15th of January, and at Talla-

dega were joined by about 200 friendly Indians. A considerable body of the enemy was posted at a bend of the Tallapoosa, near the mouth of a creek called Emuckfau. After a difficult march, Jackson arrived on the evening of the 21st in the vicinity of the enemy, and encamped in a hollow square. At dawn the next morning, the Indians commenced a furious onset on his left flank, and after a warm action of half an hour were repulsed. General Jackson then acted on the offensive. A general charge was made upon the enemy's line, which they were unable to resist. They betook themselves to flight, and reached their fortified post with great loss. General Jackson soon after this set out on his return to the Ten Islands. While his army was crossing the Enotichopco Creek, the Indians commenced a bold and determined attack, which, however, proved abortive in consequence of the skill and gallantry of a company of artillery. Some other engagements of minor consequence afterwards occurred; but the chief action of this campaign, and that which annihilated the power of these savages, was the battle of Tohopeka. The post had been selected by the Indians with great judgment, and fortified with uncommon skill and care. Notwithstanding the strength of the position, however, and the resolution of the enemy, the Americans triumphed with considerable loss on their part, but with the almost total destruction of the savages. Five hundred and fifty warriors were found dead, besides a great number who perished in the river, while only four were made prisoners. Not long after this event, peace was concluded by the total submission of the Indians, and the settlements in Alabama were freed from those harassing inroads by which their progress had been impeded.

In March, 1817, an act of Congress was passed dividing the Mississippi territory, and authorizing the people of its western portion to form a state constitution. The eastern portion was then formed into a territorial government, and received the name of Alabama. In 1818, the number of inhabitants in Alabama being sufficient to authorize its admission into the union, application was made to Congress for the purpose. A bill was accordingly brought in and received the assent of both houses and of the president, in March, 1819. A convention of delegates met at Huntsville, in the month of July, 1819, and adopted a state constitution, which was laid before Congress on the 6th of December following, and a resolution soon afterwards passed, declaring the admission of the state into the union.

GOVERNORS.

1819 William W. Bibb. | 1821 Israel Pickens.

Places remarkable for Battles, and Sieges.

1813, Fort Mimms. Surprised by the Indians, and the garrison massacred, August.

Tallushatchee. The Indians attacked and defeated by General Coffee, Nov. 3.

Talladega. General Jackson attacks and defeats the Indians, Nov. 8.

Hillabee Towns. Attacked and burnt by General White, Nov.

Autosse. General Floyd defeats the Indians and burns their towns, Nov.

Eccanachaca. General Claiborne defeats the Indians and destroys their towns, Dec. 23.

1814, Emuckfau. Sanguinary engagement between General Jackson's troops and the Indians, Jan. 22.

Enotachopco. The Indians repulsed in an attack on General Jackson's troops, Jan. 23.

Tohopeka. The Indian fortified post attacked by General Jackson, and carried with great slaughter, March 27.

Mobile. The British defeated in an attack upon Fort Bowyer, Sept. 17.

1815, Mobile. Fort Bowyer taken by the British, March 11.

LOUISIANA.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

LOUISIANA is situated between 29° and 33° N. lat., and 12° and 17° 15′ W. long. It is bounded north by Arkansas territory; east by the state of Mississippi; south by the Gulf of Mexico; and west by the Spanish possessions. The boundary runs as follows: beginning in Mississippi River, at 33° N. lat. it proceeds down the river to lat. 31°; thence along that parallel to Pearl River; down Pearl River to the Gulf of Mexico; along the Gulf of Mexico, including all the islands within six leagues of the shore, to the mouth of the Sabine; up the Sabine to the parallel of 32° N. lat. thence due north to the parallel of 33°; thence east along that parallel to the place of beginning. It is about 240 miles long, by 200 broad, and contains 48,220 square miles, or 30,860,800 acres.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

A large extent of country in this state is annually overflowed by the Mississippi. From lat. 31° to 32°, the average width of overflowed land may be estimated at 20 miles; from lat. 31° to the efflux of La Fourche, a little above lat. 30°, the width is about 40 miles. All the country below La Fourche is over-

flowed. The whole extent of lands thus inundated is 8340 square miles; and if to this be added 2550 square miles for the inundated lands on Red River, the whole amount in the state will be 10,890 square miles. It must not be imagined, however, that this extensive tract is one continued sheet of water. It is intersected by innumerable canals and lakes, which, interlocking in a thousand mazes, chequer the whole face of the country. The area actually submerged is estimated at only 4000 square miles. It is remarkable that the banks of the Mississippi are considerably elevated above the level of the adjacent country. This is occasioned by a more copious deposition along the margins of the stream than at a distance from them. Hence it happens that the river is skirted with a rich border of alluvial land, from 400 yards to a mile and a half in breadth, and elevated above the level of the inundations. Along the whole southern border of the state from Pearl River to the Sabine are vast prairies, which for every purpose of a general sketch, may be described as one immense meadow, occupying 10,000 square miles, or one-fifth of the surface of the state. The part of this tract about the mouths of the Mississippi, for 30 miles, is a continued swamp, destitute of trees, and covered with a species of coarse reed, four or five feet high. Nothing can appear more dreary than the prospect from a ship's mast, while passing this immense waste.

The parts of the state which have been brought under cultivation, are almost exclusively the narrow tracts of rich alluvial land on the banks of the Mississippi, the Teche, Red River, and Washita. The staple productions are cotton, sugar, and rice. Tobacco and indigo could be as extensively cultivated as cotton, but they do not afford the same profit. On the banks of the Mississippi, La Fourche, Teche, and Vermillion, below lat. 30° 12′ north, wherever the soil is elevated above the annual inundation, sugar can be produced; and the lands are generally devoted to this crop. In all other parts of the state cotton is the staple. The best districts for cotton are the banks of Red River, Washita, Teche, and the Mississippi. Rice is more particularly confined to the banks of the Mississippi, where irrigation can be easily performed. The quantity of land within the state adapted to the cultivation of the three staples, has been estimated as follows: sugar, 250,000 acres; rice, 250,000; cotton, 2,400,000. Sugar planters have frequently derived a revenue in some years of 1000 dollars from the labour of each of their slaves: from 500 to 750 dollars is the ordinary calculation. The amount of sugar made in Louisiana in 1817, was 20,000,000 pounds, or nearly one-third of the whole amount consumed in the United States. The extensive prairie lands in the south-west part of the state, embracing the county of Opelousas and the greater part of Attakapas, are most admirably adapted to the rearing of cattle, and have hitherto been used almost exclusively for that purpose. Many of the richer

planters on the Teche and Vermillion have stock farms established on Mermentau and Calcasu rivers, and count their cattle by the thousand.

Climate.

The state, lying south of the latitude of 33°, has a warm climate, but it is so tempered by the breezes from the Gulf of Mexico that the heat seldom goes to great extremes. In the north-west part of the state, the winter weather is sometimes pretty severe, but the cold is never of long continuance. The mean heat at New Orleans is about 71°, at Baton Rouge 69°; and at Camp Ripley, near Natchitoches, about 68 degrees.

Rivers.

The Mississippi River forms the eastern boundary of the state, from lat. 33° to 31° north. Below the parallel of 31° N. lat., instead of receiving the tribute of inferior streams, it divides into numerous branches or outlets, which, diverging from each other, slowly wind their way to the sea, forming what is called the Delta of the Mississippi. Of these outlets, the most western is the Atchafalaya, which leaves the main stream three miles below the mouth of Red River, and diverging westward, flows into Atchafalaya Bay, in the Gulf of Mexico. About 128 miles below the Atchafalaya is the outlet of the Plaquemine, whose main stream unites with the former, but it has other communications intersecting the country in different directions. Thirty-one miles below the Plaquemine, and 81 above New Orleans, is the outlet of La Fourche, which communicates with the Gulf of Mexico by two mouths. Below La Fourche, numerous smaller streams branch off from the river at various points. On the east side of the Mississippi, the principal outlet is the Iberville, which communicates with the Gulf of Mexico through Lakes Maurepas, Pontchartrain, and Borgne.

Red River rises in the Spanish dominions, in the Rocky Mountains, and, flowing south-east, enters this state near its north-west corner, and discharges itself into the Mississippi in about lat. 31° N. The navigation is interrupted in several places by trees, which have floated down in immense numbers, and choked up the channel. The Washita rises in Arkansas territory, and, running south-east, discharges itself into Red River, 23 miles from its mouth. Pearl River, below lat. 31° N., is the boundary between this state and Mississippi. It falls into the Rigolets, a narrow strait running from Lake Pontchartrain to Lake Borgne.—The Teche joins the Atchafalaya, 15 miles from its mouth in the Gulf of Mexico. The part of the state west of the Teche is watered by the Vermillion, Mermentau, Calcasu, and Sabine, the three last of which dilate into

shallow lakes, and again contract to the form of rivers just before entering the Gulf of Mexico.

Levees.

Levees are embankments erected on the margin of the Mississippi to prevent the water from overflowing the plantations during the periodical floods. On the east side of the Mississippi, the embankment commences about 60 miles above New Orleans, and extends down the river for more than 130 miles. On the west shore, it commences at Point Coupee, 172 miles above New Orleans. The levee is commonly about five feet high, and twelve feet at the base, with sufficient width at the top for a foot-path; but in bends, where the current acts with greater force, it is sometimes fifteen feet high and thirty feet at the base. As there is no stone to be had, the only material used is a soft clay with cypress staves placed next the river, and the whole covered with earth and sodded. A crevasse is a breach formed in the levee by the waters of the river in time of inundation. "A crevasse," says Mr. Brackenridge, "rushes from the river with indescribable impetuosity, and a noise like the roaring of a cataract, boiling and foaming, and tearing every thing before it." When a crevasse occurs, the inhabitants for miles above and below, instantly abandon every employment, and hasten to the spot where every exertion is made by day and night to stop the breach, which is sometimes successful, but more frequently the hostile element is suffered to take its course, and the consequences are the destruction of the crop and the buildings; and sometimes the land itself is much injured, the current carrying away the soil, or leaving numerous logs and trees, which must be destroyed before the land can again be cultivated.

Civil Divisions and Population, 1820.

Divisions.	*Whites.*	*Slaves.*	*Free Blacks.*	*Total.*
Parish of New Feliciana .	5,499	7164	69	12,732
Parish of St. Helena . . .	2,164	830	32	3,026
Parish of St. Tammany . .	1,053	631	39	1,723
Parish of Washington . . .	1,957	559	1	2,517
Parish of East Baton Rouge .	3,012	2076	132	5,220
Parish of Iberville	2,019	2279	116	4,414
Parish of West Baton Rouge	908	1303	124	2,335
Parish of Ascension . . .	1,495	2129	104	3,728
Parish of St. James . . .	2,522	3086	52	5,656
Parish of Washita	2,016	836	44	2,609
Parish of Rapides	2,491	3489	85	6,065
Parish of Avoyelles . . .	1,438	782	25	2,245
Parish of Ocatahoula . . .	1,524	751	12	2,287
Carried forward,	28,098	25,915	835	54,597

Divisions.	*Whites.*	*Slaves.*	*Free Blacks.*	*Total.*
Brought forward,	28,098	25,915	835	54,587
Parish of St. John Baptist .	1,532	2209	113	3,854
Parish of St. Charles . . .	727	2987	148	3,862
County of Natchitoches . . .	4,745	2326	415	7,486
County of Point Coupee . .	1,092	3630	190	4,912
Parish of Concordia	827	1787	12	2,626
Parish of La Fourche, interior	2,659	968	128	3,755
Parish of Assumption . . .	2,409	1149	18	3,576
County of Attakapas . . .	5,862	5707	494	12,063
Parish of St. Barnard . . .	667	1923	45	2,635
Parish of Plaquemine . . .	637	1566	151	2,354
City of New Orleans . .	13,584	7355	6237	27,176
Parish of New Orleans . . .	5,660	7,591	924	14,175
County of Opelousas . . .	5,368	3951	766	10,085
Total,	73,867	69,064	10,476	152,946

In 1810, the population was about 86,000; in 1820, 153,407, of whom 69,064 were slaves, and 10,476 free-coloured persons. The number of foreigners not naturalized was 3145; of persons engaged in commerce, 6251; of persons engaged in agriculture, 53,941; and of persons engaged in manufactures, 6041. This population is principally confined to the settlements on the immediate banks of the Mississippi, above and below New Orleans. For the distance of more than 100 miles along this river, the banks present the appearance of a continued village. In the upper settlement, the inhabitants are principally Canadians; in the middle, Germans; and in the lower French, and Spaniards. In the other parts of the state, the settlements are chiefly confined to the banks of the rivers.

Chief Towns.

New Orleans, the capital, is regularly laid out on the left bank of the Mississippi, 104 miles from its mouth by the course of the river, and about 90 in a direct line. The streets are generally 40 feet wide, and cross each other at right angles. In the streets near the river the houses are principally of brick, but in the back part of the town, of wood. New Orleans is admirably situated for trade, being near the mouth of a noble river, whose branches extend for thousands of miles in opposite directions, and open communications with the whole valley of the Mississippi, the most extensive and fertile valley on the face of the earth. This city is already one of the greatest emporiums of commerce in America, and the introduction of steam-boat navigation on the Mississippi daily adds to its importance. The population has increased with great rapidity. In 1802, it was estimated at 10,000; in 1810, it was 17,242; and in 1820, 27,146, of whom 7355 were slaves, and 6237 free-coloured persons.

Natchitoches, the largest town west of the Mississippi, is on Red River, 200 miles above its junction with the Mississippi. The French established it as a military post in 1717, and about one-third of its present inhabitants are of French origin. The population in 1818 was estimated at more than 600, exclusive of the garrison.

Alexandria is a new and flourishing settlement on Red River, 120 miles from its mouth, and 80 miles below Natchitoches.

Madisonville is on the north side of Lake Pontchartrain, 27 miles north of New Orleans.

Commerce.

The exports from Louisiana are not confined to its own produce. Much of that of all the western states goes down the Mississippi, and is cleared out at New Orleans. The value of the exports, in 1804, was 1,600,362 dollars; in 1806, 3,887,323 dollars; in 1815, 5,102,610 dollars; in 1817, 13,501,036 dollars, or nearly two-thirds as much as that of the whole United States in 1791. The whole number of arrivals and clearances at the port of New Orleans, during the year ending Oct. 1, 1817, was 1030. During the same year, 1500 flat-bottomed boats, and 500 barges, arrived at the city from the upper country. The duties on merchandise paid in this state in 1804, was 279,272 dollars; in 1807, 480,275 dollars; in 1815, 984,909 dollars.

Religion.

The Roman Catholic religion is the most prevalent at present. In 1812, there was not one Protestant church of any denomination in the state. Since that time many have been formed, and the constant influx of inhabitants from other parts of the United States is effecting a rapid revolution in all the institutions of the country.

Education.

Till very recently education was much neglected, but government has now commenced the establishment of schools and academies.

Government.

The constitution of Louisiana was formed in pursuance of authority given by an act of Congress, passed in 1811, and was submitted to Congress in 1812. The instrument bears date the 22d of January, 1812, and contains provisions of which the following is an abstract:

The powers of government are divided into three departments. 1. The legislative power is vested in two distinct branches, a senate and a house of representatives. The members of the senate are elected for the term of four years, and vacate their seats by rota-

tion. Representatives are chosen biennially. 2. The executive office is exercised by a governor, who is elected for a term of four years by the people, and is ineligible for the succeeding four years after the expiration of the time for which he has been elected. He appoints, with the advice and consent of the senate, to all offices established by the constitution, and for which no other mode of appointment is provided therein. It is made his duty to visit the different counties at least once in two years, to inform himself of their general condition. He has a qualified veto upon the acts of the assembly, similar to that vested in the president of the United States. The possession of property to a certain extent is required of members of the legislature and the governor. A senator must hold a landed estate of the value of 1000 dollars, in the district in which he is chosen; a representative must possess landed property in the county for which he is chosen, to the value of 500 dollars; and the governor must hold in his own right a landed estate of 5000 dollars in value. Every free white male citizen of the United States, who has attained the age of twenty-one, and resided in the county one year, and who in the six months next preceding the election has paid a state tax, is entitled to the privileges of an elector. 3. The judiciary power is vested in a supreme court, which has appellate jurisdiction only, and in such inferior courts as the legislature may establish. The judges of all the courts hold their offices during good behaviour. The power of impeachment resides in the house of representatives, and all impeachments are tried by the senate.

Amendments may be made in the constitution by the following process: If a majority of all the members elected to each house, concur in passing a law, within the first twenty days of the session, specifying the alterations they conceive necessary, a poll is to be opened at the next election for representatives; when votes are to be received for or against a convention. If it appears that a majority of the whole number of persons entitled to vote, have voted for a convention, a similar poll is to be opened the next year; when, if a similar result appears, the general assembly must call a convention, to meet within three months after the election.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

Previous to the year 1811, the name of Louisiana belonged to the whole of that vast and ill-defined tract of country which was ceded by France to the United States in 1803. On the territory of Orleans becoming a state, it adopted the general name for its particular appellation, and the remaining portion of the original Louisiana has received distinct denominations. In the following historical sketch, much is necessarily introduced

that is common to the history of the whole country watered by the Mississippi.

Both the period of time at which, and the persons by whom, the Mississippi was discovered, have been the subject of controversy. It appears, however, sufficiently certain, that it was seen by Ferdinand de Soto in the course of his romantic adventures, about the year 1541. More than a century elapsed before it was again visited by Europeans. In 1673, two missionaries from Canada, named Jolliet and Marquette, traversed the lakes, and entered the great river by descending the Wisconsing. They are said to have proceeded down as far as the Arkansas, and then to have returned to Canada. The honour of having first navigated the Mississippi to its mouth, belongs to M. de la Salle, an enlightened and enterprising Frenchman, who achieved this important undertaking in 1683. Returning to Canada, he proceeded thence to France, and embarked with a number of settlers for the mouth of the river. By mistake they passed the place of destination, and sailed about 300 miles west of the Mississsippi, to the Bay of St. Bernard, where the colony was debarked. Here they were destined to encounter a series of misfortunes, arising from the nature of the climate, the want of provisions, the hostility of the Indians, and their own misconduct. After vainly attempting to penetrate by land to the Mississippi, M. de la Salle was cruelly murdered by his own men; and, of the whole colony, all perished except seven, who finally reached Canada. In 1699, a more successful attempt was made by M. D'Ibberville, who entered the Mississippi, and laid the foundation of the first French colony in Lower Louisiana. The place chosen for a settlement was near the mouth of the river Perdido, a very injudicious choice, from the unhealthiness of the climate and the barrenness of the soil. From these circumstances, together with the improper management of the royal governors, and the profligate character of many of the settlers, the progress of the colony was very slow. It is indeed recorded, that although 2500 emigrants arrived in the first thirteen years, and upwards of half a million of livres were expended on the colony, there remained, in 1712, only 400 whites and 20 negroes.

About this period the French government, finding itself unable to support the colony, made a grant of the country to M. de Crozat, for the term of ten years, giving him the entire management of its concerns, and a monopoly of its trade. The progress of the settlements was, however, but little more rapid under the government of Crozat. After an experiment of five years, and a loss of a large sum of money, he relinquished his patents to the Mississippi Company, formed by the celebrated projector Law. In the same year, (1717), the city of New Orleans was founded. The most romantic and extravagant accounts of the country were now published. It was represented as abounding in the precious

metals, and combining all the delights of the most favoured spots on earth. Thousands of emigrants were allured by these descriptions, most of whom perished miserably from sickness and want of food. Agriculture had made little progress, and the disposition of the majority of the settlers led them rather to assimilate their habits to those of the savages, than to pursue a regular course of industry. The war which broke out in 1719, between France and Spain, and which was followed by hostilities between the Indians of Louisiana and the French settlers, added to the misfortunes of the latter. The most powerful of the tribes opposed to them were the Natchez, who proved a formidable enemy to the colony; but after many sanguinary contests, the tribe was almost totally destroyed in 1731. The same year is memorable for the destruction of the Mississippi Company, and the retrocession of their grant of Louisiana to the French crown. The splendid bubble was dissolved, and the deluded stockholders found themselves involved in total ruin. From their operations, however, although pernicious to themselves, the colony derived great advantages: and about this time its affairs began to wear a prosperous aspect. The settlements were gradually extended up the Mississippi, and the productions of the country were exported to some profit.

From this period to the conclusion of the war with England, by which that power obtained possession of Canada, few events of importance occurred in Louisiana. By the surrender of Canada, the French government was compelled to relinquish its design of drawing a cordon round the English settlements, and securing its influence over the Indians by means of a chain of posts from Quebec to New Orleans. Its possessions were also curtailed in the neighbourhood of the Mississippi. By the treaty of 1763, between France, Spain, and England, all of Louisiana east of the Mississippi, was ceded to the latter power, together with Mobile and all the possessions of France in that quarter. A secret compact also, which had been concluded between France and Spain in the preceding November, but which was not promulgated for two years, extinguished the French dominion altogether on the continent of North America. The island of Orleans and all the possessions of France west of the Mississippi, were by this instrument ceded to Spain. After the cession to Great Britain, that part of the territory which lay east of the Mississippi, received the name of West Florida.

The intelligence of their transfer to Spain, was received with equal surprise and indignation by the inhabitants of Louisiana. The delay in taking possession by Spain was so great as to lead to the belief that the cession was only nominal, but all doubts were removed by the arrival of a Spanish detachment in 1766. The people, at first apparently resolved not to be transferred like cattle from one purchaser to another, attacked the Spaniards, and

compelled them to retire. Three years passed away without any further attempt to obtain possession; but the inhabitants, finding opposition would be fruitless, submitted, in 1769, to the Spanish dominion. A horrible act of treachery and cruelty disgraced the Spanish commander, O'Reilly. He invited twelve of the principal inhabitants to an entertainment, and then barbarously murdered them: an act resembling more the atrocities of Asiatic revenge than the hostility of Europeans. The government of O'Reilly was, however, favourable upon the whole to the prosperity of the colony; which remained in a tranquil state until the American revolutionary war.

After considerable hesitation, Spain took part with the United States, incited probably by the hope of regaining her possessions east of the Mississippi. Accordingly, in 1779, Galvez, the Governor of Louisiana, took possession of Baton Rouge: and the other settlements of the English in Florida surrendered successively. In the mean time a formidable expedition of the British and Indians against Upper Louisiana, was defeated by the vigour of General Clark. By the treaty of 1783 between the United States and Great Britain, the Mississippi was made the western boundary of the United States from its source to the 31st degree of latitude, and following this line to the St. Mary's. The Floridas were ceded to Spain by a treaty of the same date, but without any specific boundaries. This omission led to a controversy between the United States and Spain, which nearly terminated in hostilities. It was finally arranged, however, in 1795, by a treaty which provided for an amicable settlement of the boundary line, and secured to the republic the right of deposit for its western produce at New Orleans. The almost proverbial delay of Spain, prevented this treaty from being carried into effect for nearly three years. It is known, too, that that monarchy entertained the hope of bringing about a separation of the western country from the rest of the United States, by throwing obstacles in the way of their navigation of the Mississippi. The energy of the government, however, counteracted these designs; but the treaty of 1795 was frequently broken in that important provision which respected the deposit at New Orleans. During the administration of President Adams, preparations were made for a forcible occupation of that city; but the state of parties caused the plan to be abandoned, and all the objects contended for by the republic were soon afterwards happily obtained. On the 1st of October, 1800, a secret treaty was signed at Paris by the plenipotentiaries of France and Spain, by which the latter power, in consideration of an accession of dominion guaranteed by France to the Duke of Parma, engaged to cede Louisiana to her, to the same extent that it had in the hands of Spain, and formerly had in the hands of France. The cession actually took place in March, 1801, but the fact was not promulgated for some time.

It appears to have been the intention of the French government to take possession of the province, but the blockade of their ports by the British prevented the execution of the design. As soon as intelligence of the cession to France reached the American government, negotiations were opened with that power, which happily terminated in April, 1803, by a transfer of the whole country to the United States, for which the sum of sixty millions of francs was paid to France.

The purchase of Louisiana, although vehemently censured at the time by the party opposed to Mr. Jefferson, is now admitted on all hands to have been an act of great political wisdom. It closed up a broad source of controversy with foreign powers, added an almost boundless tract of fertile country to our territory, and extended the duration of the union, by restoring to the western states the natural outlet of their productions. Were there nothing else in the political administration of this illustrious statesman, to endear it to his countrymen, the peaceful acquisition of Louisiana would give it a lasting claim to their gratitude. Early in the month of December, 1803, the commissioners of Spain delivered possession to France; and, on the 20th of the same month, the authorities of France duly transferred the country to the United States. Congress had provided for this event, and under their act, William C. C. Claiborne was appointed the first Governor and Intendant-general of Louisiana. By an act passed in March, 1804, that part of the ceded country which lay south of the parallel of 33°, was separated from the rest, and called the territory of Orleans. In 1811, this district having acquired a sufficient population, and complied with the terms imposed by Congress, became a state; and from this period its history as one of the United States begins. In the same year the country lying between the Ibberville and Perdido, which formed part of Louisiana when in the hands of France, was taken possession of by the American government, and annexed to this state. Louisiana has increased rapidly in wealth and population since its transfer to the United States. During the latter part of the last war with England, it became the theatre of hostilities, and the scene of great glory for the arms of the republic. An attempt, by a powerful enemy, to obtain possession of New Orleans, was signally defeated; and the strength of the general government, and the patriotism of the people so convincingly shown, as in all probability to prevent any future attempts of a similar nature.

GOVERNORS.

Under the Territorial Government, appointed by the President of the United States.

1804 William C. C. Claiborne to 1812.

Under the Constitution, elected for a term of four years by the People.

1812 William C. C. Claiborne.
1816 James Villere.
1820 Thomas Bolling Robertson.

Places remarkable for Battles and Sieges.

1814, New Orleans. Attack upon the British troops by General Jackson's army, December 23.

1814, New Orleans. The British defeated in an attack upon the American lines, December 28.

1815, New Orleans. The British bombard the American lines without success, January 1.

1815, New Orleans. The British defeated with great slaughter by General Jackson, January 8.

INDIANA.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

INDIANA is situated between 37° 47′ and 41° 43′ N. lat. and 7° 45′ and 11° W. long. It is bounded north by Michigan territory; east by Ohio; south by Kentucky; and west by Illinois. Its mean length from north to south is 240 miles, and its breadth 145, the area being 36,250 square miles.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

Along the Ohio the country is uneven, having the appearance of hills. To the north lie the Flat Woods, seventy miles wide, and extending far into the interior of the state. Bordering on all the principal streams, except the Ohio, there are strips of bottom and prairie land from three to six miles in width. The prairies on the Wabash are the finest land in the state. Remote from the rivers, the country is broken, and the soil light. Between the Wabash and Lake Michigan the land is mostly level, and interspersed with woodlands, prairies, lakes, and swamps.

There are two kinds of prairies, the river and upland prairies. The first are bottoms directly upon the margins of the streams, and are destitute of timber. The last are plains from 30 to 100 feet higher than the alluvial bottoms, and far more extensive. They are usually bounded by groves of lofty forest trees, and in spring and summer are covered with a luxuriant growth of grass and fragrant flowers, from six to eight feet high.

The principal agricultural productions of Indiana are wheat, Indian corn, oats, rye, flax, hemp, potatoes, and tobacco. In the vicinity of Vevay, near the south-east corner of the state, the vine is cultivated with success. On the banks of the Wabash, in the upper part of its course, the best kind of coal is found in inexhaustible quantities; and near the sources of several of the navigable rivers there are salt-springs, from which that mineral may be procured in abundance. Near Corydon, on the Ohio, there is a large cave abounding with Epsom salts and saltpetre.

Rivers.

The Ohio is the southern boundary of the state from the mouth of the great Miami to that of the Wabash. The northern part of the state is watered by the head branches of the Illinois, and the rivers which flow into Lake Michigan. The Wabash, the great river of Indiana, rises in the north-east part of the state, and flowing in a south-westerly direction, falls into the Ohio. For the last half of its course it is the boundary between Indiana and Illinois. It is more than 500 miles long, and is navigable for keel-boats 400 miles to Ouitanon, where there are rapids. Above the rapids small boats can ascend nearly to its source. The current is generally gentle above Vincennes; below that town there are several rapids, but not of sufficient magnitude to prevent boats from ascending. White River falls into the Wabash from the east, 16 miles below Vincennes. It is composed of two principal branches, which rise in the eastern part, and unite about 35 miles from its mouth, after watering a large body of the finest lands in the state. The Petoka falls into the Wabash, four miles below the mouth of White River. It is about 75 miles long, and meanders through extensive rich bottoms. The Tippecanoe rises in the north-east part of the state, about 30 miles west of Fort Wayne, and falls into the Wabash, 140 miles above Vincennes. White Water River is a beautiful stream in the south-east part of the state, which falls into the Miami, five miles from its mouth. It has a rapid current, not easily navigable, but is well adapted to mills. It waters nearly one million of acres of fine land, and owes its name to the unusual transparency of its water.

Climate.

Indiana has a favourable and agreeable climate. The winters are milder and shorter than in the northern states; and the summers are in general not warmer. The spring commences about the middle of February. The peach blossoms in March, and the woods are green by the 10th of April. The country in the upper part of the state is high and healthy, and the districts along the rivers are likewise so, except in the neighbourhood of swamps and marshes.

Civil Divisions and Population.

The northern part of the state is still occupied by Indians, and has been very imperfectly explored. The southern part is inhabited by whites, and in 1820 was divided into counties, as follows :

Counties.	*Inhabitants.*	*Counties.*	*Inhabitants.*
Clarke	8709	Owen	838
Crawford	2583	Orange	5368
Davies	3432	Perry	2330
Dearborn	11,468	Pike	1472
Delaware	1321	Posey	4061
	2356	Randolph	1806
Dubois	1168	Ripley	1822
Fayette	5950	Scott	2334
Floyd	2776	Spencer	1882
Franklin	10,763	Sullivan	3498
Gibson	3876	Switzerland	3934
Harrison	5936	Vanderburgh	1738
	1939	Vigo	3390
Jackson	4010	Wabash	147
Jefferson	8038	Warrick	1749
Jennings	2000	Washington	9039
Knox	5437	Wayne	12,119
Lawrence	4116		
Martin	1032	Total	147,178
Monroe	2679		

The population of Indiana has increased with wonderful rapidity. In 1800 it was only 5641; in 1810, 24,520; in 1815, 68,784; in 1820, 147,178, as in the foregoing table, exclusive of Indians. A majority of the people are from Kentucky, Tennessee, Virginia, and the Carolinas; the remainder are from every other state in the Union, and from almost every nation in Europe. The Indians occupy the northern half of the state, and their number is estimated at seven or eight thousand. Of the other population there are, white males, 76,649; white females, 69,109: coloured people, 1420, of whom 190 are slaves.

Chief Towns.

VINCENNES, the largest town in the state, is on the east bank of the Wabash, 100 miles from its junction with the Ohio, in a direct line, but nearly 100 by the course of the river. It was settled about a century ago by the French from Lower Canada, many of whom intermarried with the Indians, and gradually approximated to the savage state. Within a few years American emigrants have flocked thither, and the society is rapidly improving. Corydon, in Harrison county, on the road from Louisville to Vincennes, and about 25 miles west of the former, was, until lately, the seat of government. The settlement

commenced in 1809, and is rapidly increasing. Vevay, in Switzerland county, is pleasantly situated on the second bank of Ohio River, 25 feet above high-water mark. The inhabitants are emigrants from the Pays de Vaud, in Switzerland. In 1814 the site of the town was a forest, but it is now a flourishing settlement. The country in the rear is broken and fertile; and half a mile below the village are the Swiss vineyards, where the culture of the vine has been successfully introduced. Brookville, pleasantly situated in the forks of Whitewater River, is a flourishing town, and will probably be the centre of trade for an extensive and fertile portion of the state. Jeffersonville, on the Ohio, a little above the falls, and nearly opposite Louisville, promises to become a place of considerable business. Princeton, Harmony, Evansville, and Troy, are all thriving settlements. The seat of government has been lately fixed at Indianapolis. near the centre of the state.

Public Lands, Education, &c.

The Indian title to large portions of fine land, in the southern part of the state, has been recently extinguished by the United States. When Indiana was admitted into the union, in 1816, Congress granted one section, or one thirty-sixth part of each township, for the support of schools. One entire township, or 23,040 acres, said to be worth on an average 10 dollars an acre, was also given for the support of a college. The college is located at Vincennes, and a large brick building is already erected for the purpose.

Canal.

In the north-east corner of the state, one of the head streams of the Wabash approaches within a short distance of the St. Mary, a navigable branch of the Maumee, which falls into Lake Erie. When very high, these rivers overflow the intervening lands to such a depth, that loaded boats pass over with facility. Of the practicability, therefore, of connecting them by a canal, there can be no doubt; and in a law of Congress, appropriating a portion of the public lands to the improvement of inland navigation, 100,000 acres were assigned for defraying the expense of this project.

Government.

The constitution of Indiana was adopted by a convention held for the purpose at Corydon, on the 29th of June, 1816. It provides for the distribution of the powers of government into three distinct branches. The executive is vested in a governor, chosen by the people for three years, who may be re-elected once. A lieutenant-governor is also chosen in the same manner, and for the same term. The legislative body is divided

into two branches, a senate and house of representatives, the former chosen for three years, and the latter annually. The judiciary is composed of a supreme and circuit courts: the former consists of three judges, appointed by the governor and senate for seven years, and have appellate jurisdiction; the latter to be held in each county by one presiding judge, who is to be appointed by joint ballot of the legislature for seven years, and by two associate judges, elected by the people for seven years. The constitution is not subject to amendment, until after twelve years, in any of its provisions, and never in one article, which excludes involuntary slavery.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

Of the state of Indiana, although the growth has taken place almost entirely within the present century, and since its admission into the union only five years have passed, detached spots were settled by the French, upwards of a century ago. The exact period at which the first settlement was made, is uncertain. It appears, however, that about the year 1690, the French traders first visited the site of the present town of Vincennes, at that time a village of the Piankeshaw Indians, called Appecaughke. About the year 1702, a party of the same nation descended the Wabash, and established posts in several places on its banks, and, among others, at the site of Vincennes, which was for a long time called The Post; but has since received the name of the French commander. When the French first traversed this country, it was inhabited by different tribes of Indians; who, divided among themselves by petty animosities, were unable, if they were willing, to oppose the settlements of the new comers. The principal tribes were the Kickapoos, the Piankeshaws, the Musquitous, and the Ouitanons, whose warriors, with those of the other nations, amounted to upwards of twelve hundred. According to tradition, they were once far more numerous. It is said that the country lying between the Mississippi and the Wabash, being claimed by the Indians of both these rivers, it was mutually agreed that it should become the prize of the victors in a pitched battle. The ground on which Fort Harrison now stands, was chosen as the theatre of the combat. Upwards of one thousand warriors entered the lists on each side. They fought from the rising to the setting sun, when the Indians of the Wabash were declared conquerors, having seven men surviving, while the warriors of the Mississippi were reduced to the number of five. The bodies of the slain were collected, and interred in the neighbouring mound.

Such is the traditionary account, no doubt embellished in its progress downwards, of an engagement that appears from other proofs to have taken place in that vicinity, and to have resulted in the destruction of many human beings.

The French colonists at Vincennes, insulated as it were from the rest of civilized mankind, and buried in the centre of a vast wilderness, gradually approximated in manners and customs to the Indians among whom they settled. They lived on terms of amity with these savages, formed marriages with their women, joined in their hunting parties, and subsisted more by the produce of the chase and the garden, than by the returns of agriculture. Of their simple annals they have left no records behind them, for we hear no more of this country until the peace of 1763, when it was ceded, together with Canada, by France to England. The French settlers were confirmed in their possessions; but the tide of emigration did not reach this country till long afterwards. During the revolutionary war, the inhabitants of this settlement displayed their hereditary animosity to the English, and seized upon the first opportunity to join with the people of the United States. In 1778, a Spanish resident of Vincennes gave such information to the Americans, of the situation and strength of the British forces stationed there, that by his directions General George Clarke easily obtained possession, which, however, he did not long retain. In 1782, a detachment of militia from Kentucky penetrated to the French settlements, plundered the inhabitants, and killed or carried off their cattle, which formed their chief wealth. In the year following, peace ensued, and the territory now comprised within the limits of Indiana was ceded to the United States by Great Britain. The French were confirmed in their possessions, and a donation of a tract of country around Vincennes was subsequently made to the inhabitants. In 1788, an Indian war broke out, which caused severe distress to the inhabitants of Indiana. Their cattle were killed, their villages beset, and for several years they were unable to pursue their agricultural employments without danger. The French, however, suffered less than the American settlers, against whom the vengeance of the Indians was directed without mercy. In 1791, the Shawanese, the most ferocious of the Indian tribes, were attacked by a force under General Wilkinson, who destroyed their principal town, near the mouth of Tippecanoe, containing 120 houses; and, for the time, reduced them to submission. After the total defeat of the savages by General Wayne, and the consequent dismemberment of their confederacy, peace was restored, and this district began to enjoy a degree of repose of which it had been for many years deprived.

By the treaty of Greenville, concluded in 1795, the United States obtained six miles square of land at the mouth of the

Chicago River; the same quantity at the junction of the St. Mary's and St. Joseph's; one-half of this extent at the head of the Little River branch of the Wabash, eight miles south-west of Fort Wayne; and six miles square at the Ouitanon, on the river Wabash. Other cessions were, at the same time, made without the limits of this state. As a compensation for which grants, the United States agreed to pay to the Pottawatomies goods to the value of one thousand dollars, and to the Kickapoos, Piankashaws, Weaws, and Elk River tribes, goods to the value of five hundred dollars each. In 1804, the Delawares and Piankehaws, sold a large tract bordering on the Ohio; and, in 1805, another extensive tract was ceded by the Miami, Eel River, and Weaw Indians; which, including a former cession around Vincennes, in 1794, comprehended a tract of 130 miles in length, and 50 in breadth, extending from the Ohio River to the western limits. Another tract was ceded in 1809, by the Delawares, Pottowatamies, Miami, and Eel River tribes, including the south-western parts to above the fortieth degree of latitude. Notwithstanding these cessions, a part of the Indians still remained hostile. Excited by the eloquence and arts of Tecumseh, a leader of the Shawanese, and one of the most extraordinary men that has appeared among the Indians, several of the tribes united in an attempt to resist the increasing power of the whites, whose settlements were every day driving the original possessors of the country farther back. Depredations had been committed upon the white inhabitants of Indiana to such an extent in the autumn of 1811, that the government determined to exert its power. A force of regulars and militia was assembled at Vincennes, and placed under the command of William Henry Harrison, then governor of Indiana Territory. On the 6th of November, Governor Harrison arrived before the Prophet's Town, or Tippecanoe, on the Wabash, and demanded restitution of the property taken. After a conference between the messengers on each side, it was agreed that hostilities should not commence before the next morning, that an amicable arrangement might, if possible, take place. In violation of this armistice, the American troops were attacked before daybreak of the next morning, by a large body of savages. Governor Harrison, knowing the character of his enemy, had disposed of his army in such manner that they were able immediately to arrange themselves in order of battle; and therefore the Americans, though taken by surprise, received their insidious adversaries in a state of preparation. The combat, though short, was unusually severe. The Indians fought with desperate courage; but as soon as day broke, and the regular troops were able to act with sufficient precision, the fate of the battle was decided. The Indians were driven in all directions, leaving forty of their number dead on the field. Their whole

loss was estimated at one hundred and fifty. The Americans suffered in about the same proportion, but the loss of officers was very great. After the action, Governor Harrison, having burned the town, and laid waste the surrounding settlements, returned with his forces to Vincennes, and not long afterwards the tribes sued for peace.

The war with England, which broke out in 1812, gave a fresh impetus to Indian hostility. Seduced by the promises of the British agents into an alliance with the British government, the Indian tribes, after committing great cruelties and excesses, received a full measure of retribution from the American troops. Their villages were repeatedly destroyed by American expeditions, and their country laid waste. In September, 1813, the villages at the forks of the Wabash were burnt by a detachment sent out by General Harrison, and those of the Pottowatamies were destroyed by Colonel Wells; and, in November of the same, General Hopkins destroyed the Prophet's Town, and a Winebago village on the Wabash. During the latter part of the war with England, the inhabitants of Indiana enjoyed comparative repose, and since the conclusion of the peace of 1815, hostilities with the Indians have not been renewed.

Indiana formed a part of the great north-western territory, so called until the year 1801, when it was erected into a territorial government, with the usual powers and privileges. In December, 1815, the inhabitants amounting to sixty thousand, the legislature petitioned Congress for admission into the union, and the privilege of forming a state constitution. A bill for this purpose passed Congress in April, 1816, a convention of delegates met in conformity to it, by whom a state constitution was adopted, and Indiana became an independent state, and a member of the union in December following.

GOVERNORS.

1816 Jonathan Jennings to 1822.

Places remarkable for Battles and Sieges.

1791, Tippecanoe. The Shawanese defeated by General Wilkinson, who destroys their town.

1811, Tippecanoe. The Indians defeated by General Harrison, who lays waste the country, November 7.

1813, Fort Wayne. Besieged by the Indians, who are forced to raise the siege, September.

1813, Fort Harrison. Assaulted by the Indians, who are defeated, September 3.

1813, Prophet's Town. Destroyed by an expedition under General Hopkins, November 11.

ILLINOIS.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

ILLINOIS is situated between 36° 58′ and 42° 30′ N. lat., and 10° 20′ and 14° 21′ W. long. It is bounded north by the North West territory; east by Indiana; south by Kentucky; and west by Missouri. Its medium length is about 365 miles, and medium breadth 162, the area being about 59,000 square miles, or 37,760,000 acres.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

The greater part of the state is either flat or undulating. Extensive prairies constitute two-thirds of its surface. The soil may be divided into six classes: 1. Bottoms, bearing a heavy growth of timber. This land is of the first quality, and is found on all the principal rivers. It varies in width from 50 rods to two miles, and is of inexhaustible fertility. 2. Newly-formed land found at the mouths of rivers. There are many thousand acres of this land at the mouth of the Wabash, and at the confluence of the Ohio with the Mississippi. It is annually inundated, and is very unhealthy. 3. Dry prairies, approaching the rivers and bordering on the bottom land, but elevated from 30 to 100 feet. The prairies of the Illinois River are the most extensive of any east of the Mississippi, and have alone been estimated at 1,200,000 acres. The soil is not inferior to the first-rate river bottoms. 4. Wet prairies, found remote from rivers or at their sources. This soil is generally cold and barren, abounding with swamps and ponds, and covered with a tall coarse grass. 5. Timbered land, moderately hilly, well watered, and of a rich soil. 6. Hills, of a steril soil, and destitute of timber, or covered with stinted oaks and pines. Corn is at present the staple production of the state. Wheat does well, except on the bottoms, where the soil is too rich. Tobacco grows to great perfection. Flax, hemp, oats, Irish and sweet potatoes succeed as well as in Kentucky. Among the mineral productions are iron, coal, and copper. Salt springs are also numerous.

Rivers.

The state is bordered on three sides by the great rivers Wabash, Ohio, and Mississippi. The Illinois is formed by the

Kankakee and the Plaines, which unite near the N. E. corner of the state. It pursues a south-westerly course of nearly 400 miles, and joins the Mississippi 18 miles above the mouth of the Missouri. It has a gentle current, unbroken by rapids, and is navigable for boats throughout its whole course. The Kaskaskia rises in the N. E. part of the state, and running S. W. falls into the Mississippi, 84 miles below the mouth of the Illinois, and 100 above that of the Ohio. It is navigable for 150 miles. Saline Creek falls into the Ohio, 20 miles below the mouth of the Wabash. It is navigable 30 miles. There are salt-works belonging to the United States on this stream, 20 miles from its mouth. The Little Wabash falls into the Wabash, a few miles from its mouth.

Climate.

The climate is in general very favourable. In the south it is sufficiently mild to raise cotton; and peaches come to maturity in the northern parts. It is generally healthy and agreeable.

Civil Divisions and Population.

Counties.	*Inhabitants.*	*Counties.*	*Inhabitants.*
Gallatin	3155	Madison	13,550
White	4828	Union	2362
Edwards	3444	Wayne	1114
Franklin	1763	Jefferson	691
Washington	1517	Monroe	1537
Bond	2931	Crawford	3022
Alexander	626	Clark	931
Jackson	1542	Pope	2610
Randolph	3492	Johnson	843
St. Clair	5253		55,211

In 1810 the population was 12,282; in 1818, 35,220; in 1820, 55,211, and is very rapidly increasing. The settlements at present are confined to the southern portion of the state, and the neighbourhood of the great rivers. The number of slaves in 1810 was 168. The constitution provides that no more slaves shall be introduced into the state.

Chief Towns.

Kaskaskia, lately the seat of government, is on the right bank of Kaskaskia River, 11 miles from its mouth. It contains a bank, a land-office, a printing-office, and about 160 houses, scattered over an extensive plain. The town was settled upwards of a hundred years ago by emigrants from Lower Canada, and about one half of the inhabitants are French. The surrounding country is under good cultivation. Cahokia is a French settlement on the Mississippi, 52 miles N. W. of Kaskaskia, and 5 miles below St. Louis. Shawneetown is on the north bank of the Ohio, 12 miles below the mouth of the

Wabash, and 12 miles east of the salt-works belonging to the United States, on Saline Creek. The inhabitants are supported principally by the profits of the salt trade. Edwardsville is a flourishing town on Cahokia River, 22 miles N. E. of St. Louis. Vandalia, 50 miles N. E. of Edwardsville, is now the seat of government.

Canal.

A canal has long been in contemplation to unite the waters of Lake Michigan with those of Ilinois River. The Chicago, a river which falls into the south end of Lake Michigan, is so connected with the Plaines, one of the head waters of the Illinois, that in freshets boats pass readily from one to the other. The government of the United States has given permission to open a canal, with a grant of 100,000 acres of land, the land through which it will run, and 90 feet on each side of it. This canal can probably be made at less expense than any other water communication between the great lakes and the Mississippi.

Public Lands.

In 1817 there were in Illinois upwards of 16,000,000 acres of land belonging to the United States, obtained by purchase from the Indians. The portion of these lands lying between the Illinois and the Mississippi has been assigned by Congress as bounty lands to the soldiers who enlisted during the late war. The whole amount surveyed is about 5,530,000 acres, equal to 8,640 square miles, and is divided into 240 townships. This land is represented to be of an excellent quality.

Education.

When Illinois was admitted into the union in 1818, the government of the United States granted to the state, on certain conditions, one section or thirty-sixth part of every township, for the support of schools. Three per cent. of the net proceeds arising from the sale of the public lands lying within the state are to constitute a fund for the encouragement of learning, of which one-sixth part must be exclusively bestowed on a college or university. As a farther provision for the university, two entire townships have been given to the state. Two per cent. of the proceeds of the United States lands are also to be expended, under the direction of Congress, in making roads leading to the state.

As the condition of these grants, the convention which formed the constitution of the state provided by an ordinance which is irrevocable, without the consent of the United States, that all lands sold by the United States shall be exempted from taxation for five years from the day of sale; also, that the bounty lands granted for military services during the late war,

shall, if they continue to be held by the patentees or their heirs, remain exempt from taxes for three years from the date of the patents; and that the lands belonging to the citizens of the United States residing without the state, shall never be taxed higher than lands belonging to persons residing therein.

Government.

The constitution of Illinois was adopted by a convention held at Kaskaskia, on the 6th of August, 1818. It provides for the distribution of the powers of government into three departments. The legislative authority is vested in a general assembly, composed of a senate and house of representatives, the members of each of which bodies are elected every two years by the people. The senators vacate their seats in rotation. The governor is chosen every fourth year by the people, and, at the same period, a lieutenant-governor is chosen in the same manner. The governor and judges of the supreme court constitute a council of revision, to which all bills that have passed the assembly must be presented. Although the council of revision may return a bill, with their objections, a majority of the members of both houses may pass it into a law. The governor nominates, and, with the consent of the senate, appoints to all offices not otherwise provided for in the constitution. The right of suffrage is universal. All white male inhabitants who have resided in the state six months preceding elections, enjoy the rights of electors: and, it is provided that all votes shall be given *viva voce*, until altered by the general assembly. The judicial power is vested in one supreme court, and in such inferior courts as the general assembly may from time to time establish. The supreme court consists of a chief justice and three associates, who are appointed by joint ballot of both houses of the assembly, and hold their offices until 1824, at which time their commissions expire; but after that period the justices of the supreme court and of the inferior courts hold their offices during good behaviour.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

The name which now belongs exclusively to this state was, during a great part of the last century, bestowed upon all that vast tract of country which lies north and west of the Ohio, and was derived from the river Illinois, which, in the language of the Indians, by whom the banks were inhabited, signifies *the river of men.* The first settlements within the present limits of Illinois were, like those of Indiana, made by the French, and

were the consequence of the adventurous enterprise of M. de la Salle in search of the Mississippi. This famous traveller set off from Canada in the year 1670, in company with Father Hennepin, and three or four men; and, passing across the lakes to Michigan, descended the Illinois River, but was compelled to remain in this country during the winter, and did not reach the Mississippi until the spring following. After examining the country about the Illinois, with which he was greatly pleased, he returned to Canada, leaving the Chevalier de Tonte in command of a small fort which he had built, and named Crevecœur. While in Canada, M. de la Salle procured a number of volunteers to unite in the scheme of forming a settlement on the banks of the Mississippi, in the Illinois country. They reached their place of destination in 1673, and founded the villages of Kaskaskia, Cahokia, and several others of less note. Here La Salle left his colony, while he descended the Mississippi, to its mouth. Soon after this settlement, many enterprising persons explored the country in the vicinity of the Illinois, in search of mineral riches, which at that period it was supposed to possess; and after the establishment of a colony at the mouth of the Mississippi, Iberville, the French governor, in company with several others, undertook a similar expedition. At the beginning of the eighteenth century, the settlements in Illinois are represented to have been in a flourishing situation, having been formed by hardy Canadians, who were well acquainted with the precautions necessary in new colonies. Kaskaskia had become a considerable town, before any great progress was made in the settlements on the Lower Mississippi, and one who calculated the future by what was then exhibited would have seen little reason to foretel the rapid growth of Louisiana, and the decline of the civilized settlements in the Illinois which afterwards took place. The descriptions given by French writers of the Illinois country, (an appellation then bestowed on both banks of the Mississippi), were of the most captivating kind. Its beautiful scenery, its fertile prairies, its supposed mineral wealth, were painted in glowing colours, and a new paradise seemed to open for Frenchmen on the banks of the Illinois. To add to the attractions of the country, a monastery of Jesuits was established at Kaskaskia, which is said to have had at one time upwards of four hundred converts. The French of the settlements on the Illinois, like those of Indiana, soon degenerated, and by degrees assimilated their manners to those of the Indians, among whom they resided. Of these savages the number and varieties at the epoch of the first settlement, and since, are not well ascertained. In 1768, when Carver visited this country, he found the Winnebagoes, a warlike nation, settled on Fox River, where they still reside; the Saukies, on the upper part of the Ouiskonsin and near the Portage; and the Ottega-

mies, near its mouth and above it along the Mississippi. The Chippeways then possessed the country south of Lake Superior, that on the Chippeway River, and to a great extent westward. The Naudowessies then also occupied a large tract of country south-west of the Mississippi, in Upper Louisiana. In 1780 there were, according to Hutchins, twelve tribes inhabiting different parts of this state, *viz.*, the Kickapoos, Piankeshaws, Musquitores, Ouitanores, Kaskaskias, Piorias, Michigamas, Outtagomies, Musquatores, Miscotins, Outtamacs, and Musquakers, which tribes together, it was supposed, could send forth at that time 5300 fighting men.

From the beginning to the middle of the eighteenth century, we hear little of the French possessions on the banks of the Illinois. As the colonies of France and England extended themselves, disputes arose respecting the boundaries, which had never been sufficiently defined. The French, anticipating a struggle for the preservation of their American possessions, as early as the year 1749, strengthened themselves by fortifications, on the lakes, on the Ohio, the Wabash, the Illinois, and in other parts of the valley of the Mississippi to which they laid claim. The British, on the other hand, claimed the country on the Ohio and the neighbouring streams, by virtue of the charters they had granted. The Ohio Company, which was formed soon afterwards, produced hostilities between the two powers. By the treaty of 1762, France ceded to Great Britain all the country east of the Mississippi, and consequently the Illinois country passed under the dominion of the latter power. During its continuance as a British dependency, nothing of importance seems to have occurred. Few or no additions were made to the settlements at Kaskaskia, and the other French posts, the inhabitants of which were but little removed in civilization above the Indians.

At the peace of 1783, the British government renounced its claim of sovereignty over this country, as well as over the United States. The whole territory north and west of the Ohio was claimed by Virginia and some other states, as included in their charters, in consequence of their grants being described as extending to the South Sea. At the instance of Congress, a liberal cession of these claims was made to the general government. All the territory north-west of the Ohio became, in 1787, a dependency of the United States, and by an ordinance of Congress, a territorial government was established. The state of Ohio was the first of the state governments established in this region. In 1801, a territorial government was constituted, of the country between the line of Ohio and the Mississippi, under the name of Indiana, of which Illinois remained a part

until 1809, when a distinct territorial government was established for the district now forming the state of Illinois.

The Indian title to a considerable portion of the land in this state has been extinguished at different periods, and by fair purchase. In 1803, the Kaskaskias sold to the United States a tract of country of about 12,000 square miles, bordering on the Mississippi, from the mouth of the Ohio to the mouth of the Illinois, and extending back about eighty miles. The Sacs and Foxes, in the year following, conveyed to the United States a large tract in the form of a triangle, each side being about 240 miles in length, lying on the Mississippi, between the mouths of the Illinois and Ouisconsin, and extending eastward to a point at the mouth of Fox River, in the Illinois. In the year 1805, the Piankashaws sold to the United States a tract thirty by one hundred miles in extent, between the Great and Little Wabash. In December 1816, the Ottawas, Chippeways, and Pottowatamies, ceded to the United States certain lands lying within a line running from a point on the left bank of Fox River, ten miles above its confluence with the Illinois, through the space between Chicago Creek and the river Plein, to a point on Lake Michigan, ten miles north of the mouth of Chicago Creek; for which cession they were to receive from the United States a considerable quantity of goods, and an annual compensation for twelve years of the value of one thousand dollars. In 1818, and subsequently, other treaties have been made with the different tribes residing in Illinois, by which additional territory has been gained.

The evils of warfare were felt by the inhabitants of Illinois as well as by the other frontier districts, during the last war between the United States and Great Britain. One of the first acts of barbarity perpetrated by the allies of the latter power, was committed within this district. The garrison of Chicago, a fort situated at the south-west extremity of Lake Michigan, had received orders to evacuate that post, and proceed to Detroit. On the 15th of August, 1812, the troops, in number about 70 men, accompanied by some women and children, marched from the fort, and had proceeded but a short distance, when they were attacked by a host of savages: a determined resistance was made for some time, but the number of the Indians proving too great for any hope of success, Captain Heald, the commander, consented to surrender, on the promise of protection.. The survivors of this little band, however, had no sooner given up their arms than they were brutally massacred. Twenty-six of the regulars, and all the militia, were killed, with two women and twelve children. The outrages of these savages determined Governor Edwards to inflict chastisement upon

them. Accordingly, in September, 1813, Colonel Russel, with about 400 regulars and militia, penetrated into the Indian country, to the north-west, intending to co-operate with General Hopkins, on the Illinois. Hearing nothing of him, they proceeded against a considerable body of the enemy about twenty miles above Peoria, and immediately at the head of Peoria lake. The Indians, taken by surprise, fled into the swamp, pursued by the Americans with impetuosity, until they were driven across the Illinois. Upwards of twenty warriors were found dead, and many more must have been killed and drowned in the swamp. The American loss was only four wounded After the engagement, Colonel Russel destroyed their town, with the corn and plunder it contained, and returned to the settlements. During the remainder of the war, no event of importance appears to have occurred in this territory.

In April, 1818, Congress, on the petition of the legislature of Illinois, passed an act authorizing the people to form a state constitution, and declaring the terms upon which the territory might be admitted into the union. A convention accordingly met in September following, by which the terms proposed by the general government were acceded to, and a state constitution was adopted. In December, 1818, Illinois became a member of the union.

GOVERNORS.

1818 Shadrach Bond to 1822.

Places remarkable for Battles and Sieges.

1812, Chicago. The garrison attacked by the Indians, and, after their surrender, basely murdered, August 15.

1813, Peoria. The Indians attacked and defeated by a party under Colonel Russel, and their town destroyed, September.

MISSOURI.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

MISSOURI is situated between 36° and 40° 30′ N. lat. and 11° 47′ and 17° 30′ W. long. It is bounded east by Illinois, Kentucky, and Tennessee; south by Arkansaw territory; west and north by Missouri territory. Its mean length is about 272 miles, and mean breadth about 222; the area being 60,300 square miles, or 38,592,000 acres.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Climate.

A great proportion of the land in this state is of the richest kind, producing corn, wheat, rye, oats, flax, hemp, and tobacco in great abundance. The lands bordering on the Missouri are exceedingly rich. They consist of a stratum of black alluvial soil, of unknown depth. As you recede from the banks of the rivers, the land rises, passing sometimes gradually and sometimes abruptly into elevated barrens, flinty ridges, and rocky cliffs. A portion of the state is, therefore, unfit for cultivation, but this portion is rich in mineral treasures. The land is either very fertile or very poor; it is either bottom land or cliff, either prairie or barren; there is very little of an intermediate quality. The climate is remarkably serene and temperate, and very favourable to health.

Rivers.

The Mississippi is the eastern boundary. The Missouri comes from the west, and, passing through the middle of the state, falls into the Mississippi, 20 miles below the mouth of the Illinois. The principal branches of the Missouri which fall into it from the south are the Gasconade, which is navigable; the Great Osage and Mine River, which are navigable for boats.

Grand River, which falls into the Missouri on the north side, is said to be navigable for boats a great distance into the interior of the country.

The Maramec falls into the Mississippi, 18 miles below St. Louis; and is navigable 350 miles.

The St. Francis rises in this state, and runs south into Arkansas territory.

Lead Mines.

The most remarkable feature in Missouri is its lead mines, hich are the most extensive on the globe. They occupy a strict between 37° and 38o N. lat. and 13° and 15° W. long. tending from the head waters of St. Francis River in a north-est direction to the Maramec, a distance of 70 miles in length, id about 45 in breadth. They cover an area of more than 00 square miles. The ore is of the richest and purest kind, id exists in quantities sufficient to supply all the demands of e United States, and allow a large surplus for exportation. he processes of working the mines have hitherto been very perfect, and conducted without skill, system, or economy; yet r. Schoolcraft estimates the annual produce at more than 000,000 pounds, which, at 4 cents a-pound, is worth 120,000 llars. The number of mines now worked is 165, in which ere are more than 1100 men employed. The lead is trans-rted to St. Genevieve and Herculaneum, where it is shipped r New Orleans and the Atlantic ports.

Civil Divisions and Population.

Counties.	*Whites.*	*Free Blacks.*	*Slaves.*	*Total.*
St. Genevieve	3932	47	983	4962
Madison	1672	4	371	2047
Wayne	1239	0	204	1443
Jefferson	1620	3	212	1835
Pike	3071	0	676	3747
Howard	11,319	18	2089	13,426
Montgomery	2547	1	526	3074
Cape Girardeau	5058	45	865	5968
Washington	2344	0	425	2769
St. Louis	8014	225	1810	10,049
St. Charles	3275	13	682	3970
Lincoln	1419	1	242	1662
Franklin	2170	0	209	2379
New Madrid	2001	4	291	2296
Cooper	6307	15	637	6959
Total	55,988	376	10,222	66,586

The settlements at present are principally confined to the nks of the Mississippi and Missouri. A large proportion of e inhabitants are from Tennessee, Kentucky, New York, and ew England, and emigrated to this state within five or six ars. The original inhabitants were French and Spaniards. here are few of the latter remaining; but the former con-tute a respectable proportion of the population. The French nguage is spoken in many settlements almost exclusively.

Chief Towns.

St. Louis is on the Mississippi, 14 miles by land below the mouth of the Missouri. It is admirably situated for commerce, being near the junction of the three great rivers, Missouri, Mississippi, and Illinois.

Herculaneum is on the Mississippi, 30 miles below St. Louis.

St. Genevieve is on the same river, 64 miles below St. Louis.

St. Charles is on the Missouri, 18 miles north-west of St. Louis.

Cape Girardeau is on the Mississippi, 20 miles above the mouth of the Ohio.

New Madrid is on the Mississippi, 75 miles below the mouth of the Ohio.

Jefferson, on the north side of the Missouri, near the mouth of Osage River, has recently been laid out as the seat of government. Franklin, in the Boon's Lick settlement, about 50 miles above Jefferson, is a thriving town.

Religion.

The prevalent religion is methodism. The French are uniformly Roman Catholics. The baptists are numerous, and there is a considerable number of presbyterians and episcopalians.

Education, Roads, Canals, Public Lands, &c.

In the act of Congress admitting this state into the union, one section or thirty-sixth part of every township was granted to the state for the support of common schools; and one township for the support of a college. Five per cent. of the net proceeds of the sale of public lands was also appropriated to making roads and canals for the benefit of the state. As the condition of these grants, the state has provided that none of the public lands shall be taxed for any purpose, while belonging to the United States, nor for five years after the day of sale; that the military bounty lands shall not be taxed, if they continue to be held by the patentees or their heirs, for the term of three years from the date of their patents. It is also provided that the river Mississippi and all the navigable waters leading into the same shall be common highways, and for ever free of toll or duty to all the citizens of the United States, and that in no case shall non-resident proprietors be taxed higher than residents.

Commerce.

The principal exports are lead and furs. A large capital is employed in the fur trade with the Indians up the Missouri and Mississippi. St. Louis is the centre of this commerce.

Boats are continually passing between St. Louis and New Orleans.

Government.

The present constitution of Missouri was adopted by a convention at St. Louis, on the 12th of June, 1820. The departments of government are distinct. The legislative power is exercised by a general assembly, consisting of a senate and house of representatives. The representatives are elected by the several counties according to their population, and serve two years. Senators are elected by districts for four years, and vacate their seats in rotation. The executive power is vested in a governor, who is elected by the people for a term of four years. All bills passed by the assembly are presented to him for his signature: if he does not approve, he must return the bill to the house in which it originated, with his objections, after which a majority of all the members elected to the two houses may nevertheless pass it. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court, in a chancellor, in circuit courts, and in such inferior tribunals as the legislature may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges of the courts named in the constitution, are appointed by the governor and senate, hold their offices during good behaviour, and receive for their services a compensation which cannot be diminished during their continuance in office, and which must not be less than two thousand dollars annually.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

The French, to whom the discovery of the Mississippi is owing, were the first adventurers into the territory within the limits of the state of Missouri. Many years, however, elapsed after the discovery, and the colony near the mouth of the Mississippi had risen into considerable importance before any attempt was made to form a settlement so high up the river as its junction with the Arkansas. The first settlers from Canada generally planted themselves on the eastern side of the Mississippi. Previously to the treaty of peace of 1763, by which Canada was ceded to Great Britain, few grants of land had been made on the western bank, and these were mostly for the purpose of mining. The first permanent settlements in the state of Missouri appear to have been made at St. Genevieve and New Bourbon, which were founded soon after the peace of 1763. In the succeeding year, St. Louis, the capital of the state, was commenced. It was founded by a company of traders, who asso-

ciated under the name of "Pierre Laclade, Maxan, and Company." They rightly conceived it to be a spot where the trade of the Missouri, the Mississippi, and the other great rivers of that region was likely to centre. In 1766, the town received a large accession of inhabitants from the opposite side of the river, who preferred the government of Spain to that of England. By the treaty of 1762 Louisiana had been ceded by France to Spain: but the terms of the treaty were kept secret for some time. Four years elapsed before any attempt was made by the Spanish government to take possession of New Orleans. The Spanish governor, who was sent out with a body of troops for this purpose in 1766, was obliged by the opposition of the inhabitants, to measure back his steps to the Havanna, and the government continued to be administered in the name of the French monarch, until the month of August, 1769, when O'Reilly, the Spanish governor, arrived and took peaceable possession of the colony. He immediately selected twelve of the most distinguished leaders of the opposition as the victims of his resentment. Six of them were immediately executed, and the remainder condemned to the dungeons of Cuba. This scene of blood and cruelty did not tend to excite very favourable anticipations in respect to the Spanish government. It was not until May, 1770, that Upper Louisiana was taken possession of by the Spaniards. Until that period grants of land continued to be made by the French authorities. In all grants and cessions, the proprietor engaged to clear a certain portion and to build a house within a year and a day, otherwise his claim was forfeited; and the same consequence ensued, if he abandoned the country without having obtained special permission to dispose of his property.

Missouri, as well as the rest of Louisiana, remained in the possession of Spain during the war of the American revolution. In 1780, the British commandant of Michillimackinac assembled about fifteen hundred Indians, and with one hundred and forty English soldiers, attempted the reduction of St. Louis. During the short period in which the siege lasted, sixty of the inhabitants were killed, and thirty taken prisoners. Fortunately for them General Clarke was on the opposite side of the Mississippi with a considerable force. On his appearance at St. Louis with a strong detachment, the Indians were taken by surprise. They professed that they had no disposition to engage in hostilities with any others than the inhabitants of Louisiana, and charged the English with deception. In fine, as the suspicion and jealousy of the Indians were excited, the English trembled for their safety; and, therefore, secretly abandoned their allies, and made the best of their way into Canada. The Indians then returned to their homes in peace. This expedition, it appears, was not sanctioned by the British government,

probably because it was unfortunate; and it is even said that the private property of the commander was seized to pay the expenses of it. After this attack, the Spanish authorities began to fortify the town. It was immediately stockaded, and a stone bastion and demilune at the upper end were constructed. The peace, which took place two years afterwards, removed the immediate danger, and the works were suspended. In 1780, the first village on the Missouri above its mouth was founded, and named St. Charles. In 1787, New Madrid, on the Mississippi, which had previously been a settlement of hunters and traders, was laid out in the form of a regular built town, under the direction of General Morgan of New Jersey. In consequence of some obstacles which the Spanish government opposed to the design, the settlement languished for a considerable period. In 1794, the first house in the district of Cape Girardeau, was erected at the Cape by a French settler. In the same year three villages of Indians, two of which were of Shawanees and one of Delawares, were commenced on Apple Creek, about eighteen miles above Cape Girardeau. This settlement was made under the patronage of the Spanish government, by which a considerable tract of land was promised to the Indians.

About this time the settlements in Missouri began to assume a character more favourable to the prosperity of the province. It had been the misfortune of most of the first settlers in Louisiana, particularly of the French, to neglect agriculture, and turn their attention almost wholly to hunting and the Indian trade. From these occupations they derived only a precarious subsistence, few of the principal traders having been known to obtain any considerable profit. The French settlers generally cultivated gardens; but of grain very scanty supplies were raised. About the year 1794, when a scarcity of game began to be experienced, necessity drove them to extend the cultivation of their land. Soon after this period the tide of emigration from the United States began to flow into the province, and an enterprising and agricultural people occupied the place of the hunters and traders. The peopling of this country from the United States was accelerated by two causes. The ordinance of 1787, which prohibited slavery and involuntary servitude, in what was then denominated the North Western territory, prevented the settlement in that territory of persons who held slaves, and induced many to choose a fertile soil where this species of property might be preserved, although under a foreign dominion. The second cause arose from the attack which was projected by the Canadian government on the Spanish possessions along the Mississippi. By the treaty of 1783, Spain was bound to evacuate all her military posts on the east side of that river to the north of the thirty-first degree; and Upper Loui-

siana being the only barrier she had to oppose to the descent of the English, she conceived it good policy to people it with citizens of the United States. Liberal inducements were, in consequence, held out to emigrants. Large quantities of land were granted to such as should make actual settlements, and no other expenses were required to be paid than those of office fees and surveys, which were not great, while the lands granted were entirely exempted from taxation. After this, the population of Upper Louisiana rapidly increased; and, at the cession to the United States, it was computed that more than three-fourths of the people consisted of emigrants from the republic.

After possession was taken of Louisiana by the government of the United States, the district which now forms the state of Louisiana, was separated from the rest of the territory, and made a distinct government, under the name of the territory of Orleans. In 1811, the territory of Orleans became a state, and in the succeeding year was admitted into the union. The remaining part of the original province of Louisiana, extending to the Pacific Ocean, received, at the same time, a territorial government, under the name of Missouri. In the session of Congress of 1818-19, application was made by the people of this territory for authority to form a state constitution. A bill was accordingly brought in which provided for the division of the territory, and authorized the inhabitants of that part which constitutes the present state, to form a state government. A provision introduced into the bill, forbidding slavery or involuntary servitude, passed the House of Representatives, but was rejected in the senate; and, in consequence of the disagreement between the two houses, the measure failed of success. The bill was revived in the session of 1819-20; and, after long and animated debates, a compromise was effected, by which slavery was tolerated in Missouri, and forbidden in all that part of Louisiana as ceded by France, lying north of 36° 30′ north latitude, except so much as was included within the limits of the state. In the mean time the people of Missouri had elected delegates to a convention, and a state constitution had been formed. When this constitution was laid before Congress in the session of 1820-21, a provision in it which required the legislature to pass laws "to prevent free negroes and mulattoes from coming to and settling in the state," was strenuously opposed on the ground that it violated the rights of such persons of that description as were citizens of any of the states. The contest was warmly maintained during a great part of the session, and it was finally determined by a small majority, that Missouri should be admitted on the fundamental condition that the contested clause should not be construed to authorize the passage of any law excluding citizens of other states from enjoying the privi-

leges to which they were entitled by the constitution of the United States. It was also provided, that if the legislature of Missouri should by a solemn public act previous to the 4th Monday of November, 1821, declare the assent of the state to this fundamental condition, the President should issue his proclamation, declaring the admission of Missouri complete. These measures accordingly took place. On the 24th of June, 1821, the legislature of Missouri assented to the fundamental condition; and on the 10th of August following, the President's proclamation was issued, declaring the admission complete.

GOVERNOR.

1820 Alexander M'Nair.

ARKANSAS TERRITORY.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

ARKANSAS TERRITORY is situated between 33° and 36° 30′ N. lat. and 12° 25′, and 23° west long. It is bounded N. by Missouri territory and state; E. by the Mississippi; S. by Louisiana and the Spanish Internal Provinces; W. by the Spanish Internal Provinces. It is about 500 miles long by 242 broad, and contains 121,000 square miles.

Face of the Country, Rivers, Soil, &c.

The Mississippi is the eastern boundary, and Red River the south-western. Arkansas River rises in the Rocky Mountains. Its general course is S. E., and it falls into the Mississippi in lat. 34° N., and long. 14°. W., after having traversed upwards of 1100 miles in a direct course, or nearly 2000 following the windings of the stream. It greatly exceeds in length either the Ohio or the Mississippi proper. That part of the river which runs within the Arkansas territory is skirted in great part by extensive prairies, and has much alluvial land. The navigation of the river is impeded by a considerable number of rapids.

White River rises in the western part of the territory, and, after a circuitous course of more than 1200 miles, falls into the Mississippi, 20 miles above the mouth of Arkansas River. There are no obstructions to the navigation for many hundred miles,

and the water is sufficiently deep even in the dryest seasons. The lands on White River has never been explored till recently. They are now universally represented by those who have traversed the country as extremely fertile, and among the finest in America for settlement. A tract of at least 100 miles square may be chosen, which is not surpassed by the best lands in Kentucky.

St. Francis River rises in the state of Missouri, and for a short distance forms a part of the eastern boundary. Its general course is southerly, and it falls into the Mississippi 72 miles above the mouth of the Arkansas. The country on the St. Francis is not so fertile as that on White River. The banks of both streams are annually overflowed for a distance of 100 miles above their mouths.

The Washita rises in this territory, in long. 18° 30′ W., and lat. 34° N., and pursuing an easterly course of about 200 miles receives Hot Spring Creek from the N. E. It then turns to the south, and passing into Louisiana, falls into Red River, 23 miles from its mouth. The lands on the Washita, especially in the neighbourhood of Hot Spring Creek, are high, poor, broken, and stony.

Springs.

The Hot Springs, a few miles from the banks of Washita River, in 34° 16′ N. lat., are very celebrated for their efficacy in curing or relieving chronic pains, and paralytic affections. The Indians have, time immemorial, resorted to them, on account of their medicinal virtues. The ground around them is called by the aborigines, the *land of peace*. Hostile tribes while here, remain in harmony with each other. The water is soft and limpid, without smell, and is used for culinary and other purposes in preference to that of the cold springs in the vicinity. It has been analyzed, and found to be less impregnated with mineral substances than common spring water. The accommodations are miserable, the country being almost a wilderness; yet there are frequently 2 or 300 persons collected here, some from a distance of 1000 miles.

Animals.

The country on Arkansas River furnishes fine hunting grounds. It abounds with buffaloes, deer, elk, bears, wolves, panthers, &c. Wild horses are found in droves on the prairies, between the Arkansas and Red River; they are very fleet and are taken with difficulty. They are hunted by expert riders on swift domesticated horses; the usual method is to throw a noose over their necks, which is done with great dexterity by those who are accustomed to the business.

Indians.

The number of Indians within the boundaries of this territory is not known. Parts of the Osage and Pawnee tribes of Indians reside on the Arkansas River. The Osages of the Arkansas are 2000 in number, and inhabit several villages on branches of Arkansas River. Their principal village is on Verdigris River, but they have another on Grand River, 25 miles from its junction with the Arkansas. This last was selected by the United Foreign Missionary Society, as one of their stations among the Osages, and in the summer of 1820 a mission family, consisting of more than 20 persons, was sent to occupy it. The station has been named *Union*. In the years 1818 and 1819, about 5000 of the Cherokee Indians removed from their residence east of the Mississippi to a fine tract of country on the north bank of Arkansas River, between long. 16° and 17° west. At their desire the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions, have lately sent a mission family to teach them the arts of civilized life, and to instruct them in Christianity.

Climate.

The climate of Arkansas is very much diversified. The part bordering upon the Mississippi is humid and warm. To the westward the land rises to a great elevation; the climate becomes much colder; and great extremes of heat and cold are experienced.

Civil Divisions and Population, 1820.

Counties.	*Whites.*	*Free Blacks.*	*Slaves.*	*All others.*	*Total.*
Arkansas	1076	6	178		1260
Clark	970		70		1040
Hempstead	1753	12	481	2	2248
Lawrence	5073	29	490	10	5602
Miller	917		82		999
Phillips	1052		145	4	1201
Pulaski	1738	12	171	2	1923
Total	12,579	59	1617	18	14,273

Towns and Settlements.

Little Rock, or Arkopolis, the seat of government of the territory, is situated about 34° 40′ N., and 15° 15″ W. long. on the south bank of Arkansas River.

Cadron is situated on the north bank of the Arkansas, 35 miles above Arkopolis.

The post or town of Arkansas is on Arkansas River, about 65 miles from its mouth. It is one of the most ancient settlements west of the Mississippi, having been established by the French before the beginning of the last century. Its advance has been

slow, like all other places where the inhabitants depend u hunting, and trade with savages for their subsistence. The habitants are mostly French, many of them of mixed blo The population in 1810, was 874.

Hopefield is a settlement on the Mississippi, opposite Chic saw bluff, in lat. 35° N. The town of Little Prairie is on Mississippi, in about lat. 36° 30′ N. The settlements on Francis River are as yet very inconsiderable.

Government.

The executive power is vested in a governor, who holds office for three years, unless sooner removed by the presiden the United States. He is ex-officio superintendent of Ind affairs. The secretary holds his office for four years. The gislative power, until the organization of the general assem is vested in the governor and the judges of the superior co The judicial power is vested in a superior court, and in s inferior courts as the legislature shall from time to time estab The governor, secretary, and judges of the superior court appointed by the president of the United States.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

Of a district, the separation of which from another territ took place only two years since, the history must necessarily brief. Much that concerns the settlement of Arkansas, toget with that of the remaining portions of Louisiana, as it was o ginally conveyed to the United States, has been related in t historical sketches of the states of Louisiana and Missouri.

The earliest settlement within the limits of the territory Arkansas was made by the chevalier de Tonte, in 1685. P ceeding from a fort then recently established at the Illino to assist the enterprising but unfortutate La Salle, he penetrat to the mouth of the Mississippi. His search having be fruitless, he ascended the river, in order to return to his po On his way he entered the Arkansas River, and sailed up to t village of the Indians of that name, with whom he formed alliance. Here he built a fort, and, at the desire of the nativ left two of his men to settle among them. At that period t Arkansas Indians were deemed one of the most power tribes in the country; and the French, to preserve peace wi them, and to secure their trade, intermarried among them, a adopted most of their habits and manners. The new settl found their numbers gradually augmented by the arrival emigrants from Canada, who descended the Mississippi. T progress of settlement was, however, extremely slow, and wh

ever events may have happened in this territory between the commencement of the eighteenth century and the period of its transfer to the United States, history has not recorded them.

When the cession of Louisiana to the United States took place, the ceded territory was at first divided into two parts. The district on the west bank of the Mississippi, lying south of latitude 33°, was called the territory of Orleans; and the remaining portion, comprising the vast extent of country between the Mississippi and the Pacific Ocean, was, at the same time, constituted the district of Louisiana, and placed under the superintendence of the governor and judges of the Indiana territory. In March, 1805, it was denominated the territory of Louisiana. The executive power was vested in a governor, appointed by the president of the United States for three years, and in a secretary, appointed in the same manner, for four years, who, in case of a vacancy in the office of governor, was to discharge his duties. The legislative power was vested in the governor and three judges, and the judicial in the three judges, who retained their offices for four years, and held two courts annually in the district. In 1805, a settlement was commenced near the Hot Springs, on the head waters of the Ouachita, or Washita River. Emigration to this distant spot has been attracted by the salubrious qualities of the springs, and continues to this period. In 1808, a treaty was concluded at Fort Clark, with the Great and Little Osage Indians, by which these tribes agreed for certain stipulated advantages, that the boundary line between them and the United States should be as follows, *viz.*, "beginning at Fort Clark on the Missouri, five miles above Fire Prairie, and running thence a due southerly course to the river Arkansas, and down the same to the Mississippi, ceding and relinquishing for ever to the United States all the lands which lie east of the said line, and north of the southern bank of the said river Arkansas, and all lands situated to the northward of the river Missouri." They further ceded at the same time, a tract of two leagues square, to embrace Fort Clark.

In 1812, the district of Louisiana, under the same boundaries, was constituted a territorial government, under the name of the territory of Missouri. The form of government was nearly similar to that of other territories. The executive power was exercised by a governor, who was appointed by the president and senate for a term of three years. The legislative power was vested in a general assembly, consisting of the governor, a legislative council, and house of representatives. The legislative council was composed of persons chosen one for each county, to serve two years. The representatives were also elected every two years. The assembly met only once in two years. The territory of Missouri remained in these boundaries, and

under this government, until the year 1819, when the i
tants of the northern part were formed into a distinct d
The southern boundary of this territory was fixed by an
Congress, passed in March, 1819, as follows, *viz.*, a line
ning on the Mississippi River at lat. 36° N., running
west to the river St. Francis; thence up the same, no
lat. 36° 30′, thence west to the western territorial line
February, 1819, a bill having been brought into Cong
establish a separate territory in the southern part of th
Missouri territory, a motion to amend the bill, by pr
that the further introduction of slavery, except for the
ment of crimes, should be prohibited, was lost by a clos
the numbers in the affirmative being 70, and in the negat
A subsequent part of the same resolution, providing t
children born of slaves should thereafter be free, was
by a majority of two votes, the number in the affirmativ
75, and those in the negative being 73. On the succ
day, however, a motion to recommit the bill prevailed; a
committee having struck out the amendment, their rep
concurred in, the ayes being 89, and the noes 87. T
then passed without restriction as to slavery.

Soon after the act establishing the territory was
Colonel James Miller, a brigadier-general by brevet, w
distinguished himself in the last war with England, v
pointed governor. An election for a delegate to Congr
the first time was held in December, 1819. The terri
rapidly increasing in population, and will probably in
period take a station among the members of the union.

GOVERNOR.

1819 James Miller to 1822.

MICHIGAN TERRITORY

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

MICHIGAN TERRITORY is situated between 41° 31′ and
N. lat. and 5° 23′ and 10° 30′ W. long. It is bounded n
Lake Superior; east by Lakes Huron, St. Clair, and Er
their connecting streams; south by Ohio and Indian
west by the North-west territory. On the north and

boundary is the same with that of the United States. It is 350 miles long from north to south, and about 200 broad, containing about 54,000 square miles.

Face of the Country, Soil, &c.

The country along the eastern shore of Lake Michigan, and extending into the interior as far as the dividing ridge, consists of sand hills, sometimes crowned with a few stinted trees, and a scanty vegetation, but generally bare, and thrown by the wind into a thousand fantastic shapes. The whole of this tract originally formed part of the lake, and the land is still increasing, as every storm throws up new quantities of alluvion. The eastern part of the territory, consisting of lands ceded by the Indians, has never till recently been brought into notice. It is now ascertained to be a fertile region, well fitted for wheat and fruit of all kinds. It is generally level, and watered by fine rivers, most of which present facilities for the transportation of produce from the interior. The lands on Saganaw river and bay, which were ceded by the Indians in 1819, are represented to be of an excellent quality, and beautifully situated. The lands on the bank of the river St. Mary are also very fertile.

Lakes, Bays, and Rivers.

Michigan Lake is 160 miles long, 55 broad, and 800 in circumference, containing, according to Hutchins, 10,368,000 acres, or 16,200 square miles. On the north-east it communicates with Lake Huron, through the Straits of Michillimackinac, and on the north-west it branches out into two bays, one called Noquet's, and the other Green Bay. The lake is navigable for ships of any burden. It has fish of various kinds, particularly trout, of a large size and excellent quality; and sturgeons are found in its bays and rivers.

Green Bay extends from the north end of the lake 90 miles in a south-west direction, and is 15 or 20 miles wide. Across its entrance is a chain of islands called the Grand Traverse: the channels between them are of sufficient depth to admit vessels of 200 tons burden, and sloops of this size can ascend to the head of the bay.

Lake Huron is partly in this territory and partly in Canada. Its greatest length from east to west is 218 miles, and from north to south 180. On the north-west side it receives the waters of Lake Superior through the river St. Mary's. It discharges itself at its southern extremity through St. Clair River into Lake St. Clair. The Manatoulin Islands stretch from east to west along the northern side of the lake for 160 miles. Many of them are from 20 to 30 miles long, by 10, 12, and 55 broad; besides this great chain, there are many others of inferior di-

mensions, which render the navigation intricate, and in some places, particularly towards the west end, dangerous.

Saganaw Bay sets up from Lake Huron between Point aux Barques on the south, in N. lat. 44° 42′, and Point au Sable on the north. The course of the bay is nearly south-west. It is 60 miles long, and 30 wide at its mouth, and is navigable for vessels of any burden.

St. Clair Lake is about 90 miles in circumference. It receives the waters of Lake Huron through St. Clair River, and discharges itself into Lake Erie through Detroit River. The bottom of the lake is said to be a perfect plain, the depth being invariably 21 feet, except near the shore.

St. Mary's River, or strait, about 60 miles long, connects Lake Superior with Lake Huron. The fall or Sault de St. Marie is near the head of the strait in 46° 31′ N. lat. 15 miles from Lake Superior. The river here descends 22 feet 10 inches in 900 yards, and cannot be ascended at any season with large vessels; but canoes and barges are towed up along the bank without much difficulty or danger. The Indians are drawn hither in great numbers by the advantages for taking the white-fish, which are so abundant at the foot of the rapids, that skilful fishermen often take 500 in two hours.

Fox River is a large stream which discharges itself into the southern extremity of Green Bay. There are many small streams which fall into Lake Michigan from the eastern shore.

Saganaw River, a large and deep stream, with bold shores, falls into the southern extremity of Saganaw Bay.

The river Huron of St. Clair flows into Lake St. Clair, about 20 miles above Detroit.

Huron of Erie falls into Lake Erie, near the mouth of Detroit River.

The river Raisin flows into Lake Erie, and is navigable for small craft seven miles.

Animals, &c.

No state in the union is so bountifully supplied with wild game, fish, and aquatic fowls. The beaver frequents the rivers running into Lake Michigan; bears, wolves, elk, deer, and foxes are also found in the forests. The trout of Michillimackinac have a superior relish; they weigh from ten to seventy pounds, and are taken at all seasons. White fish are caught in prodigious numbers in the river Detroit, and Lake St. Clair, as well as at the falls of St. Mary. Sturgeon are common to Lakes Erie, St. Clair, Huron, and Michigan.

Climate.

The climate is healthy, and much milder than that of the At-

lantic states in the same latitude. In the eastern part it resembles that of the western counties of New York and Pensylvania; towards the southern boundary it is much milder; but, upon the coast of Lake Huron and even that of St. Clair, it is more severe.

Civil Divisions and Population.

The territory is divided by Lake Michigan into two parts. The eastern and much the largest division is a peninsula, bounded on three sides by Lakes Michigan, Huron, St. Clair, and Erie, and on the south side by the states of Ohio and Indiana. The western division is also a peninsula, enclosed between Lake Superior, Lake Michigan, and the western boundary of the territory. The part of Michigan to which the Indian title has been extinguished, is a tract in the south-east along the banks of Lake Erie, Lake St. Clair, and Lake Huron, extending as far north as Thunder Bay River, and back to the westward about 80 miles; besides some small tracts at the head of Green Bay, at the straits of St. Mary and around Michillimackinac. The territory is divided into seven counties, as follows:

Counties.	*Population.*	*Counties.*	*Population.*
Wayne	3574	Crawford	492
Macomb	898	Monroe	1831
Oakland	330		
Michillimackinac	819	Total	8896
Brown	952		

Towns and Forts.

Detroit, the capital of the territory, is on Detroit River, nine miles from Lake St. Clair. It was settled as early as 1683, by the French from Canada, for the purposes of the fur trade. At present its trade is chiefly with Ohio and New York, and with the military posts on the upper lakes. In 1818 the amount of shipping was 849 tons. The fort is a regular work, with parapets and bastions, and surrounded by palisadoes, a deep ditch and glacis. Population in 1820, 1422.

Michillimackinac, commonly called Mackinaw, is on an island of the same name, in the straits of Michillimackinac. The island is about nine miles in circumference, and the village is on the south-east side of it, on a small cove, which is surrounded with a steep cliff, 150 feet high: on the top of the cliff stands the fort. Behind the fort, at the distance of half a mile, is another summit, 150 feet higher, and 300 feet above the level of the lake, on which Fort Holmes is erected; from this spot there is an extensive prospect into Lake Huron and Lake Michigan. During the summer, Mackinaw is the resort of many Indians and fur traders.

The present fort is on a low sandy spot, half a mile from the mouth of the river; but a new stone fort is now constructing on a beautiful rising ground on the south side of the river, three miles above the old fort.

Fort Gratiot is a military post on St. Clair River, and defends the entrance into Lake Huron. The position of the Sault de St. Marie is of the first importance as a military and trading post, being at the head of ship navigation on the great lakes, and the grand thoroughfare of Indian communication for the upper countries, as far as the Arctic circle, all the fur trade of the north-west being compelled to pass through it. The government of the United States has resolved to occupy this post, and in June 1820, obtained from the Chippeway Indians, the cession of a tract of land four miles square, commencing at the Sault, and extending two miles up, and the same distance down, with a depth of four miles.

Commerce.

The territory is finely situated for commerce, being almost surrounded by navigable waters, which will soon be connected by canals with the Hudson on one hand, and the Mississippi on the other. The vessels which navigate the lakes are generally from ten to sixty tons burden. The merchants supply themselves with foreign goods mostly from the city of New York. The goods are transported by land to Buffalo, and thence by water to Detroit; but the revenue is defrauded to a considerable amount by smuggling carried on from the neighbouring province of Upper Canada.

Government.

The legislative power is vested in a governor and a supreme court, composed of three judges, all appointed by the president and senate of the United States. The executive power is vested in a governor; and the judicial in the three judges, and in such civil magistrates in the different districts as the governor may appoint. There is at present a judge of probate in each district; and justices of the peace, who hold jurisdiction of personal actions, in cases where the damages do not exceed one hundred dollars. The supreme court has original jurisdiction in all other cases. The ministerial officers are a marshal for the territory, and a deputy-marshal for each district.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

When the country within the limits of the territory of Michigan was first discovered by the whites, it was occupied prin-

pally by the tribe of Hurons, many of whom, about the year 1648, were converted to Christianity by the Jesuit missionaries, who erected a chapel at the Falls of St. Mary, and another on the island of St. Joseph. About the year 1670, the Hurons were defeated and dispersed by their implacable enemies the Six Nations. In 1667, Louis XIV. sent a small body of soldiers to this territory, to protect the French traders in furs, whose traffic with the Indians was then beginning to appear of sufficient importance to attract attention. A few years afterwards, the foundation of Detroit was laid by the building of a fort. Another fort was erected at Michillimackinac, by which means the French traders were enabled, notwithstanding the strenuous and persevering opposition of the Iroquois, to extend their commerce to the borders of the Mississippi Little, however, was done by the French to establish a permanent settlement in this territory. The superior degree of independence enjoyed by hunters, and the more immediate profits of the fur trade, seem to have drawn off into those channels most of those who might otherwise have cultivated agriculture and husbandry. In all countries French emigrants appear to have assimilated themselves more to the natives, to have acquired their manners, and obtained their affections more readily than the English. The settlements in Michigan were neglected by the French government, until it was too late to effect any thing for their relief.

The war which began in 1756 and ended in 1763, deprived the French of all their North American possessions, and, among the rest, of this territory, which was ceded to Great Britain. In the hands of this power it remained, without any attempt to forward its settlement, during the whole of the American revolution, until the peace of 1783. During this period we find nothing worthy of record in the annals of Michigan. By the treaty which acknowledged the independence of the United States, the territory between the lakes and the Mississippi was ceded to them. It remained in the same state of nature, without government or any considerable settlements, until the year 1787, when several of the states whose claims by their charters extended over this region, having liberally ceded them to the United States, a general government was instituted over all the territory north-west of the Ohio.

Notwithstanding that the terms of the treaty of 1783 provided for the cession, within a limited period, of all the posts held by the British within the territory of the United States, a compliance with this engagement was in several instances unwarrantably delayed. The posts on the south side of the lakes were retained for several years, on the pretext that the American government had not complied with the provision of the treaty which stipulated for the payment of the debts of British credi-

tors. The possession of these posts gave the Canadian government the means of influencing and overawing the savages in the neighbourhood; and the opportunity of exciting them to hostilities against the American frontiers was not neglected. During twelve years after the peace, Indian incursions, proceeding from the vicinity of the British posts, if not encouraged and sent forth from them, harassed the settlers on the borders. Two successive armies, sent out by the United States against the Indians, were defeated and dispersed. The prudence and skill of General Wayne, however, obtained a decisive victory on the Miami, in 1794, and, in the succeeding year, the treaty of Greenville broke up the Indian confederacy. In 1796 a treaty was concluded with Great Britain, which provided, among other things, for the delivery of the posts. Accordingly, in the same year, the fort of Detroit, together with other American stations held by the British, was given up to the United States; and soon afterwards the peninsula was formed into a county, which received the name of Wayne.

The entire territory north-west of the Ohio remained under one territorial government until 1800. In that year the first division of it was made by the separation of the present state of Ohio, which was then erected into a distinct government. In 1801 the district within the present states of Indiana and Illinois was taken off and formed into a separate government; and in 1805 Michigan was detached, and became a distinct territorial government. After this event population began to flow into the peninsula. In 1805, the principal part of the old French town of Detroit was destroyed by fire. New buildings were soon afterwards erected with more durable materials, and the streets were laid out at right angles. In 1807 a treaty was held at Detroit, between General Hull, then governor of Michigan, and the chiefs of the Pottewatamie, Ottawa, Wyandot and Chippewa tribes, by whom all the lands within the following limits, with certain reservations, were ceded to the United States: viz., "Beginning at the mouth of the Miami River of the lakes, and running thence up the middle thereof to the mouth of the Great Auglaise River; thence running due north until it intersects a parallel of latitude to be drawn from the outlet of Lake Huron, which forms the river St. Clair; thence running north-east, the course that may be found leading in a direct line to White Rock, in Lake Huron; thence due east, until it intersects the boundary line between the United States and Upper Canada, in the said lake; thence southwardly, following the said boundary line down the said lake through the river St. Clair, Lake St. Clair, and the river Detroit, into lake Erie, to a point due east of the aforesaid Miami River; thence west to the place of beginning. The number of acres gained by

the United States in consequence of this treaty, is computed at four millions. The Indians, however, made some important reservations, viz., one tract of six miles square on the Miami above Roche de Bœuf, including the village of Tendaganee; three miles square immediately above the United States' tract of twelve miles square, ceded by the treaty of Greenville; four miles square at the mouth of the Miami, including Wangau's and Mishkemau's villages; three miles square near the junction of the rivers Raisin and Macon; four sections of one mile square each on the river Rouge, including Seginsavin's and Tonquish's villages; three miles square on Lake St. Clair above the river Huron, including Machonees village; considerable reservations at Maguaga and Brownstown; besides six other sections, of one mile square each, which were to be located by the Indians, so as not to interfere with the claims of white settlers. About this period, the number of Indians residing within the limits of this district was estimated to exceed five thousand.

The settlements within the Michigan territory were rising into a respectable and flourishing condition, when the war with England broke out in 1812. The consequences of this event were highly disastrous. The Indians of the north-west, who had for a long time entertained hostile feelings towards the United States, were encouraged, by the expectation and promise of British protection, to let loose their horrible vengeance upon the exposed frontier. The events of the war in this quarter were for a considerable period signally unfortunate for the Americans. The command of the first army by which the invasion of Canada was attempted, was given to General Hull, then Governor of Michigan, who, after an ill-advised and ill-managed incursion into the enemy's country, was compelled to recross the river and return to Detroit. Here he was soon straitened for provisions, while the surrender of fort Michillimackinac, which took place in July, 1812, let loose upon him a horde of savages, whom the garrison of that fort had previously restrained. Two engagements were fought within this territory, without obtaining any relief for the army at Detroit. In the first, Major Vanhorne was defeated near Brownstown, by the Indians, with considerable loss, especially of officers. At Maguaga, the American troops under Colonel Miller displayed great bravery, and succeeded in defeating a large body of the allied forces. On the 16th of August, General Hull surrendered his whole army, together with the town of Detroit, to the British, and the whole territory of Michigan passed soon afterwards into the hands of the enemy.

In the succeeding year, the territory of Michigan was the scene of one of the most perfidious and brutal massacres recorded in history. The murder, in cold blood, of the wounded

prisoners at Frenchtown, will long be remembered in its annals, and it will not be forgotten that the outrage was perpetrated by the allies of the British government, and almost under the eye of the British officers. After the surrender of the British fleet on Lake Erie, the territory of Michigan again passed into the hands of the United States, and no further attempt was made by the British to repossess it.

Places remarkable for Battles and Sieges.

1812, Michillimackinac. Taken by the British, July.

1812, Brownstown. The Americans defeated by the Indians, August 5.

1812, Maguaga. The British and Indians defeated by the Americans, August 9.

1812, Detroit. Surrendered to the British by General Hull, August 16.

1813, Frenchtown. The Americans compelled to surrender by the British and Indians, and many are afterwards cruelly destroyed, Jan. 22.

FLORIDA.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

FLORIDA is situated between 25° and 31° north latitude, and 3° and 10° 20′ west longitude. It is bounded north by Alabama and Georgia, from the last of which it is separated in part by the river St. Mary's; east by the Atlantic Ocean; south and west by the Gulf of Mexico. Formerly the name of Florida was applied to the whole country east of the Mississippi, and bounded on the north as follows: by the river St. Mary's from the sea to its source; thence west to the junction of Flint River with the Appalachicola; then up the Appalachicola to the parallel of 31° north latitude; then due west along that parallel to the Mississippi. The river Appalachicola divided this country into East and West Florida. The part lying between the Mississippi and Pearl River is now included in the state of Louisiana; the part between Pearl River and the Perdido belongs to the states of Mississippi and Albama; and the part east of the Perdido is the country that is now properly called Florida. Its mean length from south to north is 385 miles, and the mean breadth 150; the area being 57,750 square miles, or 36,960,000 acres.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

Florida is generally low and sandy; the sea-coast is uniformly level and marshy; but the ground rises gradually towards the interior, where a ridge of low hills extends from north to south nearly the whole length of the peninsula.

The soil is very various; in some parts, especially on the banks of the rivers, it is very good; in other parts, indifferent; and there are large tracts which are represented to be of little value. The country, however, has been but imperfectly explored, and few agricultural experiments have been made. Much of the land, which, on a superficial view, has been supposed to be not worth cultivating, it is believed may be turned to very profitable account. The productions are corn, rice, potatoes, cotton, hemp, olives, oranges, and other tropical fruits; and it is supposed that coffee and the sugar-cane will flourish here. The pine barrens produce a kind of grass, which supports an immense number of cattle. The forests yield fine live oak, pitch, tar, and turpentine, and lumber has been exported for nearly a century. Vast quantities of fish are cured on the coast.

Rivers.

St. John's is the principal river of Florida. Its sources have not been exactly ascertained, but are supposed to be between latitude 26° and 27° north. It runs in a northerly direction, parallel with the Atlantic coast, and expands into several lakes, particularly Lake George, which is 20 miles long and 15 wide, and embosoms several islands. Within 20 miles of its mouth the river turns to the east, and falls into the Atlantic Ocean, near latitude 30° north, 36 miles south of St. Mary's. Its whole length is about 300 miles, and it is navigable for vessels which can pass the bar at its mouth, for 150 miles, to Lake George. The bar has nine feet of water at low tide, and there is good anchorage outside of the bar for large vessels. The lands on this river are very fertile, and numerous settlements extend along its banks.

Appalachicola is a large river, formed by the Chatahouchee and Flint rivers, which unite at the south-west extremity of Georgia. It flows south, and discharges itself into St. George's Sound, the western part of Appalachee Bay.

The Okelockonne rises in the southern part of Georgia; and, running south, falls into Appalachee Bay, in latitude 29° 40′ north, and longitude 8° west.

Hillsborough River runsi nto Espiritu Santo Bay, in latitude 27° 40′ north.

Perdido River, which separates Florida from Alabama, runs south, and forms a considerable bay, which communicates with the Gulf of Mexico, in longitude 10° 15′ west.

Conecuh River rises in Georgia; and, after receiving the Escambia from the west, falls into an arm of Pensacola Bay, a little east of the Perdido.

St. Mark's River rises in Georgia, and falls into Appalachee bay, at 7° west longitude.

Bays.

Pensacola Bay, which sets up from the Gulf of Mexico, near the western boundary of Florida, is 15 miles long, and from 3 to 7 broad. It is completely land-locked, so that vessels are perfectly safe from every wind. The water is said to be sufficiently deep for vessels of the largest class, the bar at the mouth having four fathoms of water over it. A fortification on Rose Island, and another on the main opposite to it, would effectually defend the entrance. On the banks of the Conecuh and Almirante rivers, which fall into the bay, there are said to be large quantities of live oak. This bay is of great importance to the United States, as it is the only commodious and safe harbour for large ships, in the Gulf of Mexico.

Appalachee Bay is an extensive body of water, embracing the mouth of the river St. Mark's.

Espiritu Santo, or Hillsborough Bay, is on the west coast of the peninsula, at the mouth of Hillsborough River.

Climate.

The climate, from October to June, is generally very mild and pleasant; but the months of July, August, and September, are extremely hot and sultry; and during this season fevers are prevalent in many places. St. Augustine, however, enjoys generally a good climate, and is often the resort of invalids.

Civil Divisions and Population.

Florida being annexed to the United States after the census of the United States was taken, no enumeration was made of the inhabitants, nor has the country been subdivided into counties. It is constituted into a territory of the United States, and a governor has been appointed.

For judicial purposes it has been divided into east and west districts, the one having the capital of St. Augustine, and the other that of Pensacola. The country is very thinly settled, the whole population probably not exceeding 10,000; but, as there are considerable emigrations to St. Augustine and Pensacola, it is supposed there will soon be a material increase.

Chief Towns.

St. Augustine is a sea-port on the eastern coast, opposite the inlet at the north point of St. Anastatia Island. It is regularly laid out in the form of a parallelogram, the streets intersecting

each other at right angles. The houses are generally two stories high, and built of a species of stone peculiar to the country. The situation is pleasant; the supply of fresh water abundant; the atmosphere dry and healthful, and well adapted to northern constitutions. Invalids frequently resort hither for the benefit of the climate. The soil in the neighbourhood is generally sandy, yet produces corn, garden vegetables, oranges and lemons in great perfection. The harbour is good; but there is a bar at its mouth, which, at the lowest tides, will not admit vessels drawing more than six feet water; there is, however, a roadstead outside of the bar which affords anchorage for larger vessels. The town and the entrance of the harbour are well defended by a strong fort, built entirely of hewn stone, and mounting 60 cannon. In the rear of the city, and nearly encircling it, but at too great a distance to affect the climate, is an impenetrable morass, on the margin of which are erected six redoubts. The population is estimated at 5000.

Pensacola is a sea-port on the west side of Pensacola Bay, nine miles above the fort at its entrance. It stands on a dry, sandy plain, elevated eighteen or twenty feet above the level of the water, and is represented to be perfectly healthy at all seasons of the year. The population in 1819, was about 2000, principally Spaniards. Many of the houses and public structures are spacious and elegant, but wear the appearance of decay. Since the cession of Florida to the United States, emigrants from various parts of the union have resorted to this place in great numbers, with the expectation that its fine bay, and other natural advantages, will render it a place of great trade. Latitude 30° 25′ north. Longitude 9° 50′ west.

Islands.

There are numerous long narrow islands on the eastern coast. The principal is Amelia Island, thirteen miles long and two broad, lying seven leagues north of St. Augustine, and near the mouth of St. Mary's River.

Government.

The territorial government of Florida was established by an act of Congress, passed on the 31st of March, 1822. The executive power is vested in a governer appointed by the president and senate, and holding his office for three years, unless sooner removed. He is *ex officio* commander-in-chief of the militia, and superintendent of Indian affairs, and has power to grant pardons for offences against the territory, and reprieves for offences against the United States, until the decision of the president is made known; and appoints and commissions all officers whose appointments are not otherwise provided for; a secretary of the territory is also appointed by the president and

senate, and holds his office for four years, unless sooner removed. The legislative power is vested in the governor, and in thirteen other citizens of the United States, to be called the legislative council, and appointed annually by the president and senate. The legislative council may alter or repeal the laws in force at the commencement of their powers, and may make new laws; but no laws can be made inconsistent with the constitution and laws of the United States, or which may lay any person under restraint or disability on account of his religious opinions or mode of worship. The judicial power is vested in two superior courts, and in such inferior courts and justices of the peace, as the legislative council of the territory may from time to time establish. Writs of error and appeals from the superior courts, may be made to the supreme court of the United States. The judges are appointed by the president and senate, and hold their offices for five years. The privilege of the habeas corpus is extended to the inhabitants of the territory.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

THE name of Florida was originally not confined to the small tract of country at present known by that appellation, but extended over an immense region, which was discovered by Cabot, in 1496. The first visitant in the actual territory of Florida, appears to have been Ponce de Leon, who landed on Easter day, 1512, from which circumstance the country is said to have derived its name of Pascha Florida. The flattering picture which he drew of this region, excited a disposition among the European sovereigns to appropriate it to themselves. Hence arose conflicting claims, founded, in the first instance, upon discovery, and afterwards upon conquest and possession. In 1520, Vasquez sailed from St. Domingo, and visited Florida; in 1523, De Verrazini, a Florentine, and in 1524, De Geray, a Spaniard, also made some progress in discovery. Two years afterwards, Pamphilo de Narvaez obtained a grant from Charles the Fifth, of all the lands from Cape Florida to the river Palmos, in the Gulf of Mexico. He set sail in April, 1528, with a considerable force, and landed at Apalachee, but met with a formidable opposition from the Indians, and at last perished on the coast, near the river Palmos, by shipwreck, only ten of his crew returning to Spain. 1539, Ferdinand de Soto explored Florida, and after visiting many remote regions, and having passed through a series of romantic adventures, appears to have died near the banks of the Mississippi, in 1524. About the middle of the 16th century, many of the Protestants of France,

persecuted by the government, sought refuge in Florida, only to experience greater evils. The Spanish monarch, who claimed the title to the country, sent out, in 1564, a considerable force to dislodge them. The greatest barbarities were inflicted upon the unfortunate emigrants, many of whom were hung on the trees, with an inscription, purporting that they were destroyed, "not as Frenchmen, but as heretics." An ample and appropriate vengeance was taken not long afterwards by the French. Dominic de Gourgues, a Gascon, of adventurous and determined spirit, collected a party of his countrymen, and being joined by the Indians, attacked the fort in which the Spaniards were collected: and, having carried it by storm, hung up the garrison on the same trees that sustained the mouldering bodies of his countrymen, inscribing over them that they were executed, "not as Spaniards, but as cut-throats and murderers." Nine hundred widows are said to have petitioned Charles the Ninth, for aid and vengeance on this occasion.

The Spaniards, however, persevering in their attempts to obtain a footing in Florida, established the town and fort of St. Augustine, in 1565, which they held until 1586, when the former was taken and pillaged by Sir Francis Drake. Two years previously, Captains Barlow and Armidon had taken nominal possession in right of the queen of England, of the country on the northern coast of Florida. Little more is known of Florida for a period of nearly a century. In 1682, M. de la Salle visited West Florida, or Louisiana, and proceeded as far as the Illinois country. Pensacola was settled about 1696, by the French, who met with so many discouraging adventures, that. according to M. de Raynal, they would have abandoned it but for the sassafras tree, the fragrance and medicinal virtues of which animated them to continue their exertions. The Spanish settlements in Florida suffered greatly from the buccaneering inroads of the English naval officers, as well as from the neighbouring colonies. In 1702, Colonel More, then governor of Carolina, made an unsuccessful attack on St. Augustine, with a force of 500 regular troops, and 700 Indians, but was obliged, after a siege of three months, to abandon his ships and stores to the garrison. In 1704, Fort St. Marks was taken by the Carolinians. For some years Florida remained undisturbed by hostile invasion, and increased in population and prosperity. The advantages which the country offered for a settlement, drew the attention of General Oglethorpe, who had established a colony in Georgia. With 400 regular soldiers, 300 Indians, and 200 seamen, besides volunteers from Carolina, he made an attack upon St. Augustine, in 1740, but was received by the Spaniards with so much coolness and intrepidity, that he was forced to retire with loss. In the preceding year, General

Oglethorpe had effected a treaty with the Indians, by which it was declared that all the lands between Savannah and St. John's rivers, with the adjacent islands, and from the latter river to Appalachicola Bay, should belong to the Creek nation; and, about the same time, he constructed a chain of forts from Frederica to St. John's, some of which are considered effective at this day.

In 1742, the Spaniards in their turn attempted the conquest of the English possessions in the vicinity. A large force proceeded from the Havanna to St. Augustine, where, meeting with reinforcements, the whole landed at Amelia Island. Oglethorpe, however, contrived to deceive them as to his force; and finally, by a series of artifice and stratagems, induced them to retreat. Few events occurred from this period until 1763, when a treaty of peace settled the conflicting pretensions of France, Spain, and England. By this treaty the whole province of Florida was ceded by Spain to Great Britain, in exchange for the island of Cuba, which the English had then recently taken. Soon after the cession, the British divided the territory into two provinces, called East and West Florida, the river Appalachicola being the boundary between them, and by a proclamation invited settlers to the country, holding forth liberal inducements. Many respectable persons emigrated in consequence thereof from Carolina, and, among other colonists, a body of 1500 Greeks, Italians, and Minorcans were brought from the Mediterranean, and settled at a spot about sixty miles south of St. Augustine, where they began the cultivation of indigo and the sugar-cane.

When the war of the American revolution broke out, a small part of the population of Florida was found favourable to the cause of the colonies, but the greater proportion, composed principally of natives of Great Britain by birth, and the Spaniards, adhered to the royal side. Privateers were fitted out at the ports of Florida, by which the trade of the southern provinces was severely harassed, and the Indians were encouraged, with presents by the British officers, to let loose their barbarous hostility upon the Americans. The latter, on the other hand, were not backward in making reprisals upon British vessels. In August, 1775, a vessel with a large quantity of gunpowder was captured off the bar of St. Augustine, by some privateersmen from Carolina. In retaliation for this, a party of rangers and Indians was sent into Georgia, where they committed great ravages. Until 1779, the frontiers of Florida were the theatre of a predatory war. In that year general Prevost left Florida, and marching into Georgia with a considerable force of regulars and others, took possession of Sunbury, and subsequently of Savannah and Augusta, thus securing East Florida from encroachments on the side of Georgia. While engaged in this expedition, however, he left the province open

to incursions from Louisiana, which the Spaniards were not slow in taking advantage of. In September, 1779, Don B. de Galvez, a young and enterprising general in the Spanish service, and governor of Louisiana, invested the garrison and settlement of Baton Rouge, then commanded by lieutenant-colonel Dickson, and compelled them to surrender. In May, 1781, Don Galvez captured Pensacola, and soon afterwards completed the conquest of the whole of West Florida, which remained in possession of Spain until the treaty of peace of 1783, when Great Britain relinquished both provinces of Florida.

When Louisiana was ceded to the United States by France, in 1803, it was declared by the treaty to be ceded with the same extent that it had in the hands of Spain, and as it had been ceded by Spain to France. The terms of this cession gave rise to a claim on the part of the United States to the country west of the Perdido River; and to prevent the occupation of this territory by any other power, the government of the union took possession, in 1811, of the principal posts, except the town and fort of Mobile, which was surrendered to their forces in the following year. East Florida, however, remained in the undisturbed possession of the Spanish authorities, with the exception of some revolutionary movements of no long continuance, until the second war between the United States and Great Britain. In 1814, a British expedition having been fitted out from Pensacola against the American territories, General Jackson resolved to take possession of the place. Accordingly, with a small body of regulars and some mounted volunteers, he marched from Mobile, and, after a show of resistance from the Spaniards and British, carried the town. The fort of Barrancas was soon afterwards destroyed by the British, and General Jackson, having no authority to rebuild it, evacuated the place and returned to Mobile. A similar disregard of the duties of neutrality on the part of the Spanish government, drew upon this province another invasion in 1818. The Seminole Indians, with whom the United States were at war, residing within the the limits of Florida, and making their incursions thence without restraint from the Spaniards, it became necessary, for the purpose of chastising them, to cross the territorial line, and subsequently possession was taken by General Jackson of Fort St. Marks and Pensacola. The American troops remained in these posts until November, 1818, when they were restored by the government of the United States to Spain. A negotiation, which had been for a long time pending, for the transfer of the whole province to the United States, was consummated by treaty in 1819; and, after many vexatious delays, the treaty was ratified by Spain in October, 1820, and finally by the United States in the month of February, 1218. Possession was delivered to General Jackson, the commissioner of the United

States, in July, 1821, and the province now forms one of the territories of the United States.

GOVERNORS.

1821 Andrew Jackson. | 1822 William P. Duval.

MEXICO.

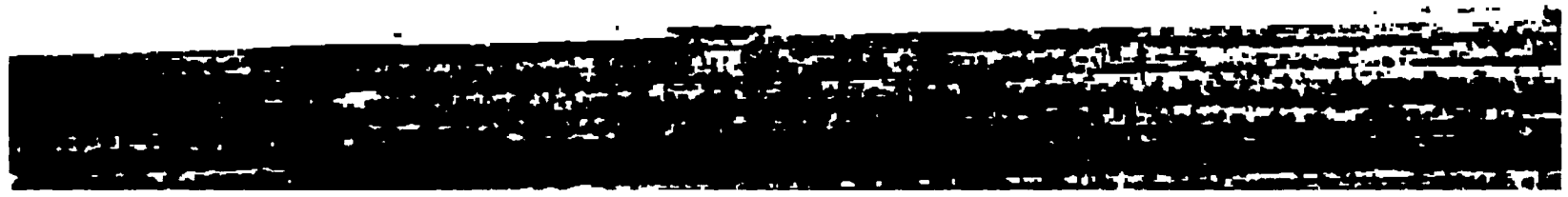
Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

Mexico is situated between 15° 53′ and 38° 10′ N. lat. and 42° and 113° 40′ W. long. It is bounded N. and N. E. by the United States; E. by the United States and Gulf of Mexico; S. by Guatimala and the Pacific Ocean; and W. by the Pacific Ocean and Gulf of California. Its mean length, including the two Californias, is about 1200 miles, and its mean breadth about 800, the area being 957,541 square miles.

[As the population of the Mexican territory may now be estimated at about eight millions and a half, it gives a comparative population of nearly nine persons to each square mile of surface. This is altogether independent of the 700,000 square miles on the north of the dominions, of which the population is entirely unknown, and perhaps does not exceed one person for every 20 square miles. When we consider that immense regions in Mexico are among the most fertile on the globe, vast tracts must not only be destitute of population, but many others do not contain a *tenth* of the inhabitants they are capable of supporting. It deserves to be remarked, too, in reference to this comparative population, that it is nearly *eighteen* times as great in the *torrid*, as in the temperate, zone. This was also the case at the era of the first Spanish conquest, for then cultivation did not extend beyond the 20th degree of north latitude; and as agriculture alone attaches man to the soil on which he is placed, and developes his love of country, it was within these limits that the Aztec colonists submitted to the Spanish yoke, while those of the more northern regions retired from their savannas, which served as pastures for the buffalo, and left merely an unpeopled and an uncultivated region to be possessed by the conquerors.]—Edit.

Besides the settled part of New Spain, there is a very large territory between the Internal Provinces and the United States, either uninhabited, or inhabited by savage Indians only. The

Longitude West from
Ohio
Kentucky
Tennessee
Virginia
Carolina
Georgia
Florida
The Gulf Stream
Charleston
Ponce Bay
Cape Florida
Cape Sable
Cape Antonio
Cape Corrientes
Cape St. Antonio
Cape St. Augustine
Cape Catoche
Cape Gracias a Dios
Cape Honduras
Cape Tiburon
Cape Nicholas
Cape Maize
Cape Morant
Cape Alacran
Cape Cruz
Cape Negrillo



extent is about 700,000 square miles, but it is entirely unexplored and unknown.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

The land on both the coasts is low, but rises gradually as you approach the interior, till it has attained the height of 6 or 8000 feet above the level of the ocean; it then spreads out, as we have already mentioned, into broad plains, or table lands, presenting the unusual spectacle of an immense level country on the top of a lofty range of mountains. These plains extend along the range from lat. 18° to lat 40° N. a distance of 1700 miles.

A considerable part of the country situated to the north of the tropic, is rendered barren by want of moisture; and in many parts, also, of the table land within the tropics, the plains are arid and destitute of wood. Still a great portion of New Spain belongs to the most fertile regions of the earth. On the banks of all the rivers, and wherever there is a supply of moisture, the fertility is extreme. The declivity of the Cordillera is exposed to humid winds and frequent fogs; and the vegetation, nourished by these aqueous vapours, exhibits an uncommon beauty and strength. The humidity of the coasts, also assisted by a burning sun, though it generates some terrible diseases, is favourable to the growth of the richest produce of tropical climates. The productions of this country are as various as its climate. In the course of a few hundred miles are to be found almost all the fruits of the temperate and torrid zones. The fertile regions on the coast produce in abundance sugar, indigo, and cotton. The *banana*, also, which supplies the place of bread to the inhabitants of the torrid zone, and which is said to produce a greater quantity of nutritive substance than any other plant on the same space of ground, flourishes luxuriantly in all the low country. The same region in which the banana grows, produces also the *manioc*, which yields a very nutritious bread. But by far the most important agricultural production is *maize*. It grows in the low country, and on all the table land except some of the highest plains, and the produce is most abundant, being in some places 800 fold, and on an average 150 fold. In the most warm and humid regions it will yield two or three harvests annually. Wheat, rye, and other European grain, have been successfully introduced in the northern provinces and on the elevated plains within the tropics. All the garden vegetables and fruit-trees of Europe are now also possessed by the Mexicans. The central table land produces in the greatest abundance cherries, prunes, peaches, apricots, figs, grapes, melons, apples, and pears. The vine and the olive would also flourish in this delightful climate; but, through the influence of the merchants in the mother country, their cultivation has been prohibited, and the colonists are still obliged to import their wine and oil from Old Spain.

Mountains.

A chain of colossal mountains, called the Cordillera of Mexico, passes through the whole length of this country, from south-east to north-west. It may be considered as a prolongation of the Andes of Peru, or a part of the great chain which runs through the American continent from Cape Horn to the Frozen Ocean. Its top consists of extensive plains or table land. From these elevated plains single mountains occasionally shoot up, whose summits are covered with everlasting snow. Several peaks near the city of Mexico, are more than 15,000 feet high, and the loftiest are volcanoes. The crest, or highest part of the chain, sometimes approaches the Pacific Ocean; at other times it occupies the centre of the country, and sometimes it bends towards the Gulf of Mexico, in the province of Oaxaca, for example, it occupies the centre of the Mexican Isthmus, from 18½ to 21 degrees north latitude, in the intendancies of Puebla and Mexico, it stretches from south to north, and approaches the eastern coast; after which it turns to the north-west, towards the city of Guanaxuato. To the north of this city it divides into three branches, of which the most eastern runs into the intendancy of San Luis Potosi, towards the mouth of the Rio Bravo del Norte. The western branch traverses the intendancies of Guadalaxara and Sonora to the banks of the Rio Gila. The third branch, which may be considered as the central chain of the Mexican Andes, occupies the whole extent of the intendancy of Zacatecas, and passing through Durango and New Mexico, under various names, joins the Rocky Mountains of the United States.

[Though not free from the influence of volcanoes and earthquakes, the inhabitants of Mexico are less exposed to these terrible concussions of nature than the people of Quito, Guatimala, or Cumana. The five active volcanoes in New Spain are those of Orizaba, Popocatepetl, Tustla, Jorullo, and Colima. Jorullo is of recent formation; and these, with other phenomena, show that between 18° and 22° N. lat., the country contains an active internal fire, which occasionally pierces the crust of the globe, even at a great distance from the shore. Mexico contains a narrow zone of great elevation, stretching from east to west, nearly at right angles, to the main ridge of the Cordillera; for most of the summits of Anahuac that penetrate the region of perpetual snow, rise in the 20th degree of latitude; these are composed of volcanoes that either still continue to burn, or mountains that have once been the outlets of subterranean fire. On receding from the shores of the Atlantic, we find, nearly in a line from east to west, the Pic d'Orizaba, the two volcanoes of la Puebla, the Nevada de Teluca, the Pic de Tancitaro, and the Volcan de Colima; the new volcano of Jorullo is also a prolongation of the same line.

[To afford our readers a clearer idea of the principal of these elevations than is given above, we have inserted the following list:—viz.

Name of Summits, &c.	*Height above the Sea.*
Popocatepetl, or Smoking Mountain	17,720 feet.
Pic de Orizaba, volcano . .	17,370
Citlaltepetl, or Star Mountain	17,370
Iztaccihuatl, or White Woman	15,700
Nevada de Toluca	15,165
Cofre de Perote, or Nauhcampatepetl	13,415
The Lake of Toluca . . .	12,195
Real del Monte, a mine . .	9,125
Medium of the High Table Land	7,500
Jorullo Volcano	4,265

[For a more copious view of the physical structure of this beautiful and interesting region, see Myers's Modern Geography, 2 vols. quarto, 1822.]—EDIT.

Rivers.

The Arkansaw forms a part of the northern boundary. Red River rises in this country, and flows south-east into the United States. The Sabine is the eastern boundary. The Rio Bravo del Norte rises in the Rocky Mountains, near the source of the Arkansaw, in about lat. 40° N., and, running in a south-easterly direction, falls into the Gulf of Mexico, after a course of nearly 2000 miles. It cannot in any part be termed a navigable stream. The Colorado de Texas, the Nueces, and several smaller streams, fall into the Gulf of Mexico, between the Sabine and the Rio Bravo. The Colorado of California, rises on the west side of the great mountain range, near the sources of the Rio Bravo, and, running in a south-westerly direction, falls into the head of the Gulf of California, after a course of about 900 miles, of which it is navigable for the last 300. The Gila is an eastern branch of the Colorado, and joins it near its mouth, after a course of about 600 miles. All these rivers flow through thinly settled and uncivilized regions.

In the southern part of Mexico there are no large rivers. The narrow form of the continent prevents the collection of a great mass of water. The rapid declivity of the Cordillera, abounds, more properly, with torrents than rivers. Among the small streams, the only ones which will ever, probably, be interesting for interior commerce, are, 1. Rio Guasacualco, which falls into the Gulf of Mexico to the south-east of Vera Cruz. 2. Rio de Moctezuma, which rises from the small lakes near the city of Mexico, and, flowing north, falls into Tampico. 3. Rio de Zacatula, which also rises near the city of Mexico, and runs west to the Pacific Ocean. 4. The Santiago, which

rises 90 miles west of the city of Mexico, and, running in a northerly direction, passes through the great lake Chapala, and enters the Pacific Ocean by a broad mouth, after a course of more than 600 miles.

Sea-coast and Ports.

The eastern coast of New Spain, properly speaking, possesses no port; for Vera Cruz, through which the whole commerce is carried on, is merely a bad anchorage. The cause of this disadvantage is the Gulf Stream, which, in its passage along the shore, continually throws up the sands of the ocean, forming bars over which large vessels cannot pass. The sands thus heaped up by the stream are continually adding to the continent, and the ocean is every where retiring. These obstacles do not exist on the coast of the Pacific Ocean. San Francisco in New California, San Blas in the intendancy of Guadalaxara, near the mouth of the river Santiago, and especially Acapulco, are remarkably fine ports. A serious inconvenience, however, is common to the eastern coast and the coast of the Pacific Ocean; they are rendered inaccessible for several months of the year, by violent tempests, which effectually prevent all navigation.

Climate.

About one-third of the territory included in the provinces of New Spain, is situated within the torrid zone, and for this reason it might be supposed that the heat would be excessive: but the climate of a country does not depend altogether on its distance from the pole, but also on its elevation above the level of the sea. Hence of the 50,000 square leagues lying under the torrid zone, more than three-fifths enjoy rather a temperate than a hot climate. In the low plains on both coasts, the heat is very oppressive, and the climate unhealthy to Europeans; but when you advance into the interior, and begin to ascend the declivity of the Cordillera, it becomes more temperate, and, at the elevation of 4 or 5000 feet, there reigns perpetually a soft spring temperature, which never varies more than eight or nine degrees, and is very healthy. As you advance still higher, the climate becomes cooler, and at length on the tops of some of the loftiest mountains, you come to regions of perpetual snow. Thus, in the course of two or three days, the traveller may enjoy all the variety of summer, spring, and winter.

[The natives consider Mexico as comprising three distinct climates. That near the coasts they call *Tierras calientes*; and there Fahrenheit's thermometer rises to above 90°; the middle regions, on the flanks of the Cordillera, they call *Tierras templadas*, the mean annual temperature of which is from 68° to 70°; a third zone is known by the name of *Tierras frias*, which comprehends the plains more than 7220 feet above the level of the sea; her

the mean annual temperature is less than 60°. At the city of Mexico, the thermometer has been known to sink below the freezing point, but it sometimes rises nearly to 80°; the mean of the year is about 60°.]—EDIT.

Civil Divisions and Population.

Divisions.	*Sq. Miles.*	*Pop.* 1803.	*Chief Towns.*
Old California	55,880	9,000	Loreto.
New California	16,278	15,600	Monterey.
New Mexico	43,731	40,200	Santa Fe.
Sonora	146,635	121,400	Arispe.
Durango, or N. Biscay	129,247	159,700	Durango.
San Luis Potosi	263,109	334,900	S. L. Potosi.
Guadalaxara	73,628	630,500	Guadalaxara.
Zacatecas	18,039	153,300	Zacatecas.
Guanaxuato	6,878	517,300	Guanaxuato.
Valladolid	26,396	376,400	Valladolid.
Mexico	45,401	1,511,800	Mexico.
Puebla	20,651	813,300	Puebla.
Vera Cruz	31,720	156,000	Vera Cruz.
Oaxaca	34,064	534,800	Oaxaca.
Yucatan, or Merida	45,784	465,800	Merida.
Total,	957,441	5,840,000	

In 1793, the population, according to the official returns, was 4,483,529. In 1803 it was estimated by Humboldt at 5,840,000, and in 1808 at 6,500,000. In 1822 it may be estimated at 8,500,000. This population is composed of the following classes:—1. European Spaniards. 2. Creoles, or whites, of European extraction, born in America. 3. Negroes. 4. Indians. 5. Mestizoes, or descendants of whites and Indians. 6. Mulattoes, or descendants of whites and negroes. 7. Zambos, or descendants of negroes and Indians. The number of European Spaniards is only about 80,000, and that of the negroes only 6 or 8000. The Creoles form about one-fifth of the whole population, the Indians two-fifths, and the mestizoes, mulattoes, and zamboes, nearly two-fifths. The northern provinces are very thinly settled. In 1803, 5,000,000 of the inhabitants, or about seven-eighths of the whole population, were concentrated within the torrid zone, on about one-third of the territory; and 4,000,000 of this number lived on the table lands upon the ridge of the Cordillera.

Chief Towns.

Mexico, the capital of New Spain, and the most populous city in America, is situated in the parallel of 19° 20′ N. lat. midway between the Gulf of Mexico and the Pacific Ocean, in a delightful valley, which is 230 miles in circumference, and elevated 7400 feet above the level of the ocean. The ancient city was built by

the Mexicans in 1325 on a group of islands in Lake Tezcuco, and was connected with the main land by three principal dikes or causeways, from a mile and a half to six miles long. The modern Mexico was built by the Spaniards on the ruins of the ancient city, and though it occupies exactly the same situation, yet, owing to the retreat of the waters, it is now on dry land, about a league distant from the banks of the lake. It is regularly built, with broad streets, and magnificent public buildings. It contains upwards of 100 churches, and 137,000 inhabitants, of whom one-half are whites, and the rest Indians, Mulattoes, and Mestizoes.

Guanaxuato, about 150 miles N. W. of Mexico, is a large and flourishing city, famous for its gold and silver mines. Population 70,600. Puebla, famous for its manufactures of earthen-ware, iron, and steel, is 70 miles E. S. E. of Mexico. Population, 67,800. Zacatecas, one of the most celebrated mining places of New Spain, is more than 300 miles N. N. W. of Mexico. Population 33,000. Vera Cruz, on the Gulf of Mexico, is one of the most considerable places for trade in Spanish America, being the port through which the commerce of New Spain is carried on with Europe and the West Indies. Population, 16,000. Acapulco, on the coast of the Pacific Ocean, is the port through which commerce is carried on with Asia and the East India islands. The position of the town is extremely unhealthy, and notwithstanding its excellent port and extensive trade it is a miserable place, with only 4000 inhabitants, mostly people of colour. Santa Fe, in lat. 36° 30′ N. on the east bank of the Rio Bravo del Norte, is the most northern town of any note. Population, 4500.

Mines.

More than nine-tenths of all the silver in the known world is derived from the mines of Spanish America, which produce, according to Humboldt, 43,500,000 dollars annually; and of this sum New Spain yields about two-thirds. The richest mines are those of Guanaxuato, in the intendancy of the same name; Catorce, in the intendancy of San Luis Potosi; Zacatecas, in the intendancy of the same name; Real del Monte, in the intendancy of Mexico; Bolaños, in the intendancy of Guadalaxara; Guarisamey, in the intendancy of Durango, and Sombrerete, in the intendancy of Zacatecas. The mines are a source of immense wealth to their proprietors. In one instance a single vein yielded to its owner in six months a net profit of more than 3,000,000 dollars. Gold is found in considerable quantities, about 5000 pounds being annually delivered into the mint of Mexico. There are also mines of copper, lead, iron, tin, antimony, arsenic, &c., but they are not diligently worked. [The central group of mines in New Spain embraces a portion of territory more abundant in silver than any other known tract. It includes a space of about 1700 square leagues, comprehending the three districts of Guanaxu-

ato, Catorce, and Zacatecas. The mine of *Valenciana* is one of the most noted in this group. Its depth is 1640 feet, and it extends horizontally for about eight miles. The number of persons employed is about 3100, of whom 1800 work under ground, 900 are employed in carrying the ore up the stairs that form the descent into the mine, and 400 in removing it to the places where it is tried and roasted. The value of the annual produce is about half a million sterling, and the expense of working it 200,000*l*.—See the work above referred to.]—EDIT.

Commerce.

The commerce of New Spain with the mother country is carried on, almost entirely, through the port of Vera Cruz. In time of peace Humboldt estimates the annual value of the exports from that place at 21 millions of dollars, and the imports at 15 millions. The principal exports are gold and silver in coin, bullion, and plate, to the value of 17 million dollars; cochineal, 2,400,000; sugar, 1,300,000, &c. The imports are bale goods, including woollens, cottons, linens, and silks, to the value of 9,000,000 dollars; paper, 1,000,000; cacao, 1,000,000; quicksilver, 650,000.

Religion and Education.

The religion is Roman Catholic, and the church is under the care of an archbishop and eight bishops. The number of clergy is about 10,000. Very little attention is paid to classical literature, but the mathematics, chemistry, natural history, and the fine arts, are very diligently studied.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

FERNANDO CORTEZ, a native of the town of Medellin, in Old Spain, and a descendant of a noble but decayed family, was the discoverer and conqueror of Mexico. This celebrated adventurer was born in the year 1485, had studied at Salamanca, and was intended for the law; but his restless disposition caused him to abandon his profession, and search for distinction in the romantic regions of the west. Proceeding to Hispaniola he joined Velasquez in an expedition to Cuba. Here he was chosen to undertake a voyage of discovery to the coast of Mexico; and, having spent the greater part of his fortune in equipping his army and fleet, he set sail on the 10th of February, 1519, and steered for the isle of Cozumel, on which he landed, and then proceeded to the river Tabasco, where he forced the natives to acknowledge the Spanish king. From this place he sailed westward, and landed at the place now called St. Juan de Ulloa, where he debarked his men, horses, and guns, and erected a fortification.

The emperor of Mexico, hearing of the arrival of the Spanish ships at this place, sent two ambassadors to meet the strangers, to inquire their intentions, and to offer them assistance. Cortez returned a haughty answer, that "he would confer with none but the emperor." The Mexicans endeavoured to conciliate him by every means in their power. Alarmed by the unusual sound of cannon, they heaped upon him the most costly presents, with the hope of inducing him not to march into the interior. The Spanish troops, who also entertained fears of being attacked, broke out into mutiny, which was, however, soon quelled by the address of Cortez, who persuaded them besides to choose him commander and president of the new colony they were about forming. The town thus commenced, received the name of La Villa Rica de la Vera Cruz. Not long afterwards another mutiny took place of a more serious character: but the influence of Cortez again prevailed, and he succeeded in inducing his men to adopt a decisive step, which left them no alternative but conquest or utter ruin. This was the destruction of the fleet, a measure which left between five and six hundred persons without hope of escape, in the midst of the hostile inhabitants of a powerful and populous empire.

Having effected this important measure, Cortex, who had been joined by the cacique of Zempoalla with 600 men, marched on the 16th of August, having with him 500 of his own soldiers, with 15 horses and six cannon. With this force he entered the state of Tlascala, where he met with great opposition for 14 days; but, after having beaten the Tlascalans at all points without losing a man, he granted them peace, and they became afterwards his best allies. He next advanced against Cholula, where he was treacherously received, and to avenge himself massacred 6000 of the natives. Proceeding onwards from this place they came in sight of the capital of the empire. At a short distance from the entrance into the city, they were met by Montezuma at the head of his nobles, and surrounded by his guards and courtiers. Cortez dismounted from his horse and saluted the emperor with the utmost humility; and, after much ceremony, the emperor conducted him to a house prepared for his reception. No sooner had Cortez taken possession than he fortified it in the strongest manner. Here he learned that the cause of their not having been attacked was a traditionary prophecy current among this people that a powerful nation, children of the sun, would chastise the country for the punishment of their sins. Cortez readily turned the idea to his own advantage, and encouraged the awe which the Mexicans entertained for the Spaniards. Having, under cover of the most friendly exterior, made observations upon the city, he came to the determination of seizing Montezuma in his palace and confining him in the Spanish quarters. He entered the palace with 10 officers and soldiers, while a large party waited without. He addressed Montezuma, and, complaining of several things

which he affected to dread, he requested the emperor would condescend to take up a temporary residence with the Spaniards. Montezuma reluctantly consented. He was, at first, treated with the attention and respect due to his rank and station; but, after a short interval, Cortez came to his apartment with a soldier bearing fetters, and told him that the garrison at Villa Rica had been attacked; that he was the instigator of the insult; that he (Cortez) had ordered the guilty to be executed; and that the monarch himself must feel the weight of his anger. Turning fiercely to the soldier he commanded him to fetter the legs of Montezuma. The unfortunate monarch and his attendants were sunk in grief and affliction, and Cortez left the room to attend at the execution of the sentence on the culprits. After this was ended, he repaired to the emperor's chamber, and with his own hands took off the shackles.

Montezuma remained a prisoner for six months, during which period Cortez was employed in reconnoitring the country, in preparing to build vessels on the lakes, and in dividing with his soldiers the spoils of their conquest. Montezuma now acknowledged himself in form a vassal of the Spanish king, and sent to Cortez his tokens of homage, executed in all the prescribed forms, with a magnificent present, accompanied by others from his subjects. In the mean time, Velasquez, the commander of the expedition in which Cortez had sailed to Cuba, hearing of his success in Mexico, fitted out a fleet with a considerable force of land soldiers, which he placed under the command of Narvaez, with instructions to seize Cortez and his officers, and to take possession of the empire in the name of Velasquez. Cortez, hearing of the arrival of this armament, quitted Mexico, leaving a small force to guard Montezuma and his capital; and, having sent bribes to many officers of Narvaez's army, attacked the army by surprise, and gained a complete and almost bloodless victory. Hearing that his garrison had been attacked in Mexico, he returned immediately, and entered the city without molestation; but was attacked in his fortress with great vigour. Having been twice wounded, and forced to retreat in the sallies made upon the besiegers, he adopted the resolution of placing the emperor in view of his enraged subjects. Montezuma endeavoured to pacify them, but in vain. The forlorn monarch was wounded by an arrow, and disdaining the aid of the Spaniards, died broken-hearted and despairing. After his death, Cortez, finding that he could no longer maintain his position, quitted the town secretly, and marched for the Tlascalan territories. Having recruited the spirits of his followers, and received a reinforcement of 10,000 Indian allies, he again marched for Mexico, exactly six months after his evacuation of it.

Having fixed his head quarters at Tezcuco, on the banks of the lake, 20 miles from the capital, he built, with the assistance of

the Indians of the place, 13 small ships, which he launched on the lake. At this juncture, four vessels fitted out by his friends in Hispaniola, arrived with 200 infantry, eight horses, and supplies of arms and ammunition. He therefore immediately attacked the city on the east, west, and south. It was defended by Guatimozin, the new emperor, with undaunted courage, and Cortez himself was once taken prisoner; but fortunately rescued, though wounded in the attempt. His soldiers, who fell into the hands of the Mexicans, were devoted on the altars of the god of war. His allies, the Indians, now amounted to upwards of 100,000, and his vessels obtained possession of the Lakes Tezcuco and Chalco. The siege continued with vigour for 75 days, and the town capitulated on the 21st of August, 1521, when Guatimozin was taken prisoner; but Cortez stained the glory of his triumph by cruelly ordering the emperor to be put to the torture, in order to make him confess where he had hid his treasure: which, in fact, he had caused to be thrown into the lake. The remaining provinces of the Mexican empire yielded without much opposition to the Spanish conquerors.

Cortez now gave the country the name of New Spain: but his proceedings were regarded with much jealousy at home. An order was even issued for his arrest; but this was revoked, and he was appointed captain-general of New Spain. After adjusting the government, Cortez returned to Spain, where he gained the affection of the emperor, who conferred on him the title of Marquisi del Valle de Guaxaca, together with the order of St. Jago, and the grant of a large district in New Spain. His unabated ardour for discovery and conquest, carried him again to America in 1530. His after-life was doomed to be imbittered by disappointments. The Spanish government took from him the political government of New Spain, vesting it in an *audiencia real*, or royal audience, but leaving him the military command. In 1536 he fitted out some vessels, and discovered the Great Californian Gulf and part of its shores, and, after enduring incredible hardships, returned to Mexico. Here he met with a renewal of disappointment, and for the purpose of obtaining justice sailed for his native country, where he arrived in 1540, but obtained no redress. Mortification preyed upon his spirits, and this extraordinary man died in 1547, in the 62d year of his age.

The first viceroy of New Spain arrived in 1535. From this period to the year 1808, Mexico was governed by a succession of 50 viceroys, of whom only one was an American by birth, the Marquis De Casa Fuerte, a native of Peru. The annals of Mexico, from the conquest to the beginning of the present century, are remarkably devoid of interest. The revolutionary spirit which manifested itself in the other Spanish provinces, spread into Mexico in 1811, and produced an insurrection, which was, however, after great bloodshed, quelled. In February, 1821, a glorious and

90
85
G U L F O F
M E X I C O
Yucatan
Gulf Stream
Tortugas
Florida Reef
Bahama Islands
Cape Catoche
Cape Antonio
Isle of Pines
Cape Corrientes
Bay of Honduras
Honduras
Gulf of Nicaragua
Gulf of Papagayo
Cape Blanco
P A C I F I C
O C E A N
Lon. West from 85 Greenwich

effectual revolution took place, which has ended in the acknowledgment of the independence of Mexico, by Don Juan O'Donoju, who had been recently appointed captain-general of New Spain by the Spanish government.

WEST INDIES.

HISTORICAL SKETCH OF THE DISCOVERY AND SETTLEMENT OF THE WEST INDIES.

About the middle of the 15th century, the question of a passage by sea to the East Indies occupied public attention in Europe. The Portuguese searched for the passage by steering south, in hopes of reaching India by turning to the east, when they had arrived at the furthest extremity of Africa. Christopher Columbus, however, after revolving in his mind every circumstance which his knowledge of navigation, and a comparison of the observations of modern pilots, with the hints of ancient authors furnished him, came to the conclusion, that by sailing across the Atlantic due west, new countries would be discovered, which probably formed part of India. Satisfied of the existence of these new regions, he first made his plans known to the republic of Genoa, of which he was a native, and offered to conduct an expedition, if the means were provided him. The senate rejected his offer as chimerical; and Columbus next tried the Portuguese court, which treated his proposals with apparent scorn, but perfidiously attempted, though without success, to anticipate him. In Spain, he was equally unsuccessful. His next application was through his brother Bartholomew, to Henry VII. of England, who received the plan with more approbation than his brother monarchs, but gave him no assistance. After eight years of disappointment, Columbus was reduced almost to despair, when he was recalled to Spain, by Isabella of Castile, who consented to furnish him with the means of prosecuting his enterprise. So ill supplied, however, was her treasury at that period, that only three vessels were equipped, the largest of which was of considerable burden. With this slender armament, he joyfully set sail from the Port of Palos, on the 3d of August, 1492. On the 1st of October, he was, by his own reckoning, 770 leagues west of the Canaries. His men, to whom an absence from land was new, and whom the extraordinary nature of the voyage upon which they

were embarked filled with apprehensions, began to mutiny: even the officers joined in the outcry, and they unanimously required their commander to put the ship about, and return to Europe. Columbus, whose lofty spirit was in nowise intimidated by their threats, found the presages of approaching land so numerous, that he solemnly promised his men to return if land was not discovered after three days more sail. Alarmed as the sailors were, they consented to the proposition. The expectations of the great navigator were soon realized. On the evening of the 11th of October, appearances of the vicinity of land becoming very decided, he ordered the sails to be furled, the ships to lie to, and a strict watch to be kept, lest they should be driven on shore in the night. The anxious expectation of the crew kept them all on deck, gazing earnestly upon that quarter where they expected to discover the object of their wishes. A little before midnight, Columbus, who had placed himself in the forecastle of his ship, discovered a light at a distance, and shortly afterwards the joyful cry of land! was heard from the *Ponta*, the headmost ship. On the following morning, a beautiful island appeared. On this sight the crews of all the ships broke out into the hymn of *Te Deum*, with shouts and congratulations. They then threw themselves at the feet of Columbus, and implored his pardon for their ingratitude and disobedience.

The island thus discovered was one of the Bahamas; Columbus called it San Salvador, but it is now more generally known by the Indian name of Guanahani, and by the English mariners it is commonly called Cat Island. Columbus was the first who landed; his men following, kneeled down, kissed the ground, and returned thanks to God for the prosperous issue of their expedition. The astonished natives regarded them as beings descended from a higher sphere; and the Spaniards were little less surprised at the novelty of the scene before them. Columbus, observing that most of the people wore plates of gold by way of ornament, inquired whence the precious metal came. The natives pointed to the south, and thither he immediately directed his course. He saw several islands, and touched at three of the largest, which he named St. Mary of the Conception, Ferdinanda, and Isabella. Following the same course, he discovered a large island, which the natives called Cuba, and which still retains that name. Delighted with the beauty of this spot: he did not, however, find the gold of which his crew were in search; and proceeding thence eastward, he sailed in quest of an island which the natives called Hayti. Here he arrived on the 6th of December, and gave the island the name of Hispaniola, in honour of the kingdom by which he was employed. The western part of it, however, has since resumed its original appellation, Hayti. During a voyage from one harbour to another in this island, Columbus lost one of his ships, which was driven on the rocks; and he determined to

return home. Accordingly, leaving some of his men behind, at Hispaniola, he set sail, and returned to the port of Palos, on the 15th of March, 1493, after a perilous voyage, in which the vessel had well nigh foundered: he was received by all classes with the highest respect; the honours of a conqueror were paid him; the monarch rewarded him with a patent of nobility; and prepared a new expedition to be placed under his command. He sailed on his second voyage in September following, and on the 26th day made land. It was one of the Leeward Islands, to which he gave the name of Deseada. After this he visited, successively, the islands of Dominica, Mariegalante, Guadaloupe, Montserrat, Antigua, Porto Rico, and others. From these he proceeded to Hispaniola, where he founded a town, which he called Isabella, the first European settlement in the West Indies. Having appointed his brother, Diego, to govern the island, he again sailed in search of new lands; but, during a tedious voyage of four months, made no discovery of importance, except the island of Jamaica. In 1496, he returned to Spain, where his enemies had been labouring to rob him of his well-earned reputation. He succeeded in reinstating himself in the good opinion of his sovereigns; and, after a vexatious delay of two years, sailed on his third voyage in May, 1498. On the 1st of August, he discovered the Island of Trinidad, near the coast of Guiana, and soon afterwards landed on the continent. On his return to Hispaniola, he discovered the islands of Cubugua and Margarita. From Hispaniola, he was sent home a prisoner. On his fourth and last voyage, he made no other discoveries in the West Indies. Nearly all the islands in the West Indies were, however, seen by Columbus, in the course of his expeditions. On his first voyage, he discovered the Bahamas and Greater Antilles; on his second, the Caribbee Isles; and the Lesser Antilles on his third. The general name of West Indies, which has been given to these islands, arose from the mistake of Columbus, in supposing that he had actually reached the islands on the coast of India. After the voyage of Vasco de Gama, in 1498, in which he reached India by an eastern course, India Proper and its islands received the name of the East Indies, and the islands discovered by Columbus began to be called the West Indies, a name which they have since retained.

The islands of the West Indies, although granted in full title to the monarchs of Spain by the Pope, were settled by various nations, without much regard to the papal deed. The epochs of their settlement are also different; of many, the precise period at which they were colonised, is not ascertained. The first settlement, as has been already mentioned, was in Hispaniola, in the year 1496; Jamaica appears to have been first inhabited by Europeans about 1509; Cuba about 1511; Porto Rico about 1514; Curaçoa about 1600; Barbadoes 1624; Montserrat and

Tobago 1632; Guadaloupe, Martinico, and St. Lucia 1635. The Virgin Isles and St. Bartholomew 1648; Grenada 1650. The Bahamas generally about 1672; and Antigua 1674.

About the middle of the 17th century, the West Indian seas were infested by a band of pirates, whose exploits have rendered them celebrated. They consisted originally of a body of French and English planters, who were expelled from St. Christopher's by the Spaniards, in 1629, and established themselves on the Island of Tortuga, where they were soon afterwards joined by a number of Dutch, expelled in like manner from Santa Cruz. They at first employed themselves in hunting and trading; but the Spaniards having pursued them to Tortuga, and barbarously massacred their women and children, they began a war of piracy and revenge, which proved signally destructive to the Spaniards. The Spanish settlements were assailed in every quarter, and ample vengeance was taken both on land and on the sea. The dress of the pirates was a singular one, and sufficiently appropriate to their profession and purposes. From their original occupation, that of hunting wild cattle, they are said to have derived the name of Buccaneers, which has since been applied to pirates in general. Their most celebrated leaders were Henry Morgan, a native of Wales, and Montbars, a native of Languedoc. After the peace of Ryswic, in 1697, the bonds which held them together were dissolved, and we hear no more of the Buccaneers.

A sketch of the progress of the settlements, and of the present state of the principal islands, will be found under their respective heads. Having never united themselves together, the West Indies possess no general and connected history. In progress of time, when they become, as they may be, independent of Europe, such union may take place: but it is more probable that they will be dependencies upon the empires of the continent. Whether a more fearful revolution is to take place within themselves, after the example of Hayti, is also a question within the womb of time. The unfortunate preponderancy of numbers on the side of the blacks, in some of the islands, would lead to the belief that such an event is not improbable. It cannot be doubted that attempts will be made on the part of the slaves to throw off the yoke, and, whatever may be the issue, much blood will be spilt, and great misery will ensue.

Situation.

The West India Islands lie between Florida and the northern coast of South America; they extend from 10° to 28° N. lat. and from 59° 30′ to 85° W. long. Trinidad is at the southern extremity, Barbadoes at the eastern, Marinilla Reef at the northern, and Cuba at the western.

Soil and Productions.

The soil is in general very fertile. Sugar, coffee, and rum are

the chief objects of agricultural attention; the articles next in importance are cotton and indigo; and, after them, cacao, ginger, all-spice, arnotto, aloes, pimento, cloves, and cinnamon. Maize, yams, and sweet potatoes, are also extensively raised in the field for home consumption.

Climate.

Edwards divides the West Indian year into four seasons of very different length. The spring commences with the month of May, when the foliage becomes more vivid, and the savannahs look green again. The first periodical rains set in about the middle of the month: they come from the south, commonly fall every day about noon, and break up with thunder storms towards evening, creating a bright and beautiful verdure, and a rapid and luxuriant vegetation; they continue about a fortnight. The thermometer, in this month, averages 75°, and commonly falls six or eight immediately after every diurnal rain. Summer commences about the first of June; the weather becomes dry, settled, and salutary, and not a cloud is to be seen; the heat is insupportable in the morning till about ten, when the sea breeze sets in, and blows with great force and regularity from the south-east, till late in the evening. During its prevalence, the climate, in the shade, becomes tolerable. The medium heat is then 80°, and the mercury is seldom above 85° or below 75°. At this season the clearness and brilliancy of the heavens by night, and the serenity of the air, produce the most calm and delightful sensations. About the middle of August, the diurnal breeze begins to intermit, and the atmosphere becomes sultry and suffocating. During the remainder of the summer, which may be considered as lasting till the latter part of September, coolness and comfort are sought in vain; instead of a regular breeze from the sea, there are faint breezes and calms alternately, and the thermometer occasionally rises above 90°. The rains commence in the beginning of October; the heavens pour down cataracts, and the earth is deluged; these violent rains last through the greater part of November; the hurricane season comprises the months of August, September, and October. About the first of December, a considerable change is perceived in the temperature of the air; and a new season commences, which lasts till the end of April. At first the northern coasts are beaten by a rough and heavy sea, roaring with incessant noise; the wind varies from the east to the north-east, and north, sometimes driving before it, not only heavy rains, but hail; till at length the atmosphere is cleared, the weather becomes steadily serene and pleasant, and the temperature is cool and delightful; this lasts till the month of May, and is to the sick and the aged, the climate of paradise. In the large islands, showers occur on the mountains every month in the year.

[The aspect of the West Indies is in general abrupt and moun-

tainous; many of the summits are towering, and their declivities broken and precipitous. The sides of the mountains are often covered with wood, while their tops present masses of naked rocks. The height of the mountains, the various aspects of their declivities, the state of cultivation, and several other causes, render the preceding general view of the climate subject to various modifications. Persons accustomed only to the temperate climates of Europe cannot form any adequate idea of the deluges that take place, during the rainy seasons, in the West Indies. By a register kept at Barbadoes, the quantity of rain that fell in the course of a year was found to be 67 inches, while that in the vicinity of London is less than a third of that depth.]—EDIT.

Divisions.

These islands are divided into four principal groups as follows:

I. The Greater Antilles, viz., Cuba, Hispaniola, Jamaica, and Porto Rico.

II. The Bahamas or Lucayos Islands, consisting of all the islands lying north of Cuba and Hispaniola.

III. The Caribbee Islands, consisting of Tobago and all the islands north of it, till you come to Porto Rico. The Caribbee Islands are subdivided into, 1. the Leeward Islands, consisting of Dominica and all the islands north of it; 2. the Windward Islands, consisting of Martinico and all south of it. The five most western of the Leeward Islands, viz., St. Thomas, St. John, Santa Cruz, Tortola, Grenada, and Virgin Gorda, with their dependencies, are also called Virgin Islands.

IV. The Lesser Antilles, consisting of the islands lying along the coast of South America, viz., Trinidad, Margarita, Tortuga, Saluda, Orchilla, Buen Aire, Curaçoa, and Oruba.

Extent and Population.

The following table shows the extent and population of all the important islands, and the powers to which they respectively belong.

Islands.	*Sq. Miles.*	*Whites.*	*Mulat. & Blks.*	*Tot. Pop.*	*To whom belonging.*
Cuba	54,000	234,000	198,000	432,000	Spain.
Hispaniola	30,000	30,000	500,000	500,000	Partly to Spain. Partly independ.
Jamaica	6,400	30,000	330,000	360,000	Britain.
Porto Rico	4,140	80,000	20,000	100,000	Spain.
The Bahamas	5,500	3,923	11,396	14,318	Britain.
St. Thomas	40	550	4,500	5,050	Denmark.
St. John	40	180	2,250	2,430	Denmark.
Santa Cruz	100	2,223	29,164	31,387	Denmark.
Tortola	90			10,000	Britain.
Virgin Gorda	80	1,500	6,500	8,000	Britain.
Anguilla	30			800	Britain.
Carried forward	100,480	382,376	1,101,810	1,463,985	

	Sq. Miles.	*Whites.*	*Mulats. & Blks.*	*Total Pop.*	*To whom belonging.*
ward	100,420	382,376	1,101,810	1,463,985	
	90			6,100	Netherlands.
omew	60	4,000	4,000	8,000	Sweden.
	10			1,600	Netherlands.
	90			1,500	Britain.
us	22	5,000	15,000	20,000	Netherlands.
pher	70	4,000	21,000	25,000	Britain.
	20	1,000	10,000	11,000	Britain.
	93	2,102	33,637	35,739	Britain.
	78	1,000	9,750	10,750	Britain.
	675	12,747	102,092	114,839	France.
	25	300	600	900	France.
te	90	1,938	10,347	12,385	France.
	29	1,594	24,905	26,499	Britain.
	370	9,206	87,207	96,413	France.
	225	1,290	15,350	16,640	Britain.
t	131	1,450	22,500	24,000	Partly to Britain. Partly independ.
	166	16,289	65,650	81,939	Britain.
	109	771	30,591	31,362	Britain.
	140	900	15,583	16,483	Britain.
	1,700	2,261	24,984	28,477	Britain.
	354	5,500	6,500	14,000	Caraccas.
	600	1,200	7,300	8,500	Netherlands.
Total,	105,000	450,000	1,600,000	2,050,000	

ew of the aboriginal inhabitants are now to be found. In a there are about 2000; in Trinidad 1200; in St. Vin-; and a few more are scattered over the other Caribbee

Religion.

jority of the whites in these islands are Roman Catholics. , Hispaniola, and Porto Rico, they are nearly all of this ion, and a majority in all the islands settled by the ls and the French; in those settled by the Dutch, nd English, the Protestant religion is established. In lish islands, the Wesleyan Methodists have been em- or some time in instructing the slaves. In 1816, there missionaries of this denomination, and the number of mem- ong the slaves was 18,938. The Moravians had also, , 15 missionaries, and the Baptists three in the different [The Wesleyans have always] taken a large share in the labour of evangelizing the slaves in the West India colo- This great work has been carried on with the most laud- l ever since 1786; and such has been their success, that e report, it appears that in these Islands and Demerara persons were at that time members of their societies, egroes and people of colour. The number of missionaries d in this field exceeds 40, and that of the children under instruction in the Wesleyan schools was, at the same

time, at least 5000. The patient and indefatigable Moravians have also long been engaged in this noble and disinterested work, and their missionaries, according to a recent account, are nearly as numerous. The Baptists, and the Church Missionary Society, have likewise increased their exertions in this labour of love since the above date, but their principal efforts have been made in other quarters.]—EDIT.

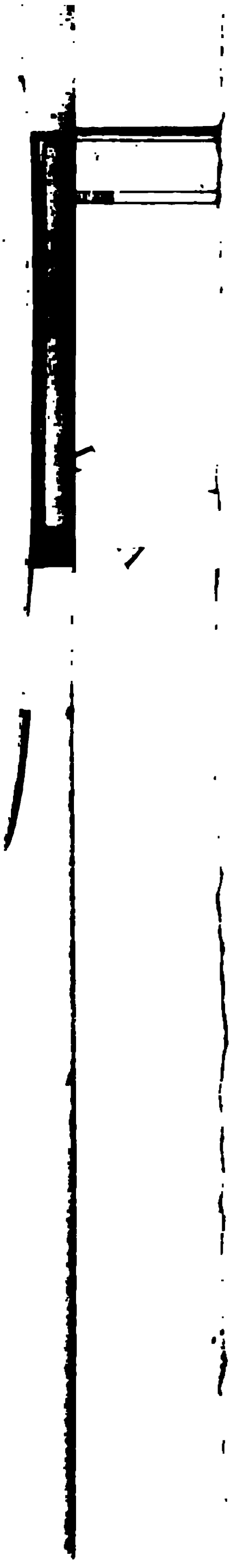
CUBA.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

CUBA is the largest and most western of the West India Islands. It lies between 19° 42′ and 23° 20′ N. lat. and between 74° 8′ and 85° W. long. It is 700 miles long, and in the widest part 150 broad; containing about 54,000 square miles. It is separated from the Bahama bank on the north-east by the Old Bahama channel, and from Hispaniola on the east by the Windward Channel. [As the whole population of this island is now stated at about 432,000, it gives 8 persons to each square mile, which is certainly a very small number for a district of such fertility as a great part of Cuba undoubtedly is; but as the Spaniards have always directed their attention to the acquisition of mineral wealth, rather than the increase of vegetable produce, thinness of population is one characteristic of their colonies.]—EDIT.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

A chain of mountains extends from east to west through the whole length of the island, dividing it into two parts. At the foot of these mountains the country opens into extensive meadows. The soil is of great fertility, and the fields are always covered with flowers and odoriferous plants. Sugar is the principal production, and the quantity exported from 1801 to 1810, amounted on an average to 644,000 cwt. per annum. Coffee began to be planted in Cuba after the destruction of the coffee plantations in St. Domingo; and in 1803 it produced about 12,000 quintals, or eighteen million pounds. Tobacco grows to great perfection; it is exported to Europe in leaf, snuff, and cigars, and is held superior to the tobacco of other parts of the world. Honey and wax also are among the exports. Numerous herds of cattle feed on the extensive meadows, and are hunted chiefly for their skins, 10 or 12,000 of which are annually exported. Considerable



A this channel is secured by two sliding cleats, as seen in

quantities of gold were formerly procured in the beds of the small rivers, which rush down impetuously from the sides of the mountains, and they still yield small supplies of this metal. There are some very abundant mines of copper and loadstone, and a mine has been discovered which yields iron of an excellent quality. Medicinal springs are numerous, and there are several productive salt-ponds. [The general aspect of Cuba presents great variety, and the climate is hot and dry during the greater part of the year. Rain often descends in torrents from July to September, and occasional showers fall for a month or two before and after that period. In December and January the air is much cooled by the north winds. Winter, however, is altogether unknown; as the ground preserves its flowers and odoriferous plants, and the trees their foliage.]—EDIT.

Capes and Bays.

The most noted capes are Cape San Antonio, at the western extremity of the island; Cape Maize in the east; and Cape Cruz in the south. The largest bay is that of Bayamo, on the south side of the island. Xagua Bay on the same side, but farther to the north-west, is one of the best in the West Indies. Honda Bay is on the north side of the island, 70 miles west of the Havannah.

Island.

Pinos island lies off the south coast, near the west end of the island, being separated by a channel about 20 miles wide. It is about 70 miles in circumference, is mountainous and covered with pines, and inhabited only by a few fishermen.

Population.

In 1774 the population amounted only to 171,628, including 44,328 slaves, and 5 or 6000 free negroes. In 1804 there were 234,000 whites, 90,000 free blacks, and 108,000 slaves; in all 432,000. The number of negroes imported into Cuba from 1789 to 1803, was more than 76,000; and during the last four years of that period they amounted to 34,500, or to above 8600 annually.

Chief Towns.

Havannah, the largest town, is on the north side of the island, about eighty leagues from Cape San Antonio. Its harbour is one of the best in the world, being deep enough for vessels of the largest class; sufficiently capacious to receive a thousand ships of war; and so safe, that vessels ride securely without cable or anchor. The entrance is by a channel half a mile long, so narrow that only a single vessel can enter at once, and fortified through the whole distance with platforms, works, and artillery. The mouth of this channel is secured by two strong castles, as seen in

the annexed plate: one on the east side, called the Moro Fort, built in the form of a triangle, fortified with bastions, and mounted with 40 pieces of cannon, almost level with the water. On the opposite side of the channel lies another strong fort, called the Puntal, joining to the town, which is situated to the westward of the entrance of the harbour, and is surrounded by ramparts, bastions, and ditches. Besides these fortifications, the city is surmounted with works, all of them furnished with artillery even to profusion. A square citadel is erected near the centre of the town, called El Fuerte: this work has also heavy cannon, and here the treasures of the government are deposited. The shape of the town is semicircular, the diameter being formed by the shore. It contains 11 churches, all richly ornamented, several monasteries and convents, 2 hospitals, and numerous other public buildings. The commerce of the town is more extensive than that of any other in Spanish America. The population is estimated at 70,000 *.

St. Jago de Cuba, on the south side of the island, near the eastern extremity, has a good harbour defended by a castle. It was formerly the capital of the island, but has now fallen into decay, and the commerce and government have been transferred to the Havannah. Population between 30 and 40,000.

St. Salvador, or Bayamo, is on a river which falls into a large bay of the same name on the south coast. It contains 12,000 inhabitants.

Villa del Principe, the seat of a royal audience, is situated 80 miles north-west of St. Salvador.

San Carlos de Matanzas, about 20 leagues east of the Havannah, has a good port and 7000 inhabitants.

Religion.

The religion is Roman Catholic. There are two bishoprics, one comprehending the eastern, the other the western, half of the island.

Political Importance.

The Spanish government has laid it down as a principle, that the dominion of the island of Cuba is essential to the preservation of New Spain. There being no harbour on the whole eastern coast of New Spain, that country is in a military dependence on the Havannah, which is the only neighbouring port capable of receiving squadrons. Accordingly, enormous sums have been expended in strengthening and increasing its fortifications.

* The population of Havannah appears to be over-rated in the text; as some of the most recent estimates with which we are acquainted make the inhabitants only about 25,000. A similar remark applies to St. Jago.—Edit.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

The island of Cuba was discovered by Columbus in the year 1492, and from its great extent was at first considered a part of the continent. Columbus, intent upon other discoveries, left the investigation of this point to future navigators, and died without having ascertained the fact. About the year 1508, one Sebastian, by the orders of Nicholas Ovando, sailed round the island, and thereby proved the incorrectness of previous suppositions. Three years after this, Don Jago de Velasquez sailed from Hispaniola, from which Cuba is divided only by a narrow channel, to make a conquest of the latter. He had under his command four ships, on board of which were 300 men. They landed on the south part of the island near a port, which, after his patron saint, he called St. Jago, and which contains one of the finest harbours in the world. The natives, under the command of a chief named Hatuey, who had fled from the cruelty of the Spaniards in Hispaniola, attempted in vain to oppose the progress of the invaders. The mere sound of their musquetry and cannon was sufficient to disperse the terrified savages. Hatuey, their leader, was taken prisoner, and condemned to be burned alive. The sentence was immediately executed, after he had indignantly rejected the offer of baptism. Velasquez found no more enemies to oppose him: all the caciques hastened to render him homage. After the mines had been opened, and it was found that there was little to be expected from them, the inhabitants of Cuba being useless to their conquerors, were gradually exterminated. The conquest of this valuable island did not cost the Spaniards a single man, but it left a dark stain upon their humanity.

It was not long after Cuba was discovered to be an island, that Ponce de Leon, who, in 1512, had made an attempt to ravage the Florida shores, became acquainted with the Bahama channel. The discovery of this passage, which lies to the north-west of Cuba, immediately led the Spaniards to conclude that the advantageous route with which this would furnish them, would facilitate their expeditions to Mexico, and afford them shelter in case of disaster. To confirm them in this opinion, a safe and capacious harbour presented itself in the north-west part of the island, in which their ships might find refuge. This harbour, which is now known by the name of the Havannah, soon became a rendezvous for the vessels employed in the traffic with Carthagena and Porto Bello, and thus the city of Havannah was founded. In 1536 it was taken by a French pirate, but ransomed for 700 dollars; it was afterwards taken by the English and by the French, and again by the buccaneers. In 1561, the number of its inhabitants amounted to 300 families; at the beginning of the 16th century they were nearly doubled; and towards the middle of the 17th, they consisted of 10,000 souls.

More than two centuries elapsed from the conquest of Cuba by Velasquez, before any other memorable transaction occurred. During this period, the number of Spaniards settled upon it gradually increased; but, as they were chiefly employed in trafficking with vessels bound to, and returning from, ports on the continent, agriculture was little attended to. In the year 1741, the English admiral, Vernon, after having been disgracefully defeated at Carthagena, directed his efforts against the island of Cuba. He set sail from Jamaica, with his forces in July, and anchored in the south-east part of Cuba, in a bay on which he bestowed the appellation of Cumberland Harbour. The troops were landed and encamped at the distance of 20 miles farther up the river, where they remained totally inactive, and subsisted chiefly on salt and damaged provisions until the month of November; when, being considerably diminished by sickness, they were put on board again and re-conveyed to Jamaica. Soon afterwards, a reinforcement of four ships of war, and about 3000 soldiers, arrived from England, but no offensive operations were undertaken. Such was the issue of this ill-contrived expedition. Notwithstanding its failure, the British government did not abandon the project of getting possession of Cuba, from the conquest of which incalculable riches were expected to flow. In 1762, previous to any rupture with Spain, one of the most formidable expeditions that ever sailed from England was fitted out for this purpose. It consisted, after its junction with a force which had been previously serving in the West Indies, of 19 ships of the line, 18 smaller vessels of war, and 150 transports, on board of which were 12,000 troops. These were reinforced, after they entered into actual service, by 4000 men from North America. The armament arrived off the harbour on the 6th of June. In the mean time, war had been declared, a fact of which the Spanish commander is said to have been aware. He seems, however, to have been taken completely by surprise. Several sail of the line were in the harbour; but they were unfit for action, the cannon of the fortifications were without suitable ball, and there were few muskets in the garrison fit for use. The harbour was nevertheless very strongly fortified. On a projecting point of land, to the east of the channel, stood the Moro, a very strong fort, having two bastions toward the sea; and two more on the land side, with a wide and deep ditch cut out of the rock. The opposite point to the westward was secured by another fort called the Puntal, which was also surrounded by a ditch cut out in the same manner, and was every way well calculated for co-operating with the Moro in the defence of the harbour. It had likewise some batteries that opened upon the country, and flanked part of the town wall. But this wall, and the fortifications of the city itself, were not in a good condition. The wall and the bastions wanted repair: the ditch was dry and of no considerable width, and the covered way was almost in ruins. The British commander hastened to take advantage of

the supineness of the Spaniards. While a portion of the fleet steered towards the western part of the island, for the purpose of distracting the attention of their enemy, the main body of his forces was landed without encountering opposition on the eastern shore. On the 1st of July, the besiegers opened two batteries of heavy cannon against the Moro, while a cannonade was at the same time begun by the vessels of the line. The Spaniards were now roused from their inactivity by finding danger so near their gates, and made use of every exertion that time and circumstances placed within their power, to defend their city. Undismayed by the overwhelming superiority of their assailants, they maintained the defence with the most heroic bravery and constancy. Three sail of the line were sunk in the mouth of the harbour, so as entirely to block up the channel. The fire which the besiegers directed against the Moro, was returned with so much effect, that the British were obliged to withdraw their vessels out of the reach of the cannon to save them from entire destruction. About the 20th of July, a large reinforcement arrived from North America to the assistance of the British, and soon afterwards, the continued fire of the besiegers began to make an impression on the fort. On the 30th, two mines were sprung with such effect, that a practicable breach was made in the bastion. An assault was then made, which, notwithstanding the resolute defence of the garrison, was attended with success. The city, however, held out until the 13th of August; when it was compelled to capitulate, after a defence which reflected the highest honour upon the inhabitants. The plunder obtained by the British was immense. Upwards of 3,000,000 sterling in silver and valuable merchandise fell into their hands, besides a vast quantity of military stores: together with the town, nine ships of the line, and four frigates were taken.

Notwithstanding the high opinion conceived by the British of the value of Cuba, it was restored to Spain by the treaty of 1763, in exchange for the Floridas. Since that period, it has remained a Spanish island. Sensible of the importance of Havannah, and profiting by former experience, the Spanish government has not only repaired its former fortifications, but added new ones, which have nearly rendered the town and harbour inaccessible to all attacks.

The commotions which arose in the Spanish dominions on the continent of America, after the occupation of Spain by the French, were felt only in a slight degree in Cuba, which has, throughout, adhered to the royal cause.

Places remarkable for Battles, and Sieges.

1762, Havannah. Taken by the British after a determined resistance of two months. August 13.

BAHAMA ISLANDS.

Situation, and Extent.

THE Bahama Islands lie directly north of the Greater A and are separated from Cuba by the Old Bahama Chann from Florida by the New Bahama Channel, or Gulf of F They lie between lat. 21° and 28° north, and between lo and 79° 30′ west.

Banks and Keys.

There are two noted banks in these seas; the Great and Bahama Banks. The Great Bahama Bank lies between l and 26° north, and between long. 74° 50′ and 80° 20′ wes length from Verde Key, in the south-east, to Isaac's Key, north-west, is 450 miles. Its breadth in the south is abo miles. A little north of the tropic it is divided by an arm o water, called Providence Bay. The branch of the bank nor of this bay, reaches from the head of it, about 90 miles, t Providence, its north-west termination, and is everywhere 40 miles wide. The west branch extends from the head bay 250 miles north-west, to Isaac's Key. Its least breadt miles, and its greatest, from the Biminis to Berry Island Providence Bay is 100 miles long from south-east to nort and about 30 broad, opening on the north-west side of Ne vidence into the north-east channel. The Old Bahama C separates this bank from Cuba, and the New Bahama C from Florida; the north-west channel on the north divides the Little Bank; Rock Sound and Exuma Sound on the east, separate it from Eleuthera and Guanahani. Little B bounded by the New Bahama Channel on the west; by the west channel on the south; by the north-east channel south-east, and the Atlantic Ocean on the north-east. Its from the Hole-in-the-Wall in the south-east, to Maranilla I the north-west, is about 180 miles. The depth of water Great Bank varies from one to seven fathoms; on the Litt from three to 12.

The Keys are rocks or Sand Islands scattered in gre fusion over this part of the ocean. Their number has bee puted at 700. The larger and more remarkable have n

appropriate names; the rest are known only by the generic name of Keys.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

These islands are heaps of limestone and shells, covered with vegetable mould. The Keys are chiefly rocky and sandy; on some of them a few trees are found. All the large islands that front directly upon the Atlantic, stretch from south-east to north-west, and the ridge of each is in the same direction. The soil of all the islands is a thin but rich vegetable mould. It yields for a few years luxuriantly, but is soon exhausted. The chief production is cotton. [In most of the Bahama Islands the thermometer ranges, in summer, from 80° to 90°, and in winter from 60° to 65°. The southern islands also enjoy the refreshing influence of the trade wind during the greater part of the year, which frequently renders the climate delightful.]—EDIT.

Navigation.

Owing to the immense number of sand banks, rocks, and breakers everywhere dispersed over these seas, the navigation is extremely unsafe, and thousands of vessels have been wrecked here. Vessels bound to New Orleans from the United States, first make for the Hole-in-the-Wall, the southern point of Abaco. Proceeding through the north-east channel, they enter on the Great Bank south of Berry Islands, and leave it south of the Cat Keys, whence they make for the Havannah. Those bound to Jamaica pass to the leeward of Crooked Island, between it and the Great Bank, and leaving the Inaguas on the left, make for the windward channel between Cuba and Hispaniola.

Population.

In 1773, the population consisted of 2052 whites, and 2241 blacks; in all 4293. In 1803, there were 15,319, of whom 3923 were whites, and 11,396 blacks. [The population of these islands seems not to have increased very rapidly of late years; for, according to the most recent accounts, it does not now exceed 16,600. Nassau, which is situated in New Providence, is justly considered as the metropolis of the whole group; for it is at once the seat of government, the emporium of commerce, and the resort of fashion. As the town is built on an acclivity, and rises from the edge of the water nearly to the summit of the ridge, its appearance from the mouth of the harbour is pleasing. As it is the chief mart of these islands, so it has become the residence of the most wealthy planters. Its trade is principally carried on with England, the Southern West Indian Islands, and North America.]—EDIT.

The inhabitants of these islands are of two descriptions, the residents and the wreckers. The residents are chiefly loyalists, and their descendants who emigrated from Carolina and Georgia at the close of the American war: the wreckers are constantly employed

in the business of rescuing shipwrecked vessels with their crews and cargoes from the waves. They sail in small flat-bottomed sloops, just fitted for the seas which they navigate. They are excellent sailors, are familiar with all the keys, shoals, and breakers; and with alacrity and courage encounter any danger or hardship. They are licensed by the governor, and receive salvage on all property rescued from the waves. By day they are always cruising; at night they usually put into the nearest harbour. Their great places of rendezvous are the Florida Gulf, the Hole-in-the-Wall, and the Hogsties. The number of these vessels is very great, forty sail being sometimes seen in one inlet.

Islands.

Besides the keys already mentioned, the Bahamas consist of fourteen islands, or groups of islands. The following are their names, arranged in geographical order, beginning in the south-east:—1. Turk's Islands; 2. The Caicos Islands; 3. The Inaguas; 4. Mariguana; 5. Crooked Island Group; 6. Long Island; 7. Exuma; 8. Watling's Island; 9. Guanahani, or St. Salvador; 10. Eleuthera and Harbour Islands; 11. New Providence; 12. Andrea; 13. Abaco; 14. Great Bahama.—Turk's Islands are famous for their salt-ponds, which in some years have yielded more than 30,000 tons of salt for exportation. Guanahani, called by Columbus St. Salvador, and by the English sailors Cat Island, is celebrated as the spot where Columbus first landed in the new world.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

THE first discovery of these islands was made by Columbus on the 12th of October, 1492, when he fell in with Guanahani. New Providence, the principal island of the group, was discovered on the 17th of the same month. In 1667, Charles II., of England, granted all the Bahamas to the Duke of Albemarle and the other proprietors of Carolina. Five years after this grant, the first settlement was made on New Providence. For many years, the inhabitants suffered severely from the depredations of pirates and of their Spanish neighbours. The celebrated Black Beard, or John Tench, was the leader of the buccaneers. He was killed off the coast of North Carolina in November, 1718. The islands were soon afterwards abandoned by the pirates, and a permanent settlement made at Nassau, in New Providence, under Governor Rogers. The town was fortified in 1740. Early in the American war, it was taken by the Americans, but speedily abandoned. The Spaniards took it again in 1781, but the English soon re-possessed themselves of it. Since that period, all the islands have continued under their jurisdiction.

JAMAICA.

Situation and Extent.

JAMAICA lies about thirty leagues south of Cuba, and the same tance west of St. Domingo, between 17° 45′, and 18° 34′ N. lat., l between 76° 3′ and 78° 33′ W. long. It is of an oval form, out 150 miles long, and, on an average, 40 broad, containing 6400 uare miles, or 4,080,000 acres.—[By comparing this area with number of inhabitants, given under the head of Population, shall obtain about 56 individuals for each square mile of surface. t as a great part of it is altogether incapable of cultivation, a ch better idea of the comparative density of the inhabitants l be acquired by dividing their number 360,000 by the uare miles in that part of the island which has been actually nted to individuals. This is about 2,000,000 acres, or 3125 uare miles; and, consequently, the number of persons upon the tivated part, on an average, is about 115.]—EDIT.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

A range of lofty mountains, called the Blue Mountains, runs ough the whole island from east to west, and rises in some of most elevated peaks to the height of more than 7000 feet above level of the sea. The aspect of the country on the opposite es of this range is widely different. On the north side of the nd, the land rises from the shore into hills and swells, which remarkable for their beauty, being all of gentle acclivity, and nmonly separated from each other by spacious vales and uantic rivulets. In proceeding towards the interior, the land comes more elevated, and is clothed with almost boundless ests; and in the centre of the island it rises into lofty moun- ns, whose heads are lost in the clouds. [The north peak of the ue Mountains has lately been estimated at 8,180 feet above the el of the sea.]—EDIT.

The southern front of the main ridge of the Blue Moun- ns is generally rough and craggy; but, in the descent on south side, there are several lower ridges running parallel h the principal one, the summits of which are more round l smooth; and, at the foot of the lowest ridge, lie vast plains savannahs, bounded only by the ocean, and displaying all pride of the richest cultivation. A large portion of the in this island is unfit for cultivation. Out of 4,080,000 acres ich the island contains, only about 2,000,000 have been granted

to individuals by patent from the crown, and even all these are not improved. In 1791, the lands in cultivation were distributed nearly as follows:

767 sugar plantations, averaging 900 acres each	690,000
1000 breeding and grazing farms, at 700 each .	700,000
Plantations of cotton, coffee, pimento, ginger, &c.	350,000
	1,740,000

Edwards supposes that the remaining acres, amounting to 2,340,000, are chiefly unfit for cultivation, not on account of the barrenness of the soil, but principally on account of its mountainous situation. Indeed, almost all the waste-land is covered by a rich, strong growth of timber. The land actually cultivated has a deep and very fertile soil. There are various places, particularly on the north side of the central ridge, where the soil is red, or varying from that colour to a deep chocolate. In a few it is of a bright yellow, and specimens have been selected that scarcely differed in appearance from gamboge. When this earth is first turned up, it is distinguished by its bright shining surface, and if wet it will stain the fingers like paint. It is one of the richest soils, and produces the best sugar, on the island, and is easily worked, though very retentive of water. Another species, usually called brick-mould, is a fertile hazel-coloured earth, composed of a mixture of sand and clay. Though, from its lightness, its surface soon dries, its substratum is retentive of moisture, which causes it to produce a luxuriant vegetation. There is also another species of soil, in several parts of the island, which possesses great fertility. It abounds with lime-stone and flint, and rests upon a bed of marl. Black soil is likewise found in some places; but it is generally thin, and less productive than any of the preceding kinds.]—EDIT.

Sugar, indigo, cotton, and coffee, are the most important natural productions of Jamaica. There are also various other vegetables cultivated in the island, such as maize, or Indian corn, which commonly produces two crops in the year, and sometimes three; Guinea corn; various kinds of calavances; a species of pea, which affords food for the negroes; and, lastly, rice,—but in no great quantity, the situation proper for its growth being deemed unhealthy. The bread-fruit tree, with several other useful plants, has been introduced by the exertions of Sir Joseph Banks. The island also abounds with different kinds of grass, of excellent quality. These are partly indigenous, and have been partly introduced from other countries. Of the native grass hay is made, but not in great abundance; and, in place of it, there are two kinds of artificial grass, both extremely valuable, and yielding great profusion of food for cattle. The several kinds of kitchen-garden produce, namely, those edible roots and pulse, which are in use

throughout Europe, thrive well in the mountainous parts. There are also excellent vegetables of native growth, which are deemed fully equal to those of Europe, such as the chocho, ochra, Lima bean, and Indian kale. The other indigenous productions are plantains, bananas, yams of several varieties, calalue, a species of spinage, eddoes, cassavi, and sweet potatoes. Fruits are found in equal perfection and variety, and no country affords so magnificent a dessert. The mountains are generally covered with extensive woods, containing excellent timbers, some of which are of prodigious growth and solidity, such as the lignum vitæ, dog-wood, iron-wood, pigeon-wood, green-heart, brazilletto, and bully-tree. These are of great specific gravity and hardness, and they mostly sink in water. Many of these trees rise to a prodigious height, as the papaw and the palmeto royal, the latter of which is frequently found 140 feet high; the trunks of the ceiba, or wild cotton-tree, and the fig-tree also, often measure 90 feet from the base to the branches. Of other sorts of wood for boards and shingles the species are innumerable; and there are many beautiful varieties adapted for cabinet-work, among others the bread-nut, the wild-lemon, and the mahogany.

The island is well watered. There are about 100 rivers, which take their rise in the mountains, and run commonly with great rapidity to the sea on both sides of the island. None of them are navigable except for boats. Black River, which empties itself in the south-west part of the island, about 20 miles west of Pedro Bluff, is the deepest and largest. It is navigable for flat-bottomed boats and canoes about 30 miles.

Climate.

The climate of the coast is hot and sultry. This is particularly true of the plains on the southern coast, where the average temperature from June to November, inclusive, is 80°, and but little cooler in the other six months. In December and January, however, the night air is sometimes very cold; and, in the town of Kingston, Edwards mentions that he has seen the thermometer as low as 69° before sun-rise; but, in the hottest months, the difference between the temperature of noon-day and midnight is not more than five or six degrees. In the highlands, about eight miles distant from Kingston, the thermometer seldom rises above 70°, and about six miles farther, at the height of 4200 feet above the level of the sea, it averages from 55° to 65°. The year, as in other tropical countries, may be divided between the wet and the dry seasons. The short wet season commences in April and May, and lasts for six weeks: this is followed by the dry and hot months of June, July, and August. September, October, and November are rainy; and it is in this season also that the island is liable to the dreadful scourge of the hurricanes. In December, January, February, and March, the weather is serene and delightful.

Civil Divisions and Population.

The island is divided as follows :

Counties.	*Towns.*	*Parishes.*	*Villages.*
Cornwall	3	5	6
Middlesex	1	8	13
Surry	2	7	8
Total	6	20	27

The population of Jamaica, in 1746, was 112,428 slaves, and about 10,000 whites. In 1812, according to an official return, there were 319,912 slaves, and the number of whites and free people of colour was estimated at 40,000, making a total of nearly 360,000.

Chief Towns.

Spanishtown, or St. Jago de la Vega, the capital of the island, stands on the river Cobre, six miles from its entrance into Kingston harbour. Population about 5000.

Kingston is on the south coast of the island, 13 miles east by south of Spanishtown, on the north side of a beautiful harbour, in which vessels of the largest burden may anchor in safety. It was founded in 1693, after the destruction of Port Royal by an earthquake in the preceding year. It is built on a plain, which commences on the shore, and rises with a gradual ascent to the foot of the Liguanea Mountains, a distance of about six miles. The plain is covered with the country residences of the principal inhabitants, and with sugar estates. The population of the town is 33,000, of which number 10,000 are whites, 18,000 slaves, 2500 people of colour, and 2500 negroes.

Port Royal stands at the extremity of the long and narrow peninsula which bounds Kingston harbour on the south, about 10 miles south-west of the town of Kingston. It has an excellent harbour, in which one thousand ships could anchor with convenience. It once contained 2000 houses, but in June, 1692, a dreadful earthquake overwhelmed the town, and buried nine-tenths of it eight fathoms under water. It was, however, rebuilt; but about ten years afterwards it was laid in ashes by a terrible fire; and, in 1722, one of the most dreadful hurricanes ever known reduced it a third time to a heap of rubbish. Though once a place of the greatest wealth and importance in the West Indies, it is now reduced to three streets, a few lanes, and about 200 houses. It still contains, however, the royal navy-yard, the navy-hospital, and barracks for a regiment of soldiers. The fortifications are remarkably strong, and are kept in excellent order.

Montego Bay, in the north-west part of the island, is a flourishing commercial town, with about 230 houses. In 1795, it was almost destroyed by an earthquake. Savannah la Mar, in the

south-west, has good anchorage for large vessels. It was almost destroyed by a dreadful hurricane and inundation of the sea in 1780. It is now rebuilt, and may contain from 60 to 70 houses. Falmouth is a flourishing town on the north coast, about 20 miles east of Montego Bay.

Commerce.

The most important exports are sugar, rum, molasses, and coffee; and next to these cocoa, cotton, indigo, pimento, and ginger. The amount of sugar exported has gradually inareased from 11,000 hhds. in 1742, to 140,000 in 1802. In 1791, the coffee exported amounted to about 600,000 lbs.; in 1804, it had increased to 22,000,000 lbs.; and, in 1807, to 28,500,000lbs. The whole value of the exports in 1744, was 600,000*l.*; in 1810, 2,303,179*l.* The value of the imports in 1810 was 4,303,337*l.*

Religion.

The bishop of London claims this and the other British West India islands as a part of his diocese; but his jurisdiction is renounced by the laws of Jamaica. The governor, as head of the provincial church, inducts into the various rectories. The 20 parishes contain 18 churches and chapels. The United Brethren, the Baptists, and the Methodists, employ Missionaries here, principally among the negroes.

Government.

The legislature of Jamaica is composed of the governor, a council nominated by the crown, consisting of 12 gentlemen, and a house of assembly, containing 43 members, who are elected by the freeholders. [The qualification for an elector in choosing the members of the general assembly is a freehold of 10*l.* a year, in the parish where the election takes place; and for a representative, landed property to the amount of 300*l.* per annum, or a personal estate of 3,000*l.* in any part of the island.]—EDIT.

A bill becomes a law as soon as the governor's assent is obtained; but if the royal disapprobation is afterwards officially signified, it ceases to be valid.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

JAMAICA was discovered by Columbus, on the 3d of May, 1494, in his second expedition to the New World; but it was not until his fourth and last voyage, that any information of the nature of the country was gained. In June, 1503, being on his return from Veragua to Hispaniola, he was driven by tempestuous weather upon this island, where he remained upwards of twelve

months, having lost his vessels, and suffered every variety of h ship. After the death of this illustrious man, his son, Di obtained from the council of the Indies a recognition of his ri as hereditary viceroy of the countries and islands discovere his father; and, for the purpose of supporting his claims, out, in 1509, to Jamaica, Juan de Esquivel, a man whose n should never be mentioned without the praises due to gener and humanity. In an age in which these virtues were rarely posed to be necessary ingredients in the system of polic wards the natives of America, he had the merit of conciliz them by his kindness; and the prosperity of the island, unde administration, proves the wisdom, as well as the moral propr of this system. His successors, however, appear to have ado the cruel policy of other governors of that period. The his of the epoch succeeding the government of Esquivel, and ceding that of the conquest of the island by the English, in middle of the 17th century, is involved in obscurity. It is kn however, that the Spaniards, both governors and subjects, e cised towards the unhappy natives of Jamaica the same merci severity that was pursued in Hispaniola and on the continent, that signal vengeance was taken on one occasion, in the total struction of a flourishing settlement at Savilla Nueva, the r of which still attest its importance. So entire was the exte nation of the Indians of Jamaica, that of a population of s thousand persons living at the discovery of Columbus, not a s gle descendant was alive little more than a century and a h afterwards. In 1596, an English party, under Sir Anth Shirley, invaded the island, and, meeting with little resista took the capital, and delivered it up to pillage. Forty years af wards, it was again invaded by a force from the Windward lands, under Colonel Jackson. The inhabitants fought with gr gallantry in a pitched battle at Passagefort; but the British, h ing regular troops, obtained the advantage, and entered St. Ja de la Vega, now Spanish town, sword in hand. Here they newed the scene of pillage and rapine, sparing nothing that co gratify their avarice and ferocity; and, having plundered the to of every thing valuable, they carried off the booty in their ship

Jamaica was finally conquered by the English during the ministration of Oliver Cromwell. An armament had been fit out for the conquest of Hispaniola, but the fleet was ba equipped, and, the commanders being at variance, the atte proved abortive. Fearing, however, to return to England with effecting some enterprise, they resolved to make an attempt Jamaica, before the inhabitants could receive information of t defeat in Hispaniola. The whole number of whites at this t in Jamaica, did not exceed 1500, and the number of negroes about the same. The whites are represented by the English destitute of the luxuries and refinements of life, and but a h

emoved in character beyond the natives whom they had extermiated. The truth of this representation may be doubted. It was atural for the English to depreciate the character of the Spaiards, as their own detestable cruelty to this unfortunate people ould thus appear less strongly in relief. They obtained possesion of the island by their superior strength, and followed up their dvantage with a barbarity but too common in the history of nglish victories. They required the settlers to deliver up their laves and effects, and to quit the island for ever. It was in vain hat these remonstrated, and urged the ties by which they were ound to the soil, and the cruelty of reducing them to beg in a oreign land. The conquerors were inexorable, and employed rce to effect their object. The Spanish inhabitants, rendered esperate by oppression, made a manly resistance, and for a long me the English were harassed by their vindictive incursions.

The aim of Cromwell was not merely conquest, but the eslishment of an English colony in Jamaica, and he accordingly ncouraged emigration, both from Great Britain and the other olonies in the West Indies. Two or three thousand persons ere engaged by Henry Cromwell in Ireland, and a considerable umber embarked from Scotland for this purpose. In the mean me, the soldiers, who had been left in the island after the conuest, became dissatisfied with their situation. They imagined was the intention of the government to confine them to Jamaica r life; and, possessed with a strong desire to return home, they ecame mutinous. Other causes excited discontent. With the nprovidence usual to the military, they had destroyed or conumed the cattle of the country, and refused to apply themselves the cultivation of the soil. A scarcity approaching to famine as at length the consequence of such misconduct, and it was peedily accompanied by its usual attendants, disease and contaion. Cromwell, as soon as he heard of the state of the island, xerted himself with his usual vigour to afford it relief. Provisions and necessaries of all kinds were shipped without delay, nd, in the hands of Governor D'Oyley, the government was adinistered with energy.

The Spaniards who had seen the capture of the island with reat mortification, determined upon attempting to repossess it, nd its recapture became an object of great national concern. On the 8th of May, 1658, a considerable force landed on the orth end of the island, furnished with every means of offence nd defence. Twelve days elapsed before D'Oyley knew of their nding, and six weeks intervened before he was able to approach hem by sea. He then attacked them in their entrenchments, and ompelled the Spanish commander to re-embark with great loss, he British also suffering severely. After this event, the affairs of Jamaica wore a promising aspect under the prudent administraion of D'Oyley. Great vigour was also given about this time

to the settlement by its becoming the resort of the bucca who spent their immense gains in characteristic extravagan enriched the inhabitants with their treasure.

After the restoration of Charles II. Jamaica became a of refuge for many republicans who had distinguished then in the civil contest. One of the first measures of the m argued well for the liberties of his West Indian subjects continued D'Oyley in office, and authorized the electio council and assembly of representatives by the people. which was the first establishment of a regular civil gover the island having been previously governed by martial law place in 1661. The assembly was authorized to pass necessary for the internal regulation of the island, provi dependence on the parent state was secured. This liber tem, however, did not long continue. A new plan was su by the English government, in 1678, by which a perpetual r was to be given to the crown, and the right of proposin was to be vested in the governor and council, subject to the of the king, the assembly having no other functions than of adopting or refusing the proposed laws, and voting the supplies. The assembly, however, rejected the new const with indignation. Neither threats nor bribes could induce to consent to the scheme; and the English ministry, find impracticable, reluctantly abandoned the measure. Fresh tests nevertheless arose in consequence of the wish of th narch to obtain a permanent revenue, and of the determina the assembly to refuse it. The assent of the former was n to most of the acts of the assembly, which were necessa the internal government of the island; and thus, from disap ment in not being able to effect an arbitrary measure, the country involved the colony in great mischief and confusion this unsettled state the affairs of Jamaica remained for the of fifty years. At length, in 1728, a compromise was eff The assembly consented to settle on the crown a standing re of 8000*l.* per annum, on certain conditions, of which the fo ing are the principal: (1) That the quit rents, arising with island, should form part of the revenue. (2) That the b their laws should receive the royal assent, and (3) That al laws and statutes of England, as had been esteemed laws island, should continue such.

The most important event in the recent history of Jama the final overthrow and exile of that formidable band of fu negroes, who, under the name of Maroons, had formed an pendent and hostile community in the island, for the greate of a century. On the conquest of the island from the Spa a multitude of African slaves fled to the mountains beyon reach of the invaders, and maintained themselves in thes nesses in spite of all their efforts. Their numbers wer

tinually increased by the accession of deserting slaves, and a harassing conflict was kept up with the whites, in which the latter were the principal sufferers. In 1738, an accommodation was effected, and a species of independence guaranteed to these hardy outlaws, and, had the counsels of the government been directed by humanity, they might, in process of time, have been rendered useful citizens. The pacification, however, was little more than nominal. Each party regarded the other with suspicion and dislike. At length, in 1795, open hostilities broke out. The force of the British was too great to permit the Maroons to make any advances into the country, and the strong holds of the latter in the mountains were inaccessible to their enemies. Their activity and skill in the peculiar mode of warfare to which they were accustomed, rendered them an overmatch for the great force brought against them, while their patient and heroic endurance of sufferings and privations defeated the attempts that were made to subdue them by famine. In this state of things, the British resorted to a measure the most savage that human cruelty has ever devised for the accomplishment of its ends. This was the use of blood-hounds, one hundred of which were imported from Cuba, and, under the direction of experienced huntsmen, were let loose upon the mountaineers, not to trace them to their haunts, but to seize, and tear, and devour the unhappy fugitives. Thus hunted down like wild beasts, and hemmed in by a force too powerful to be overcome, they had no alternative but submission. Relying on the terms of a proclamation issued by the government, which promised them their lives and a continuance in the island, they surrendered themselves and their families into the power of their enemies. After the surrender, the government refused to perform the stipulations of its engagement. The expulsion of this brave and unhappy race was determined upon, and finally carried into effect. About six hundred were transported to the cold and bleak shores of Nova Scotia, where many of them perished miserably. Peace was thus restored to Jamaica, but with a violation of honour and humanity such as it is to be hoped mankind may never again witness.

HISPANIOLA, or ST. DOMINGO.

Situation and Extent.

HISPANIOLA is situated between the islands of Jamaica and Cuba, on the west, and Porto Rico on the east, and extends from 17° 54′, to 20° N. lat., and from 68° 26′, to 74° 21′ W. long. It is about 290 miles long from east to west, about 160 in breadth, and contains about 30,000 square miles. [No recent enumeration of the inhabitants of this island has taken place, but there can be little doubt that the population is now considerably less than it was before the French revolution. In a country, however, which possesses every variety of surface and soil that can impart beauty to scenery, or give luxuriance to vegetation, nothing is wanting but repose and industry to raise the number to a much higher pitch than it has ever yet attained. No other proof of this can be necessary, than that afforded by its comparative population at the period of its greatest prosperity. The number of inhabitants assigned to that period in a following section is 687,471, which, divided by 30,000, gives about 23 persons for each square mile, very little more than a *tenth* of the number at present in England.]—EDIT.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

An elevated chain of mountains, called the Cibao Mountains, commences near Cape St. Nicholas, and, pursuing a south-east direction across the island, terminates near Cape Espada. The summits, near the centre of the range, are said to be about 6000 feet above the level of the sea. A western spur from the principal range ends at Cape St. Marc. A chain in the north-east, called Monte Christi, commences at the bay of the same name, and terminates at the bay of Samana. In the eastern part of the island are extensive plains, or savannas, occupied by immense herds of swine, horses, and horned cattle. Eastward from the city of St. Domingo, they stretch out to the extent of 80 miles in length, by 20 or 25 in breadth. The soil, in general, is well watered, and fertile in the highest degree, producing every variety of vegetable for use and beauty. The plains also, according to Edwards, are capable of producing more sugar and other valuable commodities than all the British West Indies put together, and nothing is wanting to render these fertile districts a scene of successful cultivation, but a suitable degree of industry and enterprise among the Spanish colonists. They are sunk, however, into a state of such deplorable indolence

at a great part of the country is merely a beautiful wilderness. ıe principal productions are sugar, coffee, and cotton, which are oduced in abundance, and of excellent quality. The woods ound with mahogany and other valuable timber. [On this bject, as well as that of Climate, see a more copious account Myers's *Modern Geography*, Vol. ii. p. 837.]—EDIT.

Capes, Bays, and Rivers.

At the north-western extremity of the island is Cape St. cholas, or the Mole; at the north-eastern, Old Cape Fran-is; at the south-eastern, Cape Engano; and at the south-stern, Cape Tiburon. On the eastern side of the island, tween Old Cape François and Cape Engano, the most pro-nent points are Cape Cabron, Cape Samana, and Cape Ra-ael. On the south side are Cape Espada, a little south-west Cape Engano; Cape Mongon, the most southern point of island, and Point Abacou, a little south-east of Cape Ti-ron. On the western coast are Cape Donna Maria, a little rth of Cape Tiburon and Cape St. Marc, near lat. 19° N. int Isabella, on the northern coast, is the most northern remity of the island.

Samana Bay sets up at the east end of the island, between pe Samana on the north, and Cape Raphael on the south. s 60 miles long, and, on an average, 5 broad. A large tri-gular bay, called Scott's Bay, lies north of Samana Bay, ween Cape Cabron and Old Cape François. The Gulf of naives is a very large inland sea, at the west end of the nd, situated between Cape Donna Maria, on the south, and pe Nicholas on the north. These capes are not less than leagues apart, and the length of the bay is 50 leagues. At head of the gulf is situated the important bay of Port au nce.

The river *Yuna* flows upwards of 70 miles through the beau-l and fertile valley of Vega Real, in an E.S.E. direction, and s into the bay of Samana. It is navigable 13 leagues to uy. The *Monte Christi*, or the *Yaqui*, heads near the Yuna, runs W.N.W. about the same distance, to the bay of Man-lle. The *Ozama* runs in a S.S.E. direction, and discharges lf just below the city of St. Domingo. It is navigable about miles, and rolls a large volume of water to the sea. The *be*, one of the longest rivers on the island, pursues a course of south, and empties itself into Occoa Bay, a little north-of Cape Mongon. *Artibonite* river rises near the centre he island, and, flowing west, discharges itself into the Gulf Gonaives, a little north of Cape St. Marc.

Climate.

The climate is moist and hot, the thermometer in the plains

rising as high as 99°; but the heat is moderated by the regular sea and land breezes, which blow in succession. On some of the highest mountains in the interior, the heat is not oppressive, and a fire is even at times found necessary. The heaviest rains fall in May and June. Hurricanes are seldom experienced. The climate is frequently fatal to Europeans, particularly on the sea coast, and has proved a powerful ally to the blacks when they have been invaded.

Civil Divisions and Population.

Hispaniola was formerly divided between the French and Spaniards, the French occupying the western, and the Spaniards the eastern part. In 1791, an alarming insurrection broke out among the negroes in the French part of the island, which issued in the course of a few years in the complete expulsion of the French. The negroes declared themselves independent, and gave to their part of the island the name of Hayti. Hayti was recently divided into two distinct governments, under two rival chiefs, President Petion and King Christophe, the former occupying the south-western part of the island, and the latter the north-western part. These chiefs are now both dead, and the island has become the theatre of new revolutions.

The French part of the island contained, in 1789, according to the estimate of Edwards, 30,831 whites, 24,000 mulattoes, and 480,000 slaves; in all, 534,831. The Spanish part contained, in 1785, according to census, 152,640; in 1798, according to Alcedo, 125,000, of whom 110,000 were free, and 15,000 slaves; in 1810, according to Walton, 104,000. The population, in both parts of the island, appears to have declined within the last 30 years.

Chief Towns.

Cape Haytien, or *Henry*, formerly *Cape François*, is situated on the north side of the island, about 30 leagues east of Cape St. Nicholas, on a cape at the edge of a large plain, 60 miles long, and 12 broad. Its harbour is one of the most secure and convenient in the whole island. Before the revolution it was the largest town in the French part of the island, containing between 8 and 900 houses, of stone or brick, 8000 free inhabitants, and 12,000 slaves. The plain, on which the town is situated is well watered and highly cultivated.

Port au Prince is at the head of the large bay which sets in on the west side of the island. It has an excellent harbour, but the situation is low and marshy, and the climate unhealthy. To the north-east of the town is the noble plain of Cul de Sac, from 30 to 40 miles in length, by 9 in breadth, and containing numerous sugar plantations. In 1790, the population consisted of 2754 whites, and 12,000 negroes. In 1770, a [illegible]

part of the town was destroyed by an earthquake, and in 1791, during the revolution, it was burnt.

St. Domingo, the capital of the Spanish part of the island, is on the west bank of Ozama River, and was formerly a flourishing city, but is now in a state of decline. The cathedral is a noble Gothic pile, in which the ashes of Columbus rested till 1796, when they were removed to the Havannah. The harbour is large, but not very secure. Population about 12,000.

The Mole is a port in the north-west part of the island, six miles east of Cape St. Nicholas. Though inferior in many respects to Cape Henry and Port au Prince, it is the safest harbour in the island in time of war, being strongly fortified both by nature and art. The water is very pure, and the situation remarkably healthy.

Leogane, 30 miles west by south of Port au Prince, in a beautiful valley, half a league from the sea, was formerly a place of considerable commerce. *St. Mark*, at the head of a small bay of the same name, is a pleasant town, 40 miles north-west of Port au Prince. *Monte Christi*, on the north coast, near a cape and island of the same name, in the Spanish part of the island, was formerly a noted resort of smugglers.

Commerce.

In 1789, the French employed in the trade of St. Domingo 710 vessels, navigated by 18,466 seamen. The value of the exports, in 1791, was 5,371,593*l.*; the principal articles were coffee, to the amount of 84,617,328 pounds; sugar, 217,463 casks; indigo, 3,257,610 pounds; cocoa, 1,536,017 pounds; cotton, 11,317,226 pounds. Since the revolution the commerce has greatly declined. From 1804 to 1808, according to Walton, only about 75 vessels arrived annually, with cargoes amounting to about 150,000*l.* sterling. The principal article of exportation from the Spanish part of the island, is derived from the horned cattle, which have multiplied to such a degree, that they are slaughtered for their skins.

Education.

Great efforts were made by Christophe, the late king, for the education of his subjects. A royal free school was established at St. Marks, and twelve public schools in the principal towns of the kingdom, in which several thousand children are now taught the English and French languages, and the elements of mathematics, under instructors sent out from England. A royal college has also been established and liberally endowed at Cape Henry, the capital of the kingdom, in which provision is to be made for instruction in all the languages, and arts, and sciences,

usually taught in European and American colleges. In 1815, there were 40 scholars in the college, who were selected from among the best in the common schools. Besides the above, the king caused schools to be established in every village in his kingdom, the teachers of which are selected from among the best pupils in the public schools.

Religion.

The established religion in all parts of the island is the Roman Catholic, but the late king, Christophe, tolerated every denomination in his dominions, and the instructors employed by him in his schools were Englishmen, of the Episcopal church. The Wesleyan Methodists have also employed missionaries in Hayti, special permission having been obtained for that purpose.

Government and Military Power.

Henry Christophe, the late King of Hayti, under the title of Henry the First, usually resided and held his court at Sans Souci, a village about fifteen miles from Cape Henry, where he built a spacious and handsome palace. He was an absolute monarch. An hereditary nobility formed the first class of his subjects. All the proprietors of landed estates had great authority over the cultivators of the soil, who were held in a species of slavery. The government of the south-western division of the island was elective: and Petion, the chief magistrate, was styled President of Hayti. Petion and Christophe are now both dead, and their dominions are united under President Boyer. Various propositions were made a few years since by the French government, for the purpose of bringing the inhabitants to their former subjection, but they were all rejected with disdain. The regular army of each of the two sovereigns was about 10,000 men.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

THE island of Hispaniola is memorable for having been the seat of the first European settlement in America, and the scene of the first independent empire founded by African slaves. It was discovered by Columbus, on the 6th of December, 1492, on his return from Cuba. It had borne the name of Hayti, among the natives, an appellation which has been recently revived in the western part. Columbus called it Española, or Little Spain, and it has since acquired the name of St. Domingo, from

the chief town, so called by Bartholomew Columbus. The impression made on Columbus by the beauty of the country, and the simplicity of the natives, was such that he determined to form a settlement here; and accordingly left thirty-eight Spaniards at the Bay of St. Nicholas, when he sailed for Spain, in January, 1493. These were the first colonists of America. On his return, in November, 1493, he founded a second town on the northern coast, which he called Isabella, the first settlement having been nearly destroyed by the natives. The licentiousness and avarice of the new settlers again provoked the Indians to attempt revenge: but these miserable beings were overpowered by European skill, and great numbers perished by famine and the sword. In 1496, Columbus returned to Spain, leaving his brother Bartholomew lieutenant-governor, who soon afterwards removed the colony to a more eligible situation, on the south side of the island, where he founded the city of St. Domingo. The number of inhabitants appears after this to have increased rapidly. Nicholas de Ovando brought in one armament 2500 settlers. These, and the former colonists, were distributed by Columbus in different districts, and a certain number of natives were appointed to cultivate each allotment. This unhappy race dwindled away fast under disease and a species of labour to which they were unaccustomed. We find that their numbers were so much reduced about the year 1513, that Ovando, to supply the necessary fund of labourers, decoyed 40,000 of the inhabitants of the Bahamas into St. Domingo; and, notwithstanding this accession, it is said, that towards the middle of that century, scarcely 150 Indians remained alive. The colonists, in the mean time, degenerated from the spirit and enterprise of their ancestors. Their mines were deserted, and their agriculture neglected; and, although Ovando had introduced some slips of the sugar-cane from the Canary Islands, yet, such was the indolence of the inhabitants, that they could not be persuaded to cultivate it. In this state of things the island remained for upwards of a century; the only event of importance recorded, being the marauding incursion of Sir Francis Drake, who pillaged the capital, destroyed one-third part of it, and received about 7000*l.* sterling as a ransom for the remainder.

About the middle of the seventeenth century, the French and English settlers who had been driven from St. Christopher's to Tortuga, and had there acquired the name of buccaneers, began to attract notice. After various turns of fortune, having been driven from and regained Tortuga, the French obtained a footing on the west end of the island about the same time that the English got possession of Jamaica. The former turned their attention to agriculture, and, in a few years, attracted the attention of the French government. The old system of monopoly

was at first resorted to, but the injury which arose from this measure, produced an insurrection in the island in 1670. Tranquillity was restored at the price of a free trade to France. Several slaves having been taken from the English in the war of 1688, the inhabitants renewed the culture of the sugar cane. For this purpose they rapidly increased their stock of negroes by all means in their power. In 1694, a party landed in Jamaica, and carried off a considerable number of negro slaves. The next year the English retaliated by plundering the settlement at Cape François, and burning the town, which was, however, soon rebuilt. From the year 1722, when the French colony was freed from the yoke of exclusive trading companies, it rapidly rose in prosperity, while the Spanish settlements had declined in population. It was not until 1765, when Charles III. opened a free trade to all the Windward Islands, that Hispaniola began to exhibit symptoms of prosperity. About the same year the number of slaves in the French colony had increased to 206,000. In 1691, Spain had ceded to France, by the treaty of Ryswick, the western half of the island; in 1776, a new line of demarcation was drawn, and a liberal commerce was opened between the two sections. From 1776 to 1789, the French colony was at the height of its prosperity. Its productions were immense and valuable, and its commerce in the most flourishing state.

The French revolution opened a fountain of evil for the whites of St. Domingo. In 1791, an alarming insurrection of the negroes broke out in the French colony. In two months, upwards of 2000 whites perished, and large districts of fertile plantations were devastated. From the northern province the rebellion spread to the west, where, however, it was soon quelled. In 1792, the National Assembly proclaimed the political equality of the free negroes and the whites, and, in the succeeding year, appointed three commissioners of extreme republican principles, who on their arrival decided the fate of the colony, by proclaiming the emancipation of the slaves. On the 21st of June, 1793, Macaya, a negro chief, entered Cape François at the head of 3000 slaves, and began an indiscriminate slaughter. In this state of things, the British government, hoping to take advantage of the confusion, sent a body of troops from Jamaica, who landed at Tiburon, and captured Leogane, and afterwards Port au Prince. The yellow fever, however, breaking out reduced their numbers rapidly: and the blacks, headed by Rigaud, a mulatto, and the celebrated Toussaint L'Ouverture, who had been appointed by the French government commander-in-chief, retook the principal places. The English were reinforced by successive detachments of large bodies, but were confined within the capital by the blacks, and thinned in numbers by the fever. At length, after an

enormous loss of men, they finally evacuated the island in 1798. Previously to this, Spain had ceded to France the eastern part of the island; but the cession produced no advantage to the latter, in consequence of the deranged state of affairs.

At the beginning of the year 1800, the blacks found themselves powerful in numbers, and improved in skill and discipline to a degree that rendered them competent to contend for the possession of the whole island. On the 1st of July, in the succeeding year, the independence of Hayti was proclaimed. The French government had by this time recovered from its delusion, and saw the error it had committed. Under the vigorous administration of Buonaparte, then first consul, a force of 20,000, under General Le Clerc, was despatched in December, 1801. They landed at the Bay of Samana; but before they entered Cape François, the city was laid in ashes. In February, 1802, General Le Clerc began the campaign, and fought with varied success until the 1st of May, when a truce was concluded between the contending armies. During the continuance of this truce, as is said by English writers, Toussaint was surprised and conveyed a prisoner on board a vessel, by which he was carried to France, and there died in the month of April, 1803. Hostilities were now resumed with greater animosity on each side. The command of the black troops devolved upon Dessalines, one of the chiefs, who prosecuted the war with vigour and success. The yellow fever aided the cause of the negroes, and swept off great numbers of the French. By the middle of October, 1802, Fort Dauphin, Port de Paix, and several other important posts were carried by the blacks. General Le Clerc died shortly afterwards. Under his successor, Rochambeau, an armistice was concluded, during which the blacks received large reinforcements, while the French were blocked up by the English ships. At the expiration of the armistice, the French, now reduced to a handful, were driven into the Cape, where, on the 30th of November, 1803, they were forced to capitulate to the English squadron; and thus the greater part of the island was abandoned, and opposition ceased to the independence of the negroes.

The liberated blacks now determined on discarding the name given to the island by Europeans, and reviving that of Hayti. On the 1st of January, 1804, the general and chiefs of the army entered into a solemn compact, in the name of the people of Hayti, renouncing for ever all dependence on France. At the same time, they appointed Dessalines governor for life, with very extensive powers. The next step in the promotion of this military chief, was such as might naturally have been expected. On his return, in September, from an unsuccessful expedition against the city of St. Domingo, which was still

occupied by some Spaniards and French, he assumed th purple, and the title of Jaques I, emperor of Hayti. His rei was brief, and, though some sagacious measures were adopt for the government and improvement of the people, yet h various acts of tyranny rendered him universally detested. H was slain by a military conspiracy in October, 1806. Christoph his second in command, immediately assumed the administr tion of affairs, under the title of "Chief of the Government Petion, however, another chief, appeared as a candidate for th sovereign power, and the struggle between him and Christop was long and fierce. A severe battle was fought on the 1st January, 1807, in which Petion was defeated. Christophe progress to supreme power was similar to that of Dessalin In 1807 he was appointed chief magistrate for life, with th power of appointing his successor, and, in 1811, he chang the title to that of King, calling himself Henry I. The offi was made hereditary in his family. From 1810 to 1820, th part of Hayti formerly belonging to the French, was und distinct and rival governments. In the north was the kingdo of Christophe, and in the south a republic existed, at the he of which was Petion, who is represented to have possess both sagacity and virtue. In 1816, he was appointed presid for life, and retained the office until May, 1818, when he died, u versally lamented by his fellow-citizens. The character and ad of Christophe were widely different from those of his republica opponent. He appears to have been an avaricious and cru despot, and to have well deserved his fate. The military, wh had been both the instruments and objects of his oppressio revolted in October, 1820, dragged him from his retreat, an destroyed him. In consequence of this event, the whole colon has been united under Boyer, the successor of Petion, in th office of President, and who is said to possess many of th virtues of his predecessor.

That part of the island which was originally settled by Spaniards, remained under the government of Spain, notwith standing the cession of 1794, until the 1st of December, 1821, when a formal declaration of independence was made by th inhabitants. The resolution appears to have been unanimous and the change was effected without the loss of a drop of blood The inhabitants, at the same time, made an overture to b admitted into an union with the republic of Colombia, of th result of which we have no information.

PORTO RICO.

Situation and Extent.

Porto Rico, called by the natives Boriqua, lies to the east of Hispaniola, between 17° 54′ and 18° 35′ N. lat. and between 65° 45′ and 67° 45′ W. long. It is 115 miles long, from east to west, and has a mean breadth of 35, containing about 4000 square miles. Its shape is nearly that of a parallelogram.

Face of the Country, Soil, &c.

The country is pleasantly diversified with hills and valleys. The soil is generally fertile. In 1778, there were on the island 5861 plantations and farms of every description, which were then stocked with 23,195 horses, 1515 mules, 77,384 horned cattle, and 49,058 sheep and swine. The principal agricultural productions are sugar, cotton, rice, maize, and tobacco. Hurricanes are not unfrequent: that of 1742 was remarkably destructive.

Chief Town.

St. Juan de Porto Rico, the capital, is on the north side of the island, about 15 leagues west from Cape St. Juan. It stands on a peninsula in a spacious bay, and is connected with the main land by an isthmus of considerable length. The harbour is spacious and safe, and admits vessels of any burden. The entrance is less than half a mile mide, and the fortifications are strong and commanding. The population is variously estimated, from 10 to 30,000.

Population.

The number of inhabitants in 1778, was 80,660. In 1795, the population received a large accession from St. Domingo, many of the Spanish inhabitants of that island removing hither. At present it is supposed to exceed 100,000*.

Government.

Porto Rico is a captain generalship. Originally, with Cuba, it was a part of the viceroyalty of Mexico; then it was attached to the government of Cuba; and finally made a distinct province.

* This gives a comparative population of 25 persons to a square mile, which is considerably greater than many of the other Spanish colonies in the west.—Edit.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

THE extensive island of Porto Rico has undergone few those vicissitudes which furnish the materials and interest history. The epoch of its discovery was the year 1493, wh it was visited by Columbus. Hispaniola, at that period, so engrossed the attention of the Spaniards, that the other islan were neglected. The space of sixteen years from the time its discovery, passed by before they had leisure to turn th thoughts to Porto Rico. In 1509, Ponce de Leon, one of adventurers whom the thirst of gold had sent out from Sp embarked from Hispaniola, to make a conquest of the islan which, being thinly peopled, was incapable of making a vigor defence. The inhabitants were a simple and inoffensive race. T exploits of the Spaniards had filled them with awe, and inste of attempting to oppose the landing of the invaders, they d thought of yielding submissively to the yoke. They conclud that the whites were a race of superior beings, against wh resistance would be unavailing. Accordingly, on the arri of Ponce de Leon, they submitted without a struggle. Th soon found, however, that if the Spaniards were a superi race, the yoke which had been imposed upon themselves, w not the more easily borne on that account. The grievo exactions of their new masters induced them to form resolutio for the recovery of their original rights. One obstacle, ho ever, stood in the way of an attempt to resist the Spaniards force. They believed the Spaniards to have been gifted Heaven with extraordinary powers, and they feared lest th were exempted from the general liability to death. To det mine this question, they deputed Bryo one of their caciqu to make an experiment on an individual Spaniard. The u was a delicate and hazardous one, but he succeeded in satisfyi himself and his countrymen at last, that, whatever were endowments of the whites, they were equally subject w themselves to pay the common debt of nature. The result the experiment determined them upon attempting to throw the yoke. An insurrection accordingly broke out, and Spaniards, who had calculated upon a timid submission, w taken by surprise. Victory favoured the natives for a b season, and upwards of one hundred Spaniards were sacrifi Ponce de Leon, however, collecting the scattered forces of Spaniards, in his turn surprised the natives, and obtained easy triumph. This unfortunate people had miscalculated chances of the conflict between their own imperfect weap and the frightful and sure musketry of their invaders. A c punishment followed their abortive insurrection. Those

escaped from the massacre of the field of battle, were sold to the mines of Hispaniola, where they finished their existence.

The extirpation of the natives gave the Spaniards the sole possession of the island, which they enjoyed for many years without interruption; but without deriving those advantages from it which it is capable in proper hands of yielding. In 1580, however, England being then at war with Spain, an expedition under Hawkins and Drake, which had assailed and plundered many of the Spanish settlements, made an attack on the island; but, after suffering some loss, they were compelled to return. In 1598, another expedition was fitted out with the express design of subduing the island. The command was given to Clifford, earl of Cumberland, who landed with 1000 soldiers on the 6th of June. The inhabitants of the town of Porto Rico made a vigorous resistance; but, in a few days the garrison, consisting of 400 soldiers surrendered, in consequence of which the whole island submitted. The capture of Porto Rico was deemed of great importance; and, for the purpose of preserving it as an English possession, Cumberland adopted the cruel design of exiling the inhabitants to Carthagena. Notwithstanding the petitions and remonstrances of the unfortunate Spaniards, the measure was carried into execution: only a small number being allowed to remain. The British, however, soon found themselves unable to retain possession of the island. The troops were seized with a dreadful malady, which destroyed three-fourths of those who had landed. Cumberland, who had been disappointed in his hopes of amassing wealth from the plunder of the inhabitants, returned to England, leaving Sir John Berkeley in command. The increasing mortality of the troops soon afterwards compelled the English to evacuate the island altogether; and the Spaniards, who had been compelled to abandon it, returned, and again occupied their settlements.

From that period to the present, the island of Porto Rico has remained under the dominion of Spain, without experiencing any of the revolutions which have affected the mother country.

THE VIRGIN ISLANDS.

THE Virgin Islands lie east of Porto Rico, between 17° 40′ and 18° 45′ N. lat., and between 64° 10′ and 65° 20′ W. long. The extreme island on the north and east is Anegada; on the south Santa Cruz; and on the west Bieque, or Crab island.

Division.

The following is a list of the principal islands, with their dependencies.

Islands.	*Dependencies.*
1. St. Thomas.	Brass, Little Saba, Great St. James, Little St. James, and Bird islands.
2. St. John.	Lavango, Cam, and Witch islands.
3. Santa Cruz, or St. Croix.	
4. Tortola.	Jost Van Dyke's, Little Van Dyke's, Guano, Beef, and Thatch islands.
5. Virgin Gorda.	Anegada, Nicker, Prickly Pear, Mosquito, Camanoes, Dog, Fallen City, Round Rock, Ginger, Cooper's, Salt, Peter's, and Dead Chest islands.
5. Spanish islands, viz., Bieque or Crab, Serpent, Great and Little Passage, the Tropic Keys, and several other small islands, lying contiguous to Porto Rico.	

Of the above islands, St. Thomas, St. John, Santa Cruz, and their dependencies, belong to the Danes; Tortola, Virgin Gorda, and their dependencies, to the English. The Spanish islands are attached to the government of Porto Rico.

Description of the Islands.

1. ST. THOMAS, about 12 leagues east of Porto Rico, is 9 miles long, and contains about 40 square miles. The soil is well watered and fruitful. The number of plantations is 74, of which 40 are devoted to the cultivation of sugar, and 34 to that of cotton. The value of the exports in 1812, including those of St. John, was 106,776*l*. The population in 1815, was estimated at 5050, of which number 550 were whites, 1500 free negroes, and 3000 slaves. St. Thomas, the chief town, is on the S.E. side, and has a safe and commodious port, in which 200 ships can be accommodated.

2. St. John, six miles S.E. of St. Thomas, contains about 40 square miles. The soil produces sugar, coffee, tobacco, and cotton. The population is 2430, of which number 180 are whites, 50 mulattoes, and 2200 negroes. The Moravians have a missionary station on this island.

3. Santa Cruz, or St. Croix, lies south of St. John, and contains about 100 square miles. It is divided into 346 plantations, on which are 3869 horses and mules, 115 wind-mills, and 149 horse mills. The soil is tolerably fruitful. The principal productions are sugar and cotton. The value of the exports in 1812, was 415,703*l*. The number of inhabitants in 1813, was 31,387, of whom 2223 were Danes, 1164 mulattoes and free blacks, and 28,000 slaves. The Moravian brethren have missionary stations here. Christianstadt, the chief town, and capital of all the Danish West India islands, is on the north coast. It has a harbour, a fort, 660 houses, and 5000 inhabitants. [This is indisputably one of the handsomest towns in the West Indies. The streets are principally wide, long, and straight, and intersect each other at right angles. They abound in noble and extensive buildings, constructed of either brick or stone, with piazzas in front. Mr. Waller, who lately visited it, says, "It had altogether the appearance of a European city: carriages, with splendid liveries, were rattling through the streets, and, what is very uncommon in this part of the world, the roads are so good, that a carriage may conveniently drive over the whole island."]—Edit.

The value of all the property, public and private, in the three Danish islands, is estimated at 5,014,440*l*. viz., Santa Cruz, 3,728,640*l*.; St. Thomas, 747,800*l*.; and St. John, 538,000*l*.

4. Tortola lies N.E. of St. John, and is 15 miles long by six broad. It is well cultivated, and one of the healthiest islands in the West Indies. It has a large and safe harbour on the S.E. side. The productions are sugar and cotton. The population is about 10,000.

5. Virgin Gorda is eight miles east of Tortola. It is 15 miles long, and produces sugar and cotton. The population is stated at 8000. Anegada, the largest of its dependencies, is low, and almost covered with water at high tides.

In 1812, Tortola and Virgin Gorda together, yielded 39,508 cwt. of sugar, 135,740 gallons of rum, 53,260 pounds of cotton, and 2000 pounds of coffee.

6. Spanish Islands. These islands are all attached to the government of Porto Rico, and are of very little importance.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

THE name by which these islands are distinguished, is generally supposed to have been bestowed upon them by sir Francis Drake, in 1580, in honour of Queen Elizabeth; but, according to Mr. Edwards, the historian of the West Indies, they were thus called by Columbus, after the 11,000 virgins celebrated in church history. The date of their discovery was 1493. They were then, however, thought unworthy of attention, and it was not until a century afterwards that any further notice appears to have been taken of them. They were then visited by the Earl of Cumberland, in his voyage to attack Porto Rico, and are described by the historian of that voyage as "a knot of little islands, wholly uninhabited, sandy, barren, and craggy."

The first possessors of those of the islands which now belong to the British government, were a party of Dutch buccaneers, who fixed themselves at Tortola, about the year 1648, and built a fort there for their protection. In 1666, they were driven out by a stronger party of the same adventurers, who, calling themselves English, pretended to take possession for the crown of England: and the English monarch made no scruple to claim the benefit of the enterprise, if he did not authorize it, for Tortola and its dependencies were soon afterwards annexed to the government of the Leeward islands, in a commission granted by Charles II. to Sir William Stapleton, and the English title has ever since remained unimpeached.

The Dutch had made but little progress in cultivating the country, when they were expelled from Tortola, and the subsequent improvements were chiefly made by some English settlers from the little island of Anguilla; who, about the middle of the sixteenth century, embarked with their families, and settled in the Virgin Islands. Their wants were few, and their government simple and unexpensive. The deputy governor, with a council nominated from among themselves, exercised both the legislative and judicial authority, determining in a summary manner, without a jury, all questions between subject and subject. There appear to have been no taxes laid, and when money was wanted for the public use, it was raised by voluntary contribution. Under this system they remained until 1756, when the population amounted to 1263 whites, and 6121 blacks. The inhabitants petitioned to be placed on the same footing with their sister islands, by the establishment of a civil government and constitutional courts of justice among them. This application, however, not being supported by any of those persuasions which induce monarchs to lend an ear to the petitions of their subjects, failed of success. In 1773, the attempt was

renewed, and under better auspices, for the petitioners, after praying that they might be permitted to elect an assembly of representatives out of the freeholders and planters, in order that such assembly, with the governor and council, might frame proper laws for their government, pledged themselves in that case to grant to "his majesty" an impost of four and a half per cent. on all goods and commodities the growth of these islands, similar to that which was paid in the other Leeward Islands.

Accordingly, the royal pleasure was signified to the governor-in-chief, that he should issue writs for convening an assembly or house of representatives, who, together with a council of twelve persons to be appointed by the governor for that purpose, might frame and pass such laws as might be necessary for the welfare and good government of the islands. In November 1773, a proclamation was issued by the governor for convening a house of representatives of the Virgin islands. The first assembly met on the 1st of February 1774, and immediately complied with their engagement to the crown, by granting an impost of four and half per cent. on the produce of the colony for ever. They afterwards passed an act granting the sum of 400*l.* currency per annum, as their proportion towards the salary of the governor-general.

Of the other Virgin islands, Santa Cruz or Saint Croix is one of the most important; it was discovered by Columbus in one of his early voyages. The Spaniards, English, and Dutch, were, by turns, masters of it for a long period. In 1651, it was bought for the Knights of Malta, who sold it in 1664 to the French West India company, by whom it was sold to Denmark, in 1696. It remained in the possession of this power until 1808, when it was taken, together with the islands of St. Thomas and St. John, by the English, but restored at the late general peace.

WINDWARD ISLANDS*.

MARTINICO

Lies 10 leagues S. S. E. of Dominica; it is 50 miles long from N. W. to S. E. and contains about 370 square miles. The island is very uneven, and intersected in all parts by hillocks, which are chiefly in a conical form. Three mountains rise above the smaller eminences, one of which, in the north-west, is obviously an extinguished volcano. The soil is generally very good and well watered. The principal productions are sugar, coffee, cocoa, cotton, cacao, ginger, &c. The value of the exports in 1768 was 1,201,875*l.*; in 1810, 791,773*l.* The population, in 1768 was 21,660; in 1788, 88,870; in 1810, according to a return made to the British House of Commons, 96,413, of whom 78,57[illegible] were slaves, 8630 free persons of colour, and 9206 whites. Fort Royal, the capital, is on the west coast, on a large bay, forming one of the best harbours in the West Indies. St. Pierre, also on the west coast, 15 miles north-west of Fort Royal, is a port of entry, and the most commercial town on the island; it contains about 2000 houses, and 12,000 inhabitants. [It has been remarked by those who have visited St. Pierre, that it has a great resemblance to many of the older cities of Europe, both in appearance and accommodations. It may justly be considered as the metropolis of the Windward Islands, and presents the singular convenience of established taverns, where strangers immediately find a temporary home. It exhibits, too, the other gaieties of a French provincial town, accompanied by all the luxury and dissipation of the West Indies.]—EDIT. The bay is of a circular shape, and easy of access, but unsafe in storms.

ST. LUCIA

Lies nine leagues south of Martinico; it is 32 miles long from north to south, and contains 225 square miles. The country is hilly, the climate healthy, and the soil generally good, yielding all the tropical productions. There are 45 plantations devoted to the sugar cultivation, 225 to cotton, and 133 to coffee. The population, in 1769, was 12,794; in 1776, 14,199; in 1803, 16,6[illegible]

* For a more ample account of these several islands, see Myers's New Geography, Vol. II.

whom 1290 were whites, 1660 coloured persons, and 13,690 slaves. Little Carenage Bay, on the west side of the island, is the best harbour in all the Caribbean islands. It is large and deep, has an excellent bottom, is free from worms, and perfectly safe, even in hurricanes.

ST. VINCENT

Lies seven leagues S. S. W. of St. Lucia; it is 24 miles long from north to south, and contains about 84,000 acres, or 131 square miles. The country is generally very rugged and mountainous. Of the 84,000 acres in the island, about 47,000 are cultivated; the remaining 37,000 are unfit for agriculture. The soil of the good land is a fine mould, composed of sand and clay, and well adapted for sugar. The sovereignty of the island is divided between the English and a race of independent negroes, called Black Caraibes. The English part is in the south-west, and includes about half of all the land fit for cultivation; the rest belongs to the Black Caraibes, who live in the north-east. The population, in 1791, consisted of 1450 whites, 11,853 slaves, 500 red Caraibes, and about 10,000 black Caraibes; in all, 24,000. [This population, including the inhabitants of a few small keys under the same government, according to the last official returns, was 30,000.]—EDIT.

The produce of the island, in 1787, was exported in 122 vessels, measuring 12,636 tons, and manned by 969 men. It consisted of 65,028 cwt. of sugar, 88,266 gallons of rum, 9656 of molasses, 634 cwt. of coffee, 761,880 lbs. of cotton, 143 cwt. of cacao, and various small articles, making a total value of 186,450*l*. Kingston, the capital, is built on a bay on the south-west coast, to which it gives name.

BARBADOES

Lies 32 leagues east of St. Vincent, and is the most eastern of all the West India islands; it is 21 miles long from north to south, and contains 106,470 acres, or about 166 square miles, most of which is under cultivation. The soil in the low lands is black, on the hills of a chalky marl, and near the sea generally sandy. Of this variety of soil, the black mould is best suited for the cultivation of the cane; and, with the aid of manure, has given as great returns of suger, in favourable seasons, as any in the West Indies, the prime lands of St. Kitt's excepted. The produce of the island, in 1787, was exported in 243 vessels, measuring 26,917 tons, and manned by 1942 men; and consisted of 137,766 cwt. of sugar, 415,489 gallons of rum, 13,489 of molasses, 2,705,975 lbs. of cotton, and other smaller articles, making a total value of 539,605*l*. The population and produce of the island were formerly much greater than they are at present; in 1670, it is said there were 50,000 whites, and 100,000 negroes, whose labours employed 50,000 tons of shipping; but this account is supposed

to be exaggerated. The population, in 1786, was 79,190. whom 16,167 were whites, 838 free blacks, and 62,115 sla in 1811, according to returns made to Parliament, there w 81,939 inhabitants, of whom 16,289 were whites, 3392 people of colour, and 62,258 slaves. An alarming insurrec of the blacks broke out in Barbadoes in 1816, which was s pressed after the loss of many lives. The island has suffe severely from hurricanes. That of October, 1780, destro 4326 lives, and property to the amount of 1,320,564*l*. Bri town, the capital, is one of the finest cities in the West Indies lies on the south-west coast of the island, on Carlisle Bay, wh is large enough to contain 500 ships: but the rocks at the bot often cut the cables of vessels. The city contains 1200 hou built mostly of brick, and about 12,000 inhabitants. It has o been destroyed by fires and hurricanes. [Barbadoes is consid by the West India planters as an old island, with much of its fe lity exhausted by long cultivation; but independently of its p duce, it must always be valuable to Great Britain. Its posi gives it the character of the key of the West Indies; it has a bay for shipping, and from being more cleared and cultivated t the other islands, its temperature is more equable, and its more salubrious. Every part of it is exposed to the influenc the trade wind; and its coolness and salubrity are held in s estimation, that it is common to make a voyage from the ot islands to Barbadoes, as to the Montpelier of these climes. Ba situated in the 13th degree of latitude, it is not subject to a gr variation of temperature in the different seasons of the year; th uniformity is never interrupted by the torpidity of winter; but th the re-animating pleasures of spring are unknown.]—Edit.

GRENADA

Lies 18 leagues S.S.W. of St. Vincent; it is 24 miles long fr N.E. to S.W., and contains about 80,000 acres, or 109 squ miles. The interior is mountainous, but no where inaccessi The soil, on the whole, is in a high degree fertile. Of the 80,0 acres, nine-tenths are probably susceptible of cultivation, yet quantity actually cultivated has never exceeded 50,000. T produce of the island and its dependencies, in 1787, was expo in 183 vessels, manned by 1824 men, and measuring 25,764 to and consisted of 175,548 cwt. of sugar, 670,390 gallons of r 8812 cwt. of coffee, 2716 cwt. of cacao, 2,062,427 lbs. of cot and other smaller articles, making a total value of 614,908*l*. T population, in 1700, was 776, of whom 251 were whites, 525 blacks; in 1785, 24,926, of whom 1000 were whites, 23,926 negroes; in 1811, according to a return made to Pa ment, 31,362; of which number 771 were whites, 1810 people of colour, and 29,581 slaves. St. George, the cap formerly called Fort Royal, lies on a spacious bay in the so

west part of the island. Its harbour is one of the best in the West Indies, and is defended by a fort.

The Grenadines are a cluster of small islands dependent on Grenada, and lying between that island and St. Vincent. Cariacou, the largest, contains 6913 acres, is very fertile, and produces annually 1,000,000 lbs. of cotton, besides maize, yams, potatoes, and plantains. Isle Rhonde contains 500 acres, devoted to pasturage and cotton.

TOBAGO

Lies 30 leagues S. E. of Grenada. It is 30 miles long from N. E. to S. W., and contains 140 square miles. The country is in general undulating, but in the north-west mountainous. Its soil is chiefly a rich black mould, well suited for all the fruits of the climate, In 1788, it yielded 20,250 cwt. of sugar, 159 cwt. of coffee, and 12,318 cwt. of cotton, besides other articles to a small amount. The population, in 1788, was 13,931; in 1805, there were 900 whites, 700 people of colour, and 14,883 slaves; in all, 16,483 souls. [In 1815, the population of Tobago was stated at 17,720, exhibiting the same preponderance of slaves as most of the other islands.]—EDIT.

It lies out of the usual track of hurricanes, and in this respect has an incalculable advantage over those farther north.

TRINIDAD,

Being an important island, may be noticed here, though it is not strictly speaking one of the Caribbee Islands. It is more correctly classed with the Lesser Antilles, a term which includes all the islands stretching along the northern coast of the Spanish Main. This island lies opposite the mouths of the River Orinoco, being divided from the continent by a strait 10 miles wide. The Gulf of Paria lies on the west. It is 45 miles long from north to south, and contains 1700 square miles, or 1,088,000 acres, of which it is estimated that 870,400 are capable of cultivation. The interior is covered with woods. Three distinct ridges of mountains cross the island from west to east; the northern, middle, and southern. Between them are extensive plains and fertile valleys. Of the 870,400 acres capable of cultivation, only a very small part is actually improved. The sugar plantations cover 6900 acres, the cotton 2531, coffee 4886, grain and provisions nearly 10,000. The exports, in 1803, consisted of 98,556 cwt. of sugar, 13,000 cwt. of cotton, 4496 cwt. of coffee, 2800 cwt. of cacao, 317,995 gallons of rum, and 128,509 gallons of molasses. The population, in 1808, was 28,477, of which number 2261 were whites, 5275 free coloured persons, 19,709 slaves, and 1232 Indians. Port of Spain, near the north-west corner of the island, is the principal sea-port, and contained, in 1806, about 3000 inhabitants.

[The Spanish geographers compare the shape of this island to

that of an ox's hide; and it is about sixty English miles from east to west. M. Lavaysse thinks the highest summits near the northern coast about three thousand feet in elevation. Some of the loftiest peaks of the interior are supposed to be still more elevated, but their height has not been actually ascertained. As in other countries between the tropics, the seasons consists only of the wet and dry. From November to the beginning of May, scarcely a drop of rain falls; but the heat then gradually increases till it attains its maximum, about the close of June. With this augmented temperature the rains commence, and frequently fall in torrents during September and October. From the end of June to the middle of October is the hottest season of the year; and from a series of observations made at Port Spain on the western coast, Fahrenheit's thermometer was found to range from 78° to 80°, at sun-rise; and from 84° to 86° from that time till sun-set. It then stood about 82° during the night. In August or September, it sometimes rose to 90°, but seldom reached a higher point.

The population of Trinidad was, in 1811, stated at 32,519 individuals, about 21,000 of whom were slaves. From an official document laid before the House of Commons in 1821, it appears that the revenue and expenditure of this island for 1819, in pounds *currency*, was,

Revenue . . . . 90,044*l.* 14*s.* 11*d.*

Expenditure . . 94,179*l.* 12*s.* 7¼*d.*

This expenditure included the arrears; and the nominal value of the pound currency is about 10*s.* The average rate of exchange for 1819, was 244*l.* currency for 100*l.* sterling. Trinidad also contains several natural curiosities; but for a more ample account of this interesting island, we must refer to Myers's Geography, vol. ii. p. 817.]—EDIT.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

MARTINICO.

THE settlement of this island is of more recent date than that of many of the other West Indies. In 1635, M. Desnambre, a French planter, brought the first colony, which consisted of only one hundred men, from St. Christopher. They completed their settlement without opposition from the natives, who gave up the western and southern parts of the island to them. In a short time, finding the evil consequences of their hospitality, they rose in a body upon the colonists; but were repulsed with the loss of six or seven hundred of their best warriors. After this a reconciliation took place, and peace appeared to be settled. But several of the settlers having been murdered in the

woods, the rest took an ample measure of revenge. The unhappy natives were either killed or driven out of the island, of which, in a few years after their arrival, the French were left the sole occupants. About 1650, the culture of sugar was begun, which, together with coffee, has proved a source of great wealth to the inhabitants. About the end of the 17th century, however, the island had made but small advances in prosperity. After the peace of Utrecht, Martinico became the mart for all the windward French settlements, and began to emerge into importance. Its trade was extensive, and the profits brought immense sums into the island. The war of 1744 put a period to this prosperity; and after peace was restored, its trade was seriously injured by the impolitic system of the French ministry. In 1762, it fell into the hands of the British, but was restored by the treaty of the succeeding year. It had lost, however, the trade from which its chief prosperity was derived, especially the contraband traffic on the Spanish coast. The ruinous system of the mother country, in respect to her colonies, continued to operate adversely to the interest of Martinico, during the period between 1763 and the French revolution. In 1794, Martinico was taken by a British expedition, under Sir John Jervis and Sir Charles Grey. It remained in the hands of the British until 1802, when it was surrendered by treaty to its former masters. Soon after this event, Martinico, St. Lucia, and Tobago, were formed by France into one government, under a captain-general, who resided at Martinico. In 1810, Martinico was again taken by the British, and restored to France by the treaty of Paris, in 1814,

ST. LUCIA.

This island has undergone frequent political revolutions. The English seem to have made the first settlement here about 1635; but the Caraibes, assisted by the French, drove them off a few years afterwards. The French then settled it about 1650. The island was reduced by the English in 1664, and evacuated by them in 1666. The French immediately resettled the island, but were driven away by the Caraibes. After this there was for some time no fixed colony at St. Lucia; it was only frequented by the inhabitants of Martinico, who went thither to cut wood. In 1718, it was again settled by the French; but four years afterwards the Duke of Montague was sent by the British court to take possession of it. In 1731, however, the two nations agreed, that, till their respective claims should be finally adjusted, the island should be evacuated by both parties. In 1763, St. Lucia was ceded by the English to France. In the hands of the latter it remained until 1779, when it was taken by a British expedition; but at the peace of 1783 was restored. It was again taken by the British in 1794; but in 1795, the inhabitants, who had suffered grievously from

the arbitrary and predatory system of the British, rose in arms, and were so successful, that in a short time they were in possession of the whole island, having compelled the garrisons to surrender. In May, 1796, however, the island was retaken by a powerful body of British troops, under General Abercrombie. It was ceded to France in 1802, by the treaty of Amiens; again taken by the British in 1804, and retained by them till the treaty of 1814, when it was once more restored to France.

ST. VINCENT.

This island was discovered in 1672, and the English soon afterwards made several unsuccessful attempts to settle it. In 1685, a slave ship from Africa, with a cargo of negroes, was wrecked on Bequia, a little island two leagues south of St. Vincent. Thither they soon went over, and were made slaves by the Caraibes. Finding their numbers increase, the Indians came to the resolution of killing all the male children of the negroes; on which the latter revolted, and defeated the design. The Caraibes afterwards occupied the northern part of the island, and the blacks the southern. By the accession of runaway slaves from Barbadoes, the blacks became so numerous as to drive their former masters into a corner of the island. The French from Martinico attacked the negroes in 1719, but suffered considerable loss. The English met with no better success in 1723. In 1763, France ceded her right to this island to the English. At this time the number of negroes amounted to two thousand, while of the Caraibes there were only left one hundred families. The first step of the British was to parcel out the lands, whether occupied by the natives, or untenanted. This excited a war with the Caraib negroes, in the course of which, as we are told by some writers, the British government conceived the design of exterminating this unhappy race, either by the sword, or by conveying them to a barren island on the coast of Africa, where they would have perished by famine. The remonstrances of the military appointed to carry the project into execution, it is said, induced the government to desist from the attempt. It is proper to add, that other statements of the transaction represent it in a different light. In 1779, St. Vincent was taken by the French from Martinico, whose operations were assisted by the negroes. The peace of 1783 restored the island to the British, in whose possession it has since remained.

BARBADOES.

Barbadoes is said to have been discovered by the Portuguese in the course of one of their voyages from Brazil, and from them it received its present name. When the English first landed here in 1605, they found the island uninhabited by human beings, the Caraibes having, for some reasons unknown to us, deserted it.

The earliest English settlement was made in 1624. A ship of Sir William Courteen, a merchant of London, having been driven by stress of weather to the island, the master and crew, on their return to England, made so favourable a report of its fertility, that Courteen formed the design of establishing a colony upon it. He accordingly sent out about 30 persons, who laid the foundation of a town, which, in honour of James I., they denominated Jamestown. The colony rapidly increased, and, during the civil wars in England, the emigration became so great, that in about 25 years from its first establishment, it was computed there were 20,000 white men in Barbadoes, one half of whom were capable of bearing arms. Nor did the ratio of increase decline much in the succeeding 26 years, for we find that in 1676, the whites were computed at 50,000, and the negroes at double the number. Since that time, however, the increase of population and prosperity has not been by any means on the same scale. The emigrants to Barbadoes, during the civil war, were principally royalists, who espoused the cause of the monarch so warmly, that the few planters who were favourable to the commonwealth were forced to abandon the island, and seek refuge in England. To punish these opponents of their authority, the parliament resolved to send a powerful armament to the West Indies. Ayscue, who commanded the expedition, arrived in October, 1651, and succeeded in compelling the people of Barbadoes to submit. This was not effected, however, until after a stout resistance, which so exasperated the parliament, that they put in operation a scheme they had for some time projected, of prohibiting all foreign ships from trading with the English plantations, and not permitting any goods to be imported into England, or its dependencies, in any other than English bottoms, or in ships of that nation of which the merchandise imported was the growth or manufacture. Thus arose the celebrated navigation act of England, which produced the most ruinous effects upon the trade and prosperity of Barbadoes. No important event appears to have occurred in the history of Barbadoes since that period.

GRENADA.

When Grenada was discovered by Columbus, in 1498, it was inhabited by a numerous and warlike people. It was not until 1650, that any settlement was formed on the island. In that year, Du Parquet, governor of Martinico, landed with 200 men, and having, partly by fraud and partly by force, dispossessed the natives, commenced the establishment of a colony. In a few years the unfortunate Caraibes were completely exterminated. In 1656, Du Parquet sold the island to count Cerillac, and he some time afterwards to the French West India company, on the abolition of whose charter, in 1674, it became vested in the crown. Grenada remained in the hands of the French until 1762, when

it was taken by the English. The surrender was confirmed by the treaty of 1763, and the English government soon afterwards attempted to levy a duty on the produce exported, similar to that paid at Barbadoes. The demand was resisted by the inhabitants, and at length the question was referred to the Judges of the King's Bench in England: and in 1774, judgment was pronounced by Lord Mansfield against the claims of the crown. In 1779, Grenada was captured by a French expedition under Count D'Estaign, but was restored to the English by the treaty of 1783, and has ever since remained in their possession. The white population has gradually declined since the island went under the English government. In 1771, it amounted to 1600; in 1777, to 1300; in 1793, to 1000; and in 1811, to only 771.

TOBAGO.

This island was discovered and named by Columbus in 1498. A small colony of Dutch settled on it in 1632, and called it New Walcheren, but were soon exterminated by the Spaniards and natives. In 1634, the Duke of Courland sent a colony thither, which planted itself on the west side of the island, at Great Courland Bay. In 1737, the island passed into the hands of the British. In 1748, by agreement between France and England, Tobago, together with St. Vincent, Dominica, and St. Lucia, were declared neutral; notwithstanding which, it was captured by the British in 1762, and ceded to them by the treaty of the following year. The French captured the island in 1781, and retained it at the peace of 1783. It was retaken by the British in 1793; restored to France in 1802; again taken by the British in 1809; and finally confirmed to the latter by the treaty of 1814.

TRINIDAD.

Columbus, who discovered this island in 1498, gave it the name of La Santissima Trinidad. The first settlement was made by the Spaniards. In 1595, the island was invaded by Sir Walter Raleigh, who broke up the Spanish settlements. The Spaniards afterwards re-occupied it. The French plundered it in 1676; but it remained in the possession of the Spaniards until 1797, when it was taken by an English expedition; and at the treaty of Amiens, in 1802, was ceded by Spain to England.

LEEWARD ISLANDS.

ANGUILLA, OR SNAKE ISLAND,

So called from its winding, tortuous figure, is about 20 miles long. It produces sugar, cotton, tobacco, and maize, and has about 800 inhabitants.

ST. MARTIN,

Five miles south of Anguilla, is about 12 miles long, and contains about 90 square miles. It produces sugar, cotton, and tobacco, but is principally valuable for its salt pits. The value of the exports, in 1810, was 18,361*l.* sterling. The population, amounting to 6100, consists partly of Dutch and French, partly of mulattoes and negroes.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW

Is a small island, about 12 miles S. E. of St. Martin, containing about 60 square miles. It produces sugar, cotton, cacao, tobacco, and manioc, also iron wood, and lignum vitæ. There is no lake or spring on the island. The inhabitants depend on the skies for water, which they keep in cisterns, and when they fail it is procured from St. Christopher's. The shores are dangerous, and cannot be approached without a good pilot. The only port is Le Carenage, on the west side, near which stands Gustavia, the principal town. Gustavia is inhabited by Swedes, English, French, Danes, Americans, and Jews. The planters are chiefly French. The population is about 8000, two-thirds of whom are negro slaves. [This is the only colony possessed by Sweden in the West Indies. It produces several kinds of valuable wood, and exports a peculiar species of lime-stone, with which several of the other islands are supplied. About half the white population are Irish Roman Catholics, whose ancestors settled there in 1666, and most of the remainder are of French extraction.]—EDIT.

SABA,

A small island, 12 miles in circumference, lying 30 miles S. W. of St. Bartholomew, is dependent on the neighbouring island, St. Eustatia. It consists of a delightful valley, which produces the necessaries of life, and the materials for several manufactures; but, being destitute of any port, its commerce is very inconsiderable. The sea is shallow and full of rocks, for some distance from the coast, and none but small vessels can approach very

near. The access to the interior of the island, is by a dif road cut out of the rock, by which only one person can asce a time. The population is estimated at 1600.

BARBUDA,

Belonging to the English, is 54 miles E. S. E. of St. Ba lomew, and is about 16 miles long, and 12 broad. The la low, but fertile, and produces cotton, pepper, indigo, tob and especially cocoa trees, which are here extremely fine. T is no harbour, but a well sheltered road on the west side belongs to the Codrington family, by one of whom the rev arising from this island, and from several other plantations, bequeathed to the society for propagating the gospel. The p lation is estimated at 1500.

ST. EUSTATIA,

Fifteen miles S. E. of Saba, and 8 N. W. of St. Christopl is a huge rock, rising out of the waves, in the form of a pyra 29 miles in circumference. Sugar, cotton, and maize, are r here, but the principal production is tobacco, which is cultiv on the sides of the pyramid, to its very top. There is but one l ing-place, and that, though difficult of access, is strongly forti The number of inhabitants is 20,000, of whom 5000 are wh chiefly Dutch, and 15,000 negroes.

ST. CHRISTOPHER'S,

Called by sailors *St. Kitt's*, is 8 miles S. E. of St. Eustatia, contains 43,726 acres, or almost 70 square miles. The int of the island consists of many ruggid precipices and barren mo tains. Mount Misery, the loftiest summit, rises 3,711 feet ab the level of the sea. It is evidently a decayed volcano. N the shore the country is level, and the soil extremely fertile. part of the West Indies is so well suited to the production sugar. Particular spots have been known to yield five hhds 16 cwt. each, to the acre, and a whole plantation has yielded 1 hhds. to the acre. Of the 43,726 acres which the island conta 17,000 are devoted to sugar, 4000 to pasturage, and perhaps 3000 to cotton, indigo, and provisions; the rest is unfit for cu vation. The official value of the exports and imports amounte

	Imports.	*Exports.*
In 1809, to . .	£.266,064 . .	£.132,845
1810, . .	253,611 . .	89,362

The population, in 1794, was 25,000, of whom 4000 w whites, and 21,000 negroes. By an estimate, in 1805, the wh and people of colour amounted to 1998. Basseterre, the cap is on the S. W. coast, at the mouth of a river, opening into a called Basseterre Road. It contains 800 houses, and is defen by three batteries.

[The plains of St. Christopher's are supposed to be the most productive part of the West Indies, and no other island yields equal returns of sugar with this. Its population has lately been stated at 31,700 individuals, about 30,000 of whom are slaves.] —EDIT.

NEVIS.

This beautiful little spot is nothing more than a single mountain, rising like a cone in an easy assent from the sea, three miles S. E. of St. Christopher's. The circumference of its base does not exceed 24 miles. It is well watered, and the land in general fertile. About 8000 acres are devoted to the cultivation of sugar, and the annual crop is 4000 hhds. The island was undoubtedly produced by a volcano, for there is a crater near the summit still visible. The population consists of about 1000 whites, and 10,000 negroes. Charlestown, the capital, is on the west side of the island, and is defended by a fort.

[The population of Nevis has lately been stated at 15,750, a great proportion of whom are slaves.]—EDIT.

ANTIGUA,

Forty-four miles E. of Nevis, and 25 S. of Barbuda, is 50 miles in circumference, and contains 93½ square miles, or 59,838 acres. The island is generally level. There are two kinds of soil, one a black mould, on a stratum of clay, which is naturally rich, and when not checked by excessive droughts, to which Antigua is peculiarly liable, very productive; the other, a stiff clay, on a substratum of marl, much less fertile than the former, and abounding with a species of grass which it is impossible to eradicate, and which overpowers every other vegetable. Of the 59,838 acres which the island contains, 34,000 are appropriated to sugar, a small part is unimprovable, and the rest is devoted to cotton, tobacco, and pasture. The official value of the imports and exports were,

	Imports.	*Exports.*
In 1809, . .	£.198,121 . .	£.216,000
1810, . .	285,458 . .	182,392

The population, in 1774, consisted of 2,590 whites, and 37,808 slaves, besides free negroes. In 1817, according to official returns, there were 2102 whites, exclusive of the troops; 2185 free blacks and people of colour, and 31,452 slaves; in all, 35,739. St. John's, the capital, is built on the west shore, on an excellent harbour, the entrance to which is defended by a fort. Parham, on the north side, has a fine harbour, and is regularly built and fortified. Falmouth, on the south side, has a good and well-fortified harbour.

Antigua constitutes, along with St. Christopher's, Nevis, Mont-

serrat, and those of the Virgin islands which belong to the English, a separate government. The governor, who is styled captain-general of the Leeward and Caribbean Islands, generally resides at Antigua, and occasionally visits the other islands.

[The capital of Antigua is considered as one of the most healthy towns in the Leeward Islands; as its situation, in some measure, exposes it to the sea breeze, and the steepness of its streets causes every heavy shower to wash away its impurities. The government of this and some of the adjacent islands is vested in a governor and council, appointed by the crown, and the legislature is a house of assembly, comprising 24 members, chosen by the freeholders of the islands.]—EDIT.

MONTSERRAT,

Thirty-two miles S. E. of Nevis, and 30 S. W. by W. of Antigua, is nine miles long, and contains about 50,000 acres, or nearly 78 square miles, almost two-thirds of which are mountainous or barren. Of the cultivated land, about 6000 acres are appropriated to sugar, 2000 to cotton, 2000 to provisions, and 2000 to pasturage. The produce of Nevis and Montserrat united, in 1787, was exported in 122 vessels, measuring 10,287 tons, and manned by 904 seamen; and the whole value for that year was 214,141*l.* The population, in 1805, amounted to 10,750, of whom 1000 were whites, 250 free people of colour, and 9500 slaves.

REDONDO

Is an uninhabited rock, situated nine miles N. W. of Montserrat.

GUADALOUPE

Is situated 40 miles S. by E. of Antigua, and consists really of two islands nearly equal in size, divided by a short and narrow channel called the Salt River. That part of the island which lies N. E. of this channel is called Grande Terre, that on the S. W. Basse Terre. The channel which separates them is more than six miles long, and in some places not more than 90 feet broad. It runs north and south, and communicates with the sea at each end by a large bay; that on the north, called Grand Cul de Sac, and that on the south, Petit Cul de Sac. Both divisions of the island are of volcanic origin, and covered with rugged mountains, particularly Basse Terre, in which the volcano La Souffriere, or the Brimstone Mountain, rises to a great height, and continually throws out thick black smoke mingled with fire. Basse Terre is much the most fertile part, being well supplied with water which fails in Grand Terre. The produce is the same with that of the other West India islands. In 1810, the exports consisted of 12,700,437lbs. of sugar, 1,334,387 gallons of rum and molasses, 2,661,726lbs. of coffee, 112,208lbs. of cotton, and 2162lbs. cocoa.

The population, in 1755, was 50,783; in 1767, 114,050; in 1812, according to a return made to the British House of Commons, 114,839, of whom 12,747 were whites, 94,328 slaves, and 7764 free negroes.

[Guadaloupe was discovered by Christopher Columbus, and first peopled by the French in 1635. It has been several times in possession of the English; the last time was for several years during the late war, but it was restored by the peace of 1814. La Souffriere, which is the highest point of the island, rises about 5,500 feet above the level of the sea. Guadaloupe has been frequently denominated the Circassia of the West Indies, and is highly celebrated for the beauty of its females. This peculiarity is so obvious, that Dr. Pinckard remarked, that most of the handsome women in St. Pierre were emigrants from Guadaloupe; and says, that " almost uniformly, when we have noticed a woman whose figure and face had more than common attraction, we have been told, *c'est une emigré de la Guadaloupe.*" The dress and manners of the mother country are strikingly prevalent here, and in this respect Guadaloupe forms a strong contrast with the colonies belonging to the other European powers.]—EDIT.

SAINTES

Consists of three small islands, situated between Guadaloupe and Mariegalante.

DESEADA AND MARIEGALANTE

Are dependencies of Guadaloupe. Deseada is ten miles long, and five broad. It lies 12 miles N. E. of Point Chateau, the eastern extremity of Guadaloupe, and contains about 900 inhabitants. Mariegalante is of a circular form, 14 miles in diameter. It lies 15 miles south of Guadaloupe, is very fertile in sugar, coffee, cotton, &c., and contained, in 1788, 12,385 inhabitants, of whom 1938 were whites, 226 free people of colour, and 10,121 slaves.

DOMINICA

Lies 25 miles S. S. E. of Guadaloupe. It is 30 miles long, by 14 broad, and contains 186,436 acres, or 29½ square miles. It has many high and rugged mountains, though it is interspersed with fertile valleys, and watered by upwards of 30 rivers. Several of the mountains contain unextinguished volcanoes. Coffee is the great object of agriculture. In favourable years the island has produced 3,000,000 lbs. There are 200 coffee plantations, and 50 of sugar; the population, in 1805, consisted of 1594 whites, 2822 people of colour, and 22,083 slaves; in all, 26,499. Charlottetown, formerly called Roseau, the capital, is in the south-west part of the island, and contained, in 1788, 500 houses, besides negro cottages. The next largest town is Portsmouth,

situated on the west side of the island, about 20 miles N. W. of Charlottetown. [A few of the original Caraibes are said still to range through the uncultivated wilds in the interior of this island, but their number is small.]—EDIT.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

ANGUILLA.

THE history of this little island is obscure and unimportant. It belongs at present to the British.

ST. MARTIN

Was settled by the Spaniards soon after their discovery of the West Indies; but finding it unproductive, they abandoned it in 1650. The French then took possession of the northern half; and the Dutch of the southern. In 1689, the English attacked and plundered the French settlements, and made another incursion in 1744. In 1801 they took possession of the whole island, and retained it until the treaty of 1814, when it was ceded to the king of the Netherlands, under whose government it now remains.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW

Was settled in 1648 by a French colony under the direction of Poincy, governor of St. Christopher's. The English admiral Thornhill attacked and plundered it in 1689, from which time it remained in the power of the English until the peace of 1697, when it was restored to France. Under the dominion of this government, St. Bartholomew increased little in prosperity. For a long time it was little more than a place of resort for privateers. At length, in 1785, France ceded it to Sweden, in whose possession it still remains, and under whose government it has increased considerably in population and importance.

SABA.

The history of this little island is brief. It was settled by the Dutch in the early part of the 17th century, and remained in their possession until 1781, when it was taken by the English. In 1783 it was restored to its former owners, and continued under their jurisdiction until 1809, when the English again captured it. In 1814 it was restored to the government of the Netherlands.

BARBUDA

Was settled by the English about the year 1628, and has since remained under their government.

ST. EUSTATIA.

The Dutch made the first settlement on this island about the year 1600. In the year 1665, it was captured by an English expedition. The French, however, soon afterwards expelled the British, and restored it to the Dutch in 1667. The English retook it in 1689, and restored it on the termination of the war in 1697. In 1781, a large naval and military force, under Admiral Rodney, compelled the inhabitants, who were incapable of defence, to submit at discretion. The English commanders here acted a part which ought to cover their memories with shame and disgrace. Under the pretence that the people of the island had supplied the United States with naval stores, they confiscated all private property, and at one blow reduced the unfortunate inhabitants to poverty. The most rigorous measures were pursued towards them, while the English officers enriched themselves with their infamous gains. In the same year, however, the island was retaken by a small body of French troops under the command of the Marquis de Bouille, who compelled a much superior force of English to submit. St. Eustatia was again attacked by the English in 1809, and compelled to submit; but in 1814 the Dutch government was restored.

MARIEGALANTE

Was discovered by Columbus in 1493, and settled by the French about 1647. It was twice taken by the Dutch, and by the English in 1691 and 1759, and has generally followed the fate of Guadaloupe.

DESEADA

Is a colony of modern date, though the island was discovered by Columbus, in his second voyage. It has generally followed the fate of Guadaloupe; and, like that colony, is now in the possession of France.

DOMINICA

Derives its name from having been discovered by Columbus on Sunday, the 3d of November, 1493. About the beginning of the 17th century, a party of Frenchmen made the first settlement here. By cultivating the friendship of the natives, the colony advanced without impediment in strength. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, it was agreed that this island should remain neutral; but in 1759, the English, disregarding this stipulation, took possession of it, and it was confirmed to them at the peace of 1763. In 1778, it was captured by some French troops from Martinico, but was restored to the English in 1783, and has since remained in their possession.

ST. CHRISTOPHER'S

Was discovered in November, 1493, by Columbus him who was so much pleased with its appearance that he ga his own christian name. It was not, however, settled by Spaniards. It was the first British settlement in the W Indies, having been planted by an Englishman, named Wa with some other persons of that nation in 1623. Two y afterwards, a settlement was commenced on another part of island by a party of French. The two nations united in an att upon the unfortunate Caraibes, and triumphed over them wit great loss of blood. In 1627, they divided the island betw them by a formal treaty of partition, and entered into a treat alliance offensive and defensive. Two years afterwards, a sud attack was made by a formidable Spanish force. The all being unable to make opposition, were forced to uncondition submission. Great cruelties were perpetrated by the invade who, having laid waste the principal part of the island, at leng retired. Discord soon arose between the two nations. F nearly half a century, an unhappy scene of outrage and violen was exhibited. In 1664, the French succeeded in overpowerin the English, and drove them out of the island. The latt returned on the peace of 1667; and, on the revolution in Englan were driven out again in 1689. This violence is assigned as on of the causes of the war between France and England, which broke out the next year. The English, under General Codring ton, returned soon afterwards in great force, and obtained a com plete triumph over their opponents. Eighteen hundred of the French inhabitants were transported to Martinico and His paniola. In 1705, the English possessions were laid waste by a French armament; but no further attempt was made by the colonists of that nation to re-possess themselves of their settle ments. By the treaty of Utrecht, the island was wholly ceded to the English, and the French possessions were publicly sold for the benefit of the British government. In 1782, the island was com pelled to surrender to a French expedition; but, by the treaty of peace of the succeeding year, it was restored to England, under whose government it has since continued.

NEVIS

Was first planted in 1628 by a small colony of English from St. Christopher's, under the direction of Sir Thomas Warner. The system adopted, at the outset of the settlement, was a judi cious one, and the colony soon acquired strength, and enjoyed prosperity and tranquillity for many years. The wars of Europe, however, extended their blighting influence to this delightful island. The French captured it in 1706, and restored it in 1713. In 1782, it again fell into their hands, and in the same year was again ceded to the English. It is still a British colony.

ANTIGUA

as discovered by Columbus in 1493, and named after a ch in Seville, Santa Maria de la Antigua. The first settle- was made in 1632 by a few English families. In 1663, les II. granted it to Lord Willoughby. In 1666, a French dition, uniting with the Caraibes, invaded the island, laid waste ettlements, and committed great cruelties. The island was ttled a few years afterwards, through the enterprise of nel Codrington, of Barbadoes, who was appointed com- der-in-chief of the Leeward Islands. In 1706, and during hree succeeding years, Antigua was cursed by the government ferocious and unprincipled tyrant, whose varied crimes and cal end will not soon be forgotten in the West Indies. The nistration of Governor Park seems to have resembled more ly the barbarous despotism of Nero or Caracalla than the rnments of modern times. Ample vengeance was taken by eople, who, driven to madness by oppression, rose in a body, powered the regular troops, tore the living body of the essor limb from limb, and gave the fragments to beasts of . So well was this punishment thought to be deserved, that British government ratified the act, by granting a general on to all concerned in it, and shortly afterwards promoted of the principal actors to public offices. No event of rtance has occurred in the recent history of Antigua, which remains under the British government.

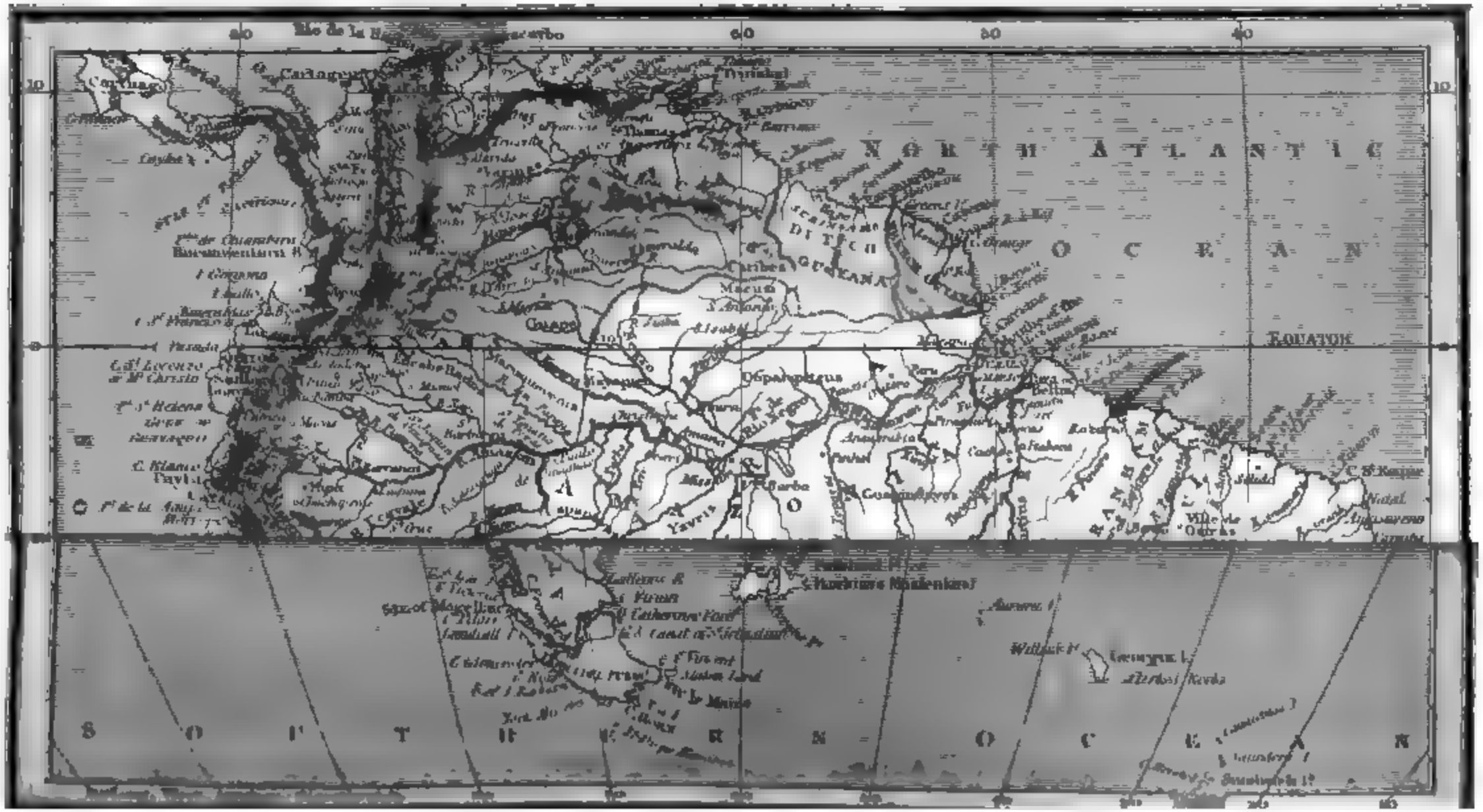
MONTSERRAT

as discovered by Columbus in 1493, and derives its name a mountain in Barcelona. It was settled about the same with Nevis and Antigua by a colony from St. Christopher's, were principally catholics. The French invaded this island 712, but restored it to England by the treaty of Utrecht. In 2, it was again taken by the French, and regained by the Bri- in the succeeding year, since which time it has been in the ession of the latter.

GUADALOUPE

as discovered by Columbus in 1493, but remained in the ession of its native Indians for upwards of 140 years before European attempted a settlement upon it. At length, in 5, a party of French established themselves on the island. ing the first years, they experienced great calamities from t of provisions and hostilities with the natives. When e difficulties had been surmounted, they found themselves osed to the visits of bands of pirates, who levied contri- ons, and to the hardly less profligate expeditions of the lish. The colony, however, gradually acquired strength and

stability, and between 1700 and 1750 made a rapid progress in prosperity. In 1759 it fell into the hands of the English, but at the peace of 1763 was restored to France. During the war of the American revolution, Guadaloupe remained in the undisturbed possession of the French; and, under a separate governor from the other French islands, its commerce annually increased. In 1794, a large English armament arrived in the West Indies, and compelled the small body of French troops in Guadaloupe to submit. A few months afterwards, an expedition from France again obtained possession of the island, and forced the British troops to surrender. Great numbers on both sides perished with the yellow fever; and the horrors of war were heightened by the asperity of party dissensions between the republicans and the royalists. From this period Guadaloupe remained in possession of the French until 1810, when it capitulated to a strong British force under General Beckwith. In 1812, Great Britain ceded this island to Sweden, but no transfer of possession took place; and, on the conclusion of the war in 1814, Sweden consented that the island should be restored to France, under the government of which power it now remains.


NORTH ATLANTIC
OCEAN
SOUTH PACIFIC OCEAN
EQUATOR
Rio de la Hacha
Caribbean
Macuro
Orinoco
Barbados
Trinidad
Tobago
Guadeloupe
Martinique
Dominica
Antigua
Barbuda
St Kitts
Nevis
Montserrat
Guiana
Surinam
Cayenne
Para
Maranham
Ceara
Rio Grande
Pernambuco
Bahia
Rio de Janeiro
St Paul
Fernando Noronha
St Helena
Ascension
Trinidad
Tristan da Cunha
Gough Island
Inaccessible Island
Nightingale Island
Falkland Islands
Port Egmont
Port Louis
Port Jackson
Botany Bay
Norfolk Island
Lord Howe Island
Van Diemens Land
New Zealand
Cape Horn
Cape Pillar
Cape Forward
Cape Froward
Cape Virgins
Cape Blanco
Cape St Roque
Cape St Augustine
Cape Frio
Cape Corrientes
Cape Agulhas
Cape of Good Hope
Cape Town
Table Bay
Natal
Port Natal
Delagoa Bay
Madagascar
Mauritius
Port Louis
Bourbon
St Denis
Comoro Islands
Mozambique
Quilimane
Sofala
Inhambane
Zanzibar
Mombaza
Melinda
Socotra
Aden
Mocha
Red Sea
Gulf of Aden
Babelmandel Strait
Persian Gulf
Gulf of Oman
Muscat
Ormus
Bassora
Bushire
Gombroon
Arabia
Persia
Africa
Abyssinia
Nubia
Egypt
Alexandria
Rosetta
Cairo
Suez
Mecca
Jidda
Yambo
Gaza
Jerusalem
Jaffa
Acre
Tripoli
Tunis
Algiers
Oran
Tangier
Gibraltar
Cadiz
Seville
Lisbon
Oporto
Madeira
Canary Islands
Cape Verd Islands
Bissagos Islands
Sierra Leone
Cape Mesurado
Cape Palmas
Cape Three Points
Cape Coast Castle
Gold Coast
Guinea
Gambia
Senegal
Goree
Cape Blanco
Cape Bojador
Cape Nun
Cape Ghir
Cape Spartel
Strait of Gibraltar
Mediterranean Sea
Black Sea
Constantinople
Smyrna
Scanderoon
Aleppo
Tripoli
Cyprus
Candia
Archipelago
Malta
Sicily
Naples
Rome
Genoa
Leghorn
Venice
Trieste
Ancona
Corfu
Zante
Cephalonia
Ionian Islands
Adriatic Sea
Gulf of Venice
Gulf of Lyons
Marseilles
Toulon
Nice
Corsica
Sardinia
Elba
Balearic Islands
Majorca
Minorca
Ivica
Carthagena
Alicante
Valencia
Barcelona
Malaga
Gibraltar
Cadiz
Seville
Lisbon
Oporto
Madeira
Canary Islands
Cape Verd Islands
Bissagos Islands
Sierra Leone
Cape Mesurado
Cape Palmas
Cape Three Points
Cape Coast Castle
Gold Coast
Guinea
Gambia
Senegal
Goree
Cape Blanco
Cape Bojador
Cape Nun
Cape Ghir
Cape Spartel
Strait of Gibraltar
Mediterranean Sea
Black Sea
Constantinople
Smyrna
Scanderoon
Aleppo
Tripoli
Cyprus
Candia
Archipelago
Malta
Sicily
Naples
Rome
Genoa
Leghorn
Venice
Trieste
Ancona
Corfu
Zante
Cephalonia
Ionian Islands
Adriatic Sea
Gulf of Venice
Gulf of Lyons
Marseilles
Toulon
Nice
Corsica
Sardinia
Elba
Balearic Islands
Majorca
Minorca
Ivica
Carthagena
Alicante
Valencia
Barcelona
Malaga
Gibraltar
Cadiz
Seville
Lisbon
Oporto
Madeira
Canary Islands
Cape Verd Islands
Bissagos Islands
Sierra Leone
Cape Mesurado
Cape Palmas
Cape Three Points
Cape Coast Castle
Gold Coast
Guinea
Gambia
Senegal
Goree
Cape Blanco
Cape Bojador
Cape Nun
Cape Ghir
Cape Spartel
Strait of Gibraltar
Mediterranean Sea
Black Sea
Constantinople
Smyrna
Scanderoon
Aleppo
Tripoli
Cyprus
Candia
Archipelago
Malta
Sicily
Naples
Rome
Genoa
Leghorn
Venice
Trieste
Ancona
Corfu
Zante
Cephalonia
Ionian Islands
Adriatic Sea
Gulf of Venice
Gulf of Lyons
Marseilles
Toulon
Nice
Corsica
Sardinia
Elba
Balearic Islands
Majorca
Minorca
Ivica
Carthagena
Alicante
Valencia
Barcelona
Malaga

SOUTH AMERICA.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

SOUTH AMERICA is situated between N. lat. 12° 30′ and S. lat. 55° 30′, and from 35° to 81° W. long. It is bounded north by the Caribbean Sea and Atlantic Ocean; east and southby the Atlantic Ocean; west by the Pacific Ocean; and on the north-west it is connected with North America by the Isthmus of Darien. Its greatest length from north to south is 4570 miles, and its greatest breadth 3320. The area is estimated at 7,010,500 square miles.

[Though no actual enumeration of the inhabitants of this continent either has been made, or, under present circumstances, can take place, they may be estimated at about *ten millions*. This number, compared with the above area, gives a comparative population of nearly *three* persons for every *two* square miles of surface. When we reflect that immense regions of this continent are so prolific in vegetable life, that the produce of a few square yards is adequate to the support of the largest family, nothing can present a more striking picture of the immense forests and the uncultivated wilds with which a great part of it is covered than this statement exhibits. The inhabitants are sometimes concentrated in favoured spots, but at others they literally roam, like the animals, through the forests; and it requires a close investigation to ascertain even their existence.

Mountains.

There are two extensive ranges of mountains, one running along the western, and the other along the eastern, coast. The Andes, or great western range, commencing at the Straits of Magellan on the southern extremity of the continent, run in a northerly direction to the Isthmus of Darien, and are generally parallel with the shore of the Pacific Ocean, at the distance of from 50 to 200 miles. In different parts of their course they vary greatly in general aspect; sometimes consisting of one entire mass, while at others two or three distinct ridges appear, separated by longitudinal valleys. In Chili the Andes are about 120 miles broad, and consist of a great number of mountains, all of them of prodigious height, and appearing to be chained to each other. In Peru they divide into three ridges, which continue to about the sixth degree of S. lat., where they are united into a single chain. They again divide on entering New Granada into two distinct ridges, which enclose between them a longitudinal valley 200 miles long, 20 or 30 broad, and elevated 9000 feet above the level of

the sea. Farther to the north, about the second degree of north latitude, the Andes divide into three separate ranges: the western the proper Andes, and passes into North America over the Isthmus of Darien; the eastern, called the chain of Venezuela, pursues a north-easterly course, and, winding along the shores of the Caribbean Sea, terminates on the Gulf of Paria, opposite the Island of Trinidad; the middle range runs north between the rivers Magdalena and Cauca. The most elevated part of the Andes is the double ridge in New Granada, which abounds with colossal summits, the highest of which, the celebrated Chimborazo, rises to more than 20,000 feet above the level of the sea. In Chili, Peru, and New Granada, the loftiest peaks form one row of volcanoes, many of which are in a state of constant eruption.

The eastern range of South American mountains, sometimes termed the Brazilian Andes, runs along the coast of Brazil from about 12° to 32° south latitude.

[In addition to what is here called the eastern and western ranges of South American mountains, some other ridges deserve to be mentioned. The colossal trunk of the Andes sends off several branches towards the east in this southern part of the transatlantic continent. Besides that above noticed, which runs along the northern coast of South America, there is another which leaves the main ridge between the third and sixth degrees of south latitude, and extends towards the east to an unknown extent, though it has been traversed for about 600 miles. A third lateral branch makes a semicircular sweep between fifteen and twenty degrees of south latitude, and appears to connect the main body of the Andes with the mountains of Brazil and Paraguay, supplying the streams that feed the mighty Maranon (Amazon) on the one hand, and the sea-like Plata on the other. The particular direction, elevation, and structure of this range, however, are yet but imperfectly known.

The New World is scarcely more distinguished from the other regions of the globe by its position and magnitude, than by the majesty of its physical features. Its vast mountains, which rear their stupendous bulks above the clouds—its wide-stretching plateaux—its almost immeasurable savannas, and its mighty rivers, which roll their immense floods across these spacious plains, are all distinguishing traits of the western world. Placed amidst the summits of the Andes, the adventurous traveller seems as if surrounded with the fragments of a world destroyed, or with the materials out of which another might be constructed. There "desolation seems at perpetual strife with nature for the mastery, and vegetation lives as if in defiance of sterility." This magnificent and awfully impressive scenery of the central Andes, however, differs in several respects from that of other Alpine regions in higher latitudes. It is deficient in some of these features which not only augment its beauty and sublimity, but add majesty

to horror. Glaciers, which, amidst the Alpine districts of Europe, frequently resemble a tumultuous sea suddenly congealed by the power of frost, as well as the terrible avalanches, which prove so destructive in these latitudes, are unknown in the torrid zone. But these mountains are noted for their immense chasms and cataracts. The formation of the Andes is likewise different from that of the Alps of Europe. One of the most singular circumstances in this respect is the enormous thickness and height of what geologists call the secondary formations. Baron Humboldt asserts that beds of coal have been found in the neighourhood of Santa Fee, at an elevation of 8650 feet above the level of the sea; and even at the height of 14,700 feet, near Huanuco, in Peru. The plains of Bogota, which are about 9000 feet above the surface of the ocean, are covered with sand-stone, gypsum, shell-limestone, and in some places rock-salt. Fossil shells have been found in the Pyrenees at the height of 11,700 feet, but in Peru at 12,800 in one place, and at 14,120 in another, where they were also accompanied with sand-stone. The basalt of Pichincha, near the city of Quito, has an elevation of 15,500, while granite, which crowns the loftiest mountains of Europe, is not found higher than 11,500 feet in the Andes, and is scarcely known in the provinces either of Quito or Peru. The snow-clad summits of Chimborazo, and the other highest peaks consist entirely of porphyry, which there constitutes a mass of 10,000 or 12,000 feet in thickness; together with an enormous body of quartz of 9500 feet thick. The Andes of Chili differ in their composition from the other parts of the chain; for it is in the cordillera of this part that vast blocks of crystal are found, capable of being formed into columns six or seven feet in length.

America is, perhaps, not more remarkable for the immensity of its mountains, than for the vast elevation of its plains. The highest cultivated land in Europe seldom exceeds 2000 feet above the level of the sea, but much of the table land of America is from 6000 to 10,000 feet in altitude. In Peru extensive plains are found at the elevation of 9000, and in Mexico not less than 500,000 square miles is from 6000 to 8000 feet above the sea; which rivals the celebrated pass of Mount Cenis or Mount St. Gothard. Almost interminable plains, too, stretch through the wide regions of South America, at a very slight elevation above the sea. Those of Orinoco, Amazonia, and Buenos Ayres may be mentioned as examples. Those chiefly consist of extensive Savannas, varied in a few places with clumps of palms, but so extremely level that the space of 800 square leagues scarcely presents any inequality.

Such a diversity of surface gives rise to a corresponding variety in the climate, and vegetable productions, of this continent; and all species, from the palms and other majestic trees which adorn the sultry regions of the torrid zone, to the last lichen,

which creeps beneath the eternal snows that cover the summ of the Andes. In ascending from the shore to these upper ridg the plants peculiar to the different districts of the globe appe in regular succession. At an elevation of from 3000 to 5000 fe cassava, cacao, maize, plantains, indigo, sugar, cotton, and cof are produced. Both cotton and coffee also grow at a much grea elevation, and sugar is successfully cultivated in the valley Quito. From 6000 to 9000 feet in elevation, the climate is be suited to the production of all kinds of European grain. Wit these limits, too, are to be found the oak, and various oth species of forest trees; but beyond the height of 9000 feet lar trees of all kinds begin to disappear, except dwarf pines, which a found nearly 13,000 feet above the level of the sea, and abo 2000 feet below the lower limit of perpetual snow. The spac between 13,000 and 15,000 feet, grasses clothe the ground, a from this latter height, the lichen is the only plant which creep on the rocks, and seems to penetrate under the snow. For more copious developement of the physical regions, both of thi and other parts of the globe, we must refer to Myers's *Modern Geography*, two volumes, quarto, 1822.

We shall give the heights of some of the principal summi under the heads of the countries to which they belong, but the following subjects deserve insertion here; *viz.*,

Under the Equator.

	Feet above the sea.
The highest flight of the Condor, about equal the summit of Chimborazo, or more than	21,[illegible]
The highest limit of the lichen	18,[illegible]
Lower limit of perpetual snow	15,[illegible]
The highest limit of pines	12,[illegible]
The highest limit of other trees	11,[illegible]
The highest limit of oaks	10,[illegible]
The highest limit of the Peruvian bark tree	9,[illegible]
The lowest limits of pines	5,[illegible]
The highest limit of palms and bananas	3,[illegible]
The distance between corn and snow, according to Baron Humboldt, about	5,[illegible]

]—Ency.

Rivers.

Owing to the peculiar construction of South America, no river of any magnitude flows from it into the Pacific Ocean, the Andes forming a continued barrier along the whole western coast. For the same reason no important stream enters the Atlantic between 12° and 32° S. lat. More than three-fourths of all the water which falls on this continent is carried to the ocean through the channels of the three great rivers, the Orinoco, the Amazon, and the Plata.

The Orinoco rises in lat. 5° north, and long. 65° west. It

course is very crooked, somewhat resembling the figure 6. For the first 300 miles it runs from north to south. It then turns, and proceeds in a westerly direction for several hundred miles, to St. Fernando, where it receives from the south-west the Guaviari, a very considerable river. Here it turns northward, and, after receiving the Vichada from the west, pours its waters down the cataracts of Atures. These cataracts are 740 miles from the mouth of the Orinoco, and 760 from its source, and completely obstruct the navigation. At the distance of ninety miles below the cataracts, the river is enlarged by the junction of the Meta, one of its principal tributaries, which is 500 miles long and navigable 370 miles. About ninety miles below the mouth of the Meta, the Orinoco receives from the west the Apura, a large and deep river, 520 miles long, having numerous and wide-spreading branches, and more rapid than the Orinoco, into which it empties its waters by many mouths. After receiving the Apura it turns, and, running about 400 miles in an easterly direction, divides into many branches, and discharges its waters into the ocean by fifty mouths, the two most distant of which are 180 miles apart. Only seven, however, are navigable, and but one of them, the southern, called the Ship's Mouth, for vessels of more than 200 tons. All the rivers which rise on the southern declivity of the chain of Venezuela, and on the eastern declivity of the Andes between the parallels of 2° and 9° N. lat. are tributaries of the Orinoco. It thus forms the channel which conveys to the ocean the waters of an immense valley*, extending from east to west about 1000 miles, and from north to south in many parts between 5 and 600.

The Amazon†, the largest river in the world, rises in Peru, between two ridges of the Andes, in about lat. 16° south, under the name of the Apurimac, and, after running in a northerly direction through five degrees of latitude, is joined by other branches, and forms the Ucayale. The Ucayale runs north 6° more, and unites with the Tunguragua, and forms the Amazon. It then runs in a direction a little north of east, completely across the continent, and discharges its waters under the equator by a mouth 180 miles wide, after a course of more than 4000 miles. The tide flows up 400 miles, and the river is navigable to the very foot of the Andes. The principal branches of the Amazon from the south are 1. The Tunguaragua and Ucayale already mentioned. 2. The Madeira, the principal tributary of the Amazon,

* Instead of valley, the term *basin* should have been used here, which implies all that part of country which is watered by the collateral streams, the confluence of which forms the river which imparts its appropriate name. It is thus that we speak of the basin of the Orinoco, the Mississippi, or the Danube.—EDIT.

† This mighty river is now generally denominated the *Maranon*, the native name having superseded the appellation which was derived from a supposed nation of female warriors to whom credulity had assigned a residence on its banks.—EDIT.

rises in the United Provinces near Potosi, about 20° S. l
passes, under various names, into Brazil, where it is joi
numerous other rivers, and makes its way in a north-
direction to the Amazon, into which it falls after a course
than 2000 miles. 3. The Tocantins, which discharge
into the Amazon near its mouth, after a northerly course o
1500 miles. Its principal tributary, the Araguay, rises b
the parallels of 18° and 19° S. lat. The other principal trib
of the Amazon from the south are the Jutay, the Juruay,
Puros, which join it between the Ucayale and the Madei
the Tapajos and Xingu, which join it between the Made
the Tocantins. The principal rivers which fall into the A
on its northern bank, beginning in the west, are the Na
Putumayo or Ica, the Jupura and the Negro. The N
remarkable for sending off a branch towards the north,
under the name of Cassiquiari, falls into the Orinoco, an
unites the Amazon with that mighty stream. All the river
rise on the eastern declivity of the Andes between the para
2° N. lat. and 20° S. lat. are tributaries of the Amazon.
single brook rises in all this distance which does not contri
swell its waters. The valley of the Amazon is thus mo
1500 miles long from north to south; from east to west it i
than 2000; and its area may be estimated at 3,000,000
miles, or nearly half of South America.

The Plata is a very broad stream, formed by the Urugu
the Parana, which unite near lat. 34° S. It is more prope
mouth or estuary of these two rivers, as it is no where less t
miles broad, and at its entrance into the ocean betwe
parallels of 35° and 36°, expands to the width of 150 mile

The Uruguay, the eastern branch of the Plata, rises
western declivity of the Andes of Brazil, and pursues a
westerly course of more than 1000 miles, for the last 200 of
it is navigable.

The Parana, or western branch of the Plata, is formed
union of several small streams, which rise on the western de
of the Andes of Brazil, between 18° and 21° S. lat. It r
the whole in a south-westerly direction for about 1000 mi
it receives the Paraguay from the north, when it turns to the
and after a further course of 500 miles joins the Uruguay.

The Paraguay is formed by several streams which rise b
the parallels of 13° and 14° S. lat. near the head waters
Tapajos, the Xingu, the Tocantins and other tributaries
Amazon. It pursues a southerly course through nearly 14
of latitude, and joins the Parana under the parallel of 27

The Pilcomayo and the Vermejo, the principal western b
of the Paraguay, both rise in the Andes between 20° an
lat. and pursue a south-easterly course of more than 100

The Saladillo is a considerable stream which rises in the interior of Buenos Ayres, and joins the Plata about 50 miles from its mouth, after a south-easterly course of several hundred miles. The valley of the Plata thus includes the extensive country bounded west by the Andes of Chili, north by the Andes of Chiquitos, and east by the Andes of Brazil, embracing more than two-thirds of Buenos Ayres and the southern part of Brazil, and covering an area of about 1,300,000 square miles.

Civil Divisions and Population.

South America is divided into the following countries :—

Countries.	*Square Miles.*	*Population.*
1. Republic of Colombia	1,350,000	3,000,000
2. Guiana	90,000	250,000
3. Peru	495,000	1,076,997
4. Brazil	3,060,000	2,200,000
5. United Provinces of South America	1,440,000	2,400,000
6. Chili	175,500	1,226,000
7. Patagonia	400,000	Unknown
	7,010,500	

The population and extent of the different countries have never been accurately ascertained, but may be estimated nearly as in the above table.

HISTORICAL SKETCH

Of the Discoveries in South America.

It was not until his third voyage that the continent of America was discovered by Columbus. Sailing from Spain on the 30 of May, 1498, he arrived on the 19th of July within five degrees of the line, when his ships were becalmed, and the heat being excessive, most of the liquor was spoiled, and the provisions became corrupted. Such was the heat that the seamen were afraid that their ships would take fire; but these fears were relieved by a seasonable and heavy fall of rain. The eastern part of New Andalusia is celebrated as having been the scene of the first continental discoveries in the new world; the first land discovered on this expedition was the island of Trinidad, which was so named because Columbus had made a vow to give the appellation of the Trinity to the first land he should meet, and also because three mountains were observed at the same moment. This happened on Tuesday, the 31st of July, and having but one cask of water

left, they landed at Punta de la Playa, where the necessary supplies were obtained.

On the 1st of August, while plying between Cape de la Galua (the first cape they made) and Punta de la Playa, Columbus discovered the main land 25 leagues distant, but imagining it another island, he named it Isla Santa. The channel between Trinidad and Isla Santa was named Boca del Sierpe, and the next day he sailed into the lower channel, and called it Boca del Draso. They were so styled on account of the violent and hissing noise which the current of an immense river made in rushing towards the ocean. Columbus concluded that so vast a body of water as this river contained could not be supplied by an island, and consequently that he was now arrived at that continent which it had long been the object of his wishes to discover; the place at which he landed was called by the inhabitants Parea; he found the people to resemble those of Hispaniola in their appearance and habits; they wore as ornaments small plates of gold, and pearls of considerable value. The admiral was so delighted with the beauty and fertility of the country, that he fancied it to be the paradise of the Scriptures: being informed that pearls were found in great abundance among some islands to the west, he steered in that direction, and discovered the isles of Margarita, Cubagua, and others. On the 16th of August, he stood to the north-west, and anchored on the coast of Hispaniola soon afterwards.

In the following year, Alonzo de Ojeda, an attendant of Columbus in his second expedition, set out from Spain with four ships, which the merchants of Seville had equipped. He adhered to the same route that Columbus had taken, arrived on the coast of Paria, traded with the natives, proceeded westward as far as Cape de Vela, and returned by way of Hispaniola to Spain. Among the adventurers on this voyage was Amerigo Vespucci, a native of Florence, and an experienced navigator, who had a considerable share in directing the operations, and on his return published an account of his discoveries. As this was the first description that had appeared of any part of the New World, he was considered as the discoverer of the whole continent: in process of time it came, apparently by general consent, to be called after his name. In the same year, Alonzo Nigno, who had served under Columbus, fitted out a single ship, and sailed to the coast of Paria, but effected no discovery of importance. Soon after Nigno's expedition, Vincent Yanez Pinzon sailed from Palos with four ships, and crossed the equinoctial line, but landed on no part of the American coast beyond the mouth of the river Maranon. In the succeeding year, the coast of Brazil was discovered by Pedro Alvarez Cabral, who. sailing to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope, stood out to sea in order to avoid the variable winds

on the African coasts, and kept so far to the west that he came in sight of a part of the American coast, of which he took possession for the crown of Portugal.

The spirit of discovery now pervaded all ranks in Spain. Rodrigo de Bastidas fitted out two ships in company with John de la Cosa, the most skilful pilot in the kingdom. Having touched at Paria, he proceeded westward, and discovered all the coast of Terra Firma, from Cape Vela to the Gulf of Darien. Not long after this, Ojeda and Amerigo Vespucci set out on a second voyage, following the track of Bartidas, and visited the same places, without making any additional discoveries. In 1513, a discovery of greater importance was made: Balboa, the governor of a small colony, settled at St. Maria, in Darien, happening to display a great eagerness for the acquisition of gold before a young Indian, was informed by him that at the distance of six days' journey to the south, there was another ocean, near to the shore of which was a region in which gold was so common that the meanest utensils were formed of it. This was the first information that the Spaniards had received concerning the opulent country of Peru. Balboa, elated with the prospect of the discoveries before him, was impatient until he could set out on this enterprise, in comparison with which all former exploits appeared inconsiderable. Having collected a number of volunteers from Hispaniola, he set out upon this important expedition on the 1st of September, about the time when the periodical rains began to abate. Though their guides had represented the breadth of the isthmus to be only a journey of six days, they spent twenty-five in forcing their way through the woods and mountains. At length, when they were almost ready to sink with fatigue, the Indians assured them that from the top of the next mountain they should discover the ocean, the object of their wishes. When they had climbed up the greater part of the ascent, Balboa commanded his men to halt, and advanced alone to the summit, that he might be the first to enjoy the sublime spectacle. As soon as he beheld the mighty Pacific rolling its eternal waves beneath him, he fell on his knees, and lifting up his hands to Heaven, returned thanks to Providence for having made him the instrument of so beneficial a discovery. His followers observing his actions, rushed forward to join in his transports of joy and gratitude. They then advanced to the beach, and Balboa entering into the waves, armed with buckler and sword, took possession of the ocean in the name of the king his master, and vowed to defend it with his arms against all his enemies; to that part of the Pacific Ocean which he first discovered, Balboa gave the name of the Gulf of St. Michael. It is situated on the east of Panama, and still retains the appellation. From the natives of the vicinity he obtained a considerable quantity of pearls, and some gold, and received information corroborating the

intelligence he had previously gained of the existence of a mighty and opulent kingdom in the south-east. Anxious as Balboa was to visit this unknown country, his prudence restrained him from attempting to invade it with a handful of men, and he determined to lead back his followers to their settlement at St. Maria, and to return the next season with a more adequate force. In this expectation, however, he was disappointed, and the discovery and conquest of Peru were reserved for another.

Two years after this, discoveries were made in another quarter; De Solis, a skilful navigator, having received the command of two ships, sailed along the coast of South America, entered the Rio Janeiro, and afterwards proceeded to the La Plata. In endeavouring to make a descent in this country, he was slain by the natives, and the survivors of the crew returned to Europe. In the following year, Sebastian Cabot explored the coast as far as Brazil; the vast extent of country, however, whose coast had been thus traced, remained uncolonized by any European power, with the exception of a few Spanish settlements, for almost a century from the time of its discovery.

COLOMBIA.

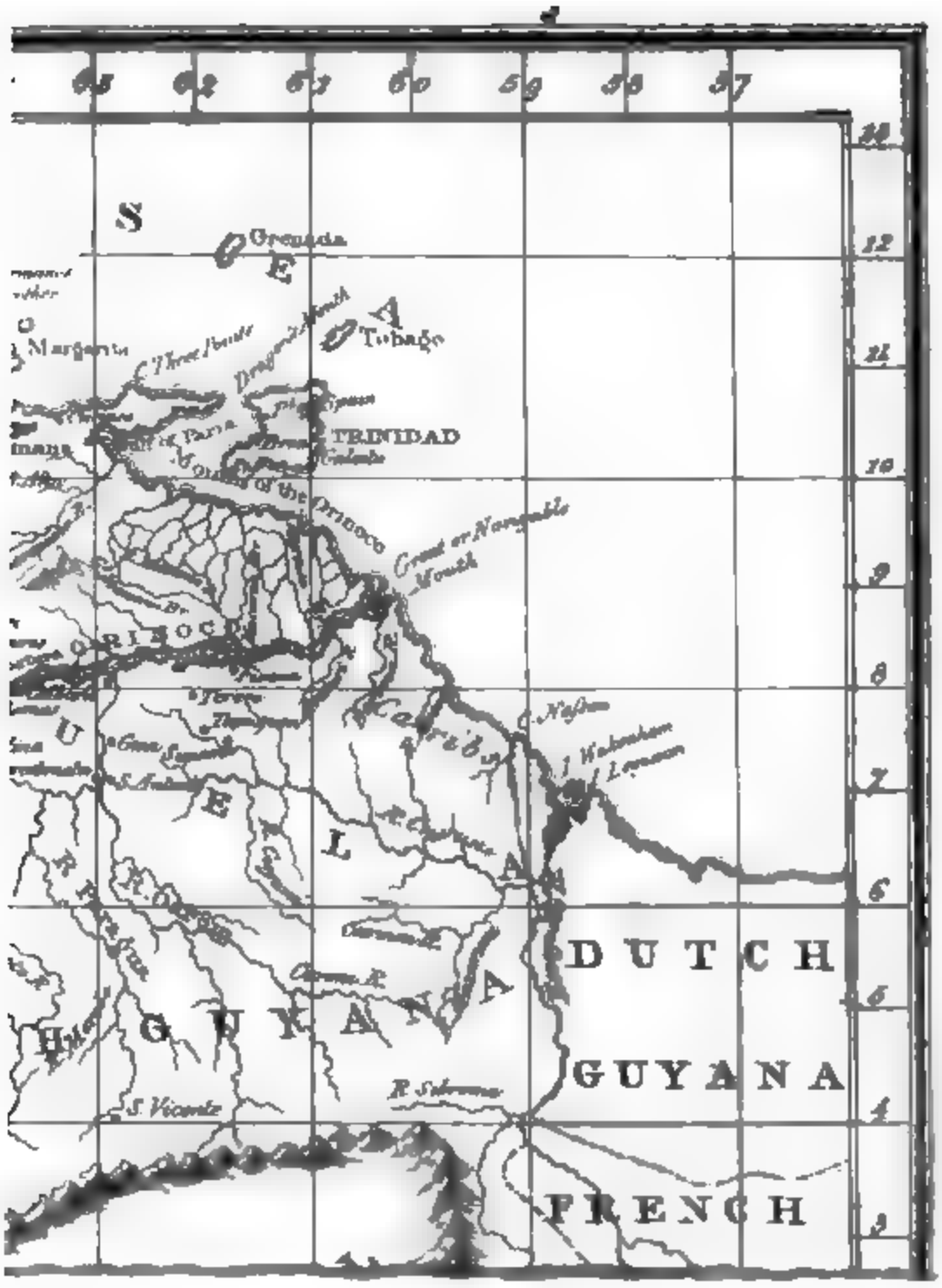
Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

COLOMBIA is situated between 5° 50′ S. and 12° 30′ N. lat. and 58° and 82° W. long. It is bounded north by the Caribbean Sea; north-east by the Atlantic Ocean; east by Guiana, from which it is separated by the river Essequebo; south by Brazil and Peru; west by the Pacific Ocean; and north-west by Guatimala in North America, with which it is connected by the Isthmus of Darien. Its mean length is estimated at 1500 miles, and its breadth 900; the area being about 1,350,000 square miles.

[As the population of this wide district is supposed not to exceed three millions, it is little more than *two* persons to each square mile. Of what an immense increase is it susceptible!]—EDIT.

Face of the Country, Mountains, &c.

The chain of the Andes is continued from Peru along the coast of the Pacific Ocean, through the whole extent of this country from south to north. Near the southern boundary the range divides into two distinct ridges, which run in a northerly direc-



led in the upper regions of the atmosphere, at the ex-
ıary elevation of 9000 feet above the level of the sea.
ı this high base, tower the colossal summits of the Andes.

tion, parallel with each other for 200 miles, enclosing between them a longitudinal valley 20 or 30 miles broad, and elevated 9000 feet above the level of the sea. Between the 2d and 3d degrees of N. lat. the range again divides into three separate chains; the eastern is the chain of Venezuela; the middle the chain of Santa Martha; and the western the proper Andes. The chain of Venezuela runs in a north-easterly direction towards the southern extremity of the lake of Maracaibo, where it divides into two branches, one of which proceeds on the west side of the lake, and terminates near Cape de la Vela on the Caribbean Sea; the other continues in a north-easterly direction, and winds along the northern coast, continually diminishing in height, till it terminates on the Gulf of Paria, opposite the island of Trinidad. The whole country east of the Andes, and south of the chain of Venezuela, consists of immense plains, which stretch out for hundreds of miles in length and width, comprehending the vast tracts watered by the Orinoco and its branches. The district along the banks of the Orinoco, in the lower part of its course, extending 200 leagues from its mouth, and in some places 30 leagues broad, is annually overflowed in the rainy season, and nothing is then discoverable but an occasional hillock, and the tops of the tallest trees.

The loftiest summits of the Andes are immediately south of the equator, in the two ridges in the province of Quito. These ridges rise above the valley included between them like two walls, and are beset with colossal summits, exceeding in height all the other mountains of the New World. The loftiest peak is the celebrated Chimborazo, which rises between 1° and 2° S. lat. to the height of 21,440 feet above the level of the sea, and for nearly 5000 feet from its top is covered with perpetual snow. Volcanoes are very numerous. Of these the most dreadful, on account of the frequency and violence of its eruptions, is Cotopaxi, which rises at the distance of 40 miles south-east of the city of Quito to the height of 18,890 feet above the level of the sea. Antisana is situated to the north of Cotopaxi, and is 19,150 feet above the level of the sea.

[One of the most singular phenomena of these upper regions, is the valley of Quito, which enjoys a delightful climate, and exhibits a greatly concentrated population. Populous towns have been erected in this celebrated tract, and those who reside in that elevated, and as it relates to the rest of the world, secluded, spot, where the mercury in the barometer stands at the level of 20 inches, gradually forget that every surrounding object, the towns crowded with inhabitants, the pastures with flocks, the fields waving with luxuriant harvests, hangs, as it were, suspended in the upper regions of the atmosphere, at the extraordinary elevation of 9000 feet above the level of the sea.

From this high base, tower the colossal summits of the Andes.

Some of the most celebrated of which within the present government, are the following: viz.,

Mountains	*Height in Feet*
Chimborazo, the highest peak of the Andes	21,440
The height attained by Humboldt and Bonpland on this mountain in 1802, and the highest spot on the globe ever trodden by man	19,400
Cajambe, the next highest peak	19,460
Antisana, a volcanic summit	19,150
Cotopaxi, remarkable for its frequent eruptions	18,396
Illinissa	17,288
Nevada de Santa Marta	16,490
Catocatche	16,450
Tonguaraguo, a volcanic summit	16,270
Nevada de Merida	15,201
Farm house on Antisana, the highest known inhabited place on the globe	13,500
Pambomarca	13,300
The city of Quito	9,630
Imbabura, a volcano which frequently ejects fish	8,960
The city of Santa Fe de Bagota	8,694
Town of Leon de Caraccas	3,490

]—Edit.

Rivers.

All the large rivers which rise east of the Andes, and south of the chain of Venezuela, are tributaries of the Orinoco, or of the Amazon; those which rise west of the Andes fall into the Pacific Ocean, and those between the eastern and western branches flow north into the Caribbean Sea. The Orinoco, the Amazon, and their branches, have already been described under the general account of South America.

The Magdalena, the largest of the remaining streams, rises near Popayan, near the parallel of 2° N. lat., and pursuing a northerly direction between the eastern and middle branches of the Andes, falls into the Caribbean Sea, after a course of 1000 miles, for 600 of which it is navigable.

The Cauca rises also near Popayan, and pursuing a northerly course of about 500 miles, between the middle and western branches of the Andes, falls into the Magdalena.

The Atrato is a considerable river, which falls into the Gulf of Darien, after a northerly course of two or three hundred miles.

The Guayaquil, which falls into the gulf of the same name, is navigable for 120 miles.

The Guarapiche River falls into the Gulf of Paria.

Bays and Lakes.

The principal bays on the coast of the Pacific Ocean are, the Gulf of Guayaquil in the south, the Bay of Choco in the middle, and the Bay of Panama in the north. On the northern coast are

the Gulf of Darien, which is separated from the Bay of Panama by the Isthmus of Darien; the Gulf of Maracaibo, which is enclosed between two peninsulas, and communicates with the Caribbean Sea by a mouth 40 miles wide; the Gulf of Cariaco, formed by a long narrow peninsula which projects from the main land to the south of the Island of Margarita; and the Gulf of Paria, formed by the main land on the west, and the Island of Trinidad on the east. Lake Maracaibo is 200 miles long and 70 broad, and communicates with the Gulf of Maracaibo through a narrow strait, which is well defended by strong forts. A large lake, called Lake Parima, is frequently laid down on the maps a little to the east of the sources of the Orinoco, but its dimensions and even its existence have never been ascertained; it has therefore been omitted in this work.

Soil and Productions.

The soil of this country is fertile in all the richest productions of the temperate and torrid zones. The low plains produce in abundance sugar-cane, coffee, cacao, cotton, tobacco, beautiful timber for ship-building, valuable dye-woods, and medicinal plants of various kinds. The cacao of Caraccas is twice as valuable as that of the Antilles; the indigo is inferior to none but that of Guatimala; the tobacco is said to be worth as much again as the best Virginia or Maryland; the coffee would rival that of Mocha, if the same care were used in its preparation. The plains of the Orinoco are covered with immense herds of mules, oxen, and horses. Maize, wheat, and all the European plants and vegetables are cultivated on the high plains, as successfully as in New Spain.

Though no mention is here made of mineral products, it must not be inferred that these do not exist; for gold abounds in the provinces of Antioquia and Chocho, and is obtained by washing the alluvial soil. The silver of these provinces is also remarkably pure, and it was long supposed that platina was alone to be found in Choco. Quicksilver is likewise obtained in various places; while emeralds, and other precious stones, are imported. Nor are the inferior metals unknown; but the mining industry of the country has always been confined to the acquisition of the precious metals. Salt is also one of the mineral products of this part of South America.

Climate.

The climate varies according to the elevation. On the coasts and in the low country it is excessively hot and unhealthy. The elevated plains between the double ridge of the Andes, although directly under the equator, in the centre of the torrid zone, enjoy a temperate and steady climate. The temperature in the city of Leon de Caraccas also, which is elevated nearly 8000 feet above the sea, is delightful throughout the year.

[There appears to be a mistake relative to the height of the city; for, in a subsequent paragraph, the author states it at 2900 feet. In the above list of elevations we have given another estimate, which is perhaps nearer than either; the latter being too little, and the former obviously too great. No country experiences a greater variety of climate than Colombia. This extends through every gradation, from the most sultry plains to those regions of intense cold, where even vegetable life becomes extinct, and the Genius of frost may be conceived to have fixed his permanent abode. In these latitudes, however, the difference of the seasons is scarcely perceptible: those that are cold are perpetually exposed to the same severity, and those that are hot experience no remission of their intensity. Some of the finest scenery in the world is also to be found in New Grenada. The snowy ridges of the mountains, the regularity of the line of perpetual snow, and the luxuriance of the plains, form an unparalleled assemblage of the grand and picturesque features of nature.]—EDIT.

Civil Divisions and Population.

The republic is composed of the united provinces of New Granada and Venezuela; and contains the following divisions:

Cundinamarca, Quito, } recently New Granada.
Venezuela,
Spanish Guiana.

There are other divisions; but the republic being recently formed, considerable alterations will probably be made in the organization. Panama has recently declared itself independent, and requested to be admitted into the confederation.

The population is estimated at nearly 3,000,000. It is composed of whites, Indians, mestizoes, negroes, and mulattoes. Many of the Indian tribes in this country have been brought into subjection to the whites, and have become partially civilized by the labours of the Catholic missionaries. They are allowed to live in villages by themselves, and to be governed by magistrates of their own choice. The principal Indians remaining unsubdued, are the Goahiros, who are about 30,000 in number, and occupy a tract along the coast to the west of the Gulf of Maracaibo. They often make inroads upon the neighbouring settlements. The Guaraunos, who inhabit the islands formed by the mouths of the Orinoco, are about 8000 in number. The Caraibes occupy the coast of Spanish Guiana, between the mouths of the Essequebo and the Orinoco: they have been troublesome neighbours, but, it is supposed, might be subdued without much difficulty. Besides these tribes, all the country on the Orinoco above the cataracts of Atures, and indeed all the immense tract between the sources of the Orinoco and those of the Amazon, are inhabited by

ations of savages, who have hitherto resisted all the efforts of the paniards to civilize or subdue them.

Chief Towns.

Santa Fe de Bogota, formerly the capital of the viceroyalty of ew Granada, and now the seat of government for the republic, on the small river Bogota, a tributary of the Magdalena. It is andsomely built, on a spacious fertile plain, elevated more than 00 feet above the level of the sea, and contains about 30,000 habitants.

[For the elevation of this and two of the following towns, see e preceding list.]—EDIT.

St. Thomas is regularly laid out on the south bank of the Orioco, and contains 7000 inhabitants.

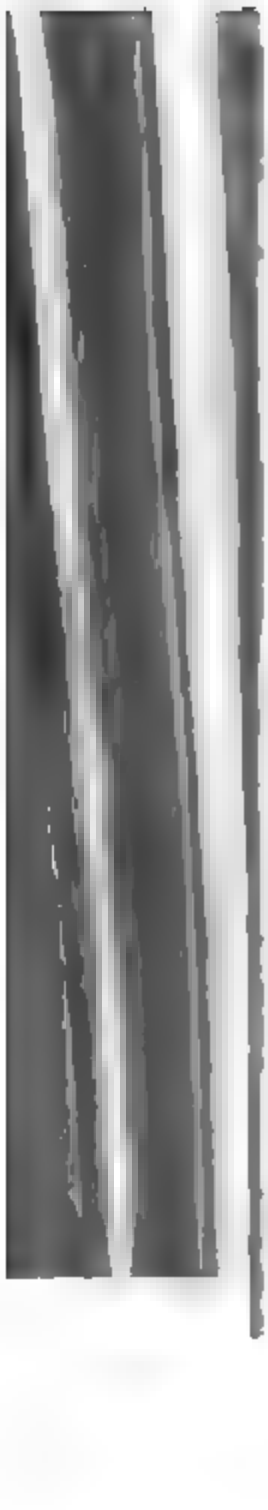
Leon de Caraccas is situated among the mountains near the orthern coast, in a valley elevated 2900 feet above the level of the a. It is regularly laid out, and in 1802 contained 42,000 inabitants, of whom one-fourth were whites, and the rest negroes, ndians, and mulattoes. In March 1812, a dreadful earthquake estroyed many houses, and buried 12,000 persons in the ruins. a Guayra, the port of Caraccas, is on the coast, seven miles orth of the city, in an unhealthy situation, being surrounded by fty mountains which exclude the breeze. The harbour, though ore frequented than any other on the coast, is open to the wind, nd continually agitated by the surge of the sea, which renders ading and unloading extremely inconvenient, and sometimes imossible. The population is about 6000.

Quito is situated in the Andes, almost under the equator, at he distance of about 100 miles from the coast of the Pacific cean. It is built on the side of the volcanic mountain of Pichincha, at an elevation of 9510 feet above the level of the sea. : has a delightful climate, but is exposed to dreadful earthquakes; e population is about 70,000, of whom one-sixth are whites, and e rest Indians and mestizoes.

Carthagena, in long. 76° west, has a spacious harbour, defended m every wind, with a sufficient depth of water and good anchore; but the entrance is very narrow. The climate is excessively t and unhealthy; but its advantageous situation has, notwithnding, made it a place of extensive trade; the population is timated at 24,000.

Porto Bello is on the north coast of the isthmus of Darien. has an excellent harbour, but the situation is unhealthy, and the pulation is inconsiderable.

Panama, on the south side of the isthmus of Darien, 65 miles uth of Porto Bello, at the bottom of the bay of Panama, was rmerly a place of great trade. Guayayquil is on the west bank the river of the same name, about 20 miles from its mouth.



·18,000 in number, are principally engaged in the fisheries.

Porto Cabello, situated on a peninsula about Leon, is the commercial emporium of a cons Its harbour is one of the best in America, being completely protected from the surge of the sea, wind, and well defended by several forts. The in number, are principally employed in commerce and have been heretofore extensively engaged i trade with Curaçoa and Jamaica.

Popayan is situated on the Andes, under lat. 250 miles south-west of the capital, on an exte vated 5905 feet above the level of the sea, and i vicinity of two great volcanoes. The population 25,000, of whom one-third are negroes.

Angostura, situated on the Orinoco River, a from its outlet, is a place of considerable trade. 7000 inhabitants.

Canals and Inland Navigation.

Various plans have been proposed for conn oceans by canals. The small river Chagre, which fall bean Sea a little west of Porto-Bello, is navigable leagues from Panama. The elevation of the c Cruces and Panama has never been accurate but it is supposed would interpose no obstacle to a though it might be wholly impossible to constru vessels. A branch of the Rio Atrato, which fall of Darien, approaches within five or six league Ocean, and the intervening country is quite level a canal. Another branch of the Rio Atrato app

of the Meta, also, a navigable communication is opened almost to the very foot of the Andes. The flour and other productions of an extensive district near Santa Fe de Bogota, are conveyed to market by the Orinoco in preference to the Magdalena.

Commerce.

The principal exports are cacao, indigo, tobacco, coffee, and cattle; the imports are manufactured goods of almost every description; the contraband trade has been carried on to such an extent by the foreign colonies in the neighbourhood, that it is impossible, from the custom-house returns, to form any estimate of the real value of the imports or exports; the Dutch in Curaçoa have been engaged in this trade for nearly two centuries, and the English have recently prosecuted it very extensively from Trinidad, Jamaica, and Guiana; and such are the facilities afforded by the vicinity of these colonies, the extent of coast, and the navigation of the Orinoco, that it will be very difficult to suppress it.

Religion.

The religion is the Roman Catholic, and the priests were formerly excessively numerous; but of late years military distinctions, and the honours and emoluments of civil life, have drawn away great numbers of the young men from the clerical office.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

The republic of Colombia is of very recent origin, although the history of the two states, by the union of which it has been formed, is coeval with the era of Columbus. Previously to the year 1811, these states were known, by the name of the viceroyalty of Granada, and the captain-generalship of Caraccas. Of these annals prior to the union, a brief sketch will here be given.

NEW GRANADA.

The coasts of New Granada, which border on the Caribbean sea, were first visited by Columbus, during his fourth voyage. Sailing from Spain to the West Indies, he arrived with his fleet at St. Domingo, where, having been refused permission to enter, he was obliged to stand to the west; and, after sailing in this direction for a few days, discovered a little island off the Cape of Honduras, where his brother landed and traded with the natives. Prosecuting their voyage, they touched at the cape itself, on which they landed to take possession for the crown of Spain. After performing this ceremony, the fleet proceeded along the shore,

and was compelled by the easterly winds to double a cape, which the pilots performing with difficulty, gave it the name of Cape Gracias á Dios. Columbus touched in the course of the voyage at Veragua, Nombre de Dios, Belos, Porto Bello, and many other places. At Veragua he sent his brother up into the country to search for gold, and Bartholomew returning with a considerable quantity, the admiral wished to have planted a colony here: but after several fruitless attempts, abandoned the design. Ojeda and Amerigo Vespucci, as well as many other adventurous persons, followed Columbus in exploring parts of the coast of New Granada, and Vespucci gave the first regular description of the people who inhabited its shores. In the year 1508, Ojeda and Nicuessa obtained from the Spanish crown extensive grants in this district and the adjoining country. Ojeda had the country from Cape de la Vela to the Gulf of Darien included in his charter, which tract was to be styled New Andalusia; and Nicuessa was appointed to govern from the Gulf of Darien to Cape Gracias á Dios; the territory included within these points to be named Golden Castile. Soon after the arrival of Ojeda at Carthagena, he imprudently attacked the natives, and lost the greater part of his men; but was fortunately relieved by the arrival of Nicuessa; he then went to the Gulf of Darien, and established a colony on the eastern promontory, which he named St. Sebastian. The new colony was reduced to such distress in a short time, that it was determined to proceed to Carthagena: but while on their passage they met with two vessels bringing supplies; and returning to St. Sebastian, found their town destroyed by the natives. The whole colony then sailed to the river of Darien, where they attacked and conquered an Indian tribe, and founded a town, which they named Santa Maria del Darien. In the mean time Nicuessa endeavoured to establish a colony at Nombre de Dios: but a deputation being sent to request him to assume the government, (Ojeda having died), he repaired thither: but on his arrival, found that great dissensions had arisen among the colonists; who, instead of appointing him to the government, put him in a decayed vessel, and sent him to sea, where he is supposed to have perished. The province of Terra Firma, including both the grants of Nicuessa and Ojeda, was given by a subsequent charter, in 1514, to Pedro Arias de Avila, under whose government Vasco Nunez de Balboa, the discoverer of the South Sea, was beheaded on account of a revolt. Under the orders of Avila, the western coast of Panama, Veragua, and Darien was explored as far north as Cape Blanco, and the town of Panama was founded. In 1536, Sebastian de Benalcarar, one of the officers who accompanied Pizarro in the expedition to Peru, effected the conquest and colonization of the southern internal provinces of New Granada; whilst Gonzalo Ximenes de Quesada, who had been sent by Lugo, the admiral of the Canaries, overrun the northern districts from Santa

Marta. They met with considerable opposition from the natives: but finally succeeded in reducing the country, and the whole was formed into a kingdom, and governed by a captain-general, appointed in 1547; to check whose power the royal audience was established, of which he was, however, made president.

In the year 1718, New Granada was formed into a viceroyalty. This form of government continued until 1724, when the captain-generalship was restored; but, in 1740, the viceroyalty was re-established. Under this system, the evils of which were of a very grievous nature, the inhabitants of New Granada continued until the invasion of Spain by the French. The desire of independence had long been prevalent; but it was not until 1816, that it began to be publicly avowed. The juntas then chosen were composed of persons generally favourable to independence. A Congress from the different provinces or departments of the viceroyalty soon afterwards assembled, and in 1811, a formal declaration of independence was made. The country has since that period passed through many vicissitudes of fortune. The cause of freedom and that of the royalists have been alternately triumphant, and many frightful scenes of rapine and bloodshed have occurred. In 1816, a decisive action was fought between the independents and a Spanish army under Morillo, which ended in the total defeat of the former, and the dispersion of the Congress. After remaining under the dominion of the royalists for three years, Granada was again emancipated by the army of Bolivar, who entered Santa Fe in August, 1819. His successes since that period have been uniform and brilliant; and at the beginning of the year 1822, the only point occupied by the Spanish armies was the isthmus of Panama. In December, 1819, an union was effected with Venezuela in one republic.

CARACCAS, OR VENEZUELA.

The coast of this country was originally discovered by Columbus in 1498, during his third voyage. He then sailed along the shores from the Oronoko to Margarita. Several voyages were afterwards undertaken by adventurers; and some attempts being made to colonise, the Spanish government came to the determination of settling the country, under its own direction. These expeditions, being managed by priests, were generally ill-conducted, and it was found necessary to subdue the inhabitants by force. When this was partially effected, and the Spanish settlers were placed in some security, the proprietorship was sold by Charles V. to the Weltsers, a German mercantile company. Under their management, the Spaniards and the natives suffered the most grievous tyranny. The abuses of their administration becoming at last intolerable; they were dispossessed in 1550, and a supreme governor, with the title of captain-general, was appointed. From this period until the year 1806, Caraccas remained in quiet sub-

jection to the mother country. In 1806, a gallant but u tunate attempt was made to liberate her from the yoke. Ge Miranda, a native of Caraccas, formed for this purpose an e dition, partly at St. Domingo, and partly at New York. landing was effected on the coast; but the force proved wh inadequate to the designed object. Many were taken priso by the Spanish authorities, and several suffered the penalt death. The defeat was decisive, and gave an effectual blow, the time, to the project of independence. In 1810, howe Spain being overrun by the French troops, the opportunity seized by the principal inhabitants to establish a freer form government. For this purpose, a *junta suprema*, or congress, convened in Caraccas, composed of deputies from all the provinc composing the former captain-generalship, with the exception Marycaybo.

At first they published their acts in the name of Ferdinand VII. but the captain-general and the members of the audiencia were deposed and imprisoned, and the new government received the title of the confederation of Venezuela. The most violent and impolitic measures were now adopted by the regency and cort of Spain towards the people of this district. The congress, finding the voice of the people decided in favour of independence, issued a proclamation on the 5th of July, 1811, formally proclaiming it. A liberal constitution was established, and affairs wore a favourable aspect for the cause of freedom, until the fatal earthquake of 1812, which, operating on the superstition of the people, led to a great change in the public opinion. Monteverde, a royalist general, taking advantage of the situation of affairs, marched against Caraccas, and, after defeating General Miranda, compelled the whole province to submit. In 1813, however, Venezuela was again emancipated by Bolivar, who was sent with an army by the confederation of Granada. In 1814, he was in his turn defeated by Boves, and compelled to evacuate Caraccas. In 1816, he again returned with a respectable body of troops, and was again defeated. Undismayed by reverses, he landed again in December of the same year, convened a general congress, and defeated the royalists in March, 1817, with great loss. In the month following, however, Barcelona was taken by the Spanish troops. The contest was maintained for some time afterwards with various success. Bolivar was invested by the congress with ample powers, the situation of the republic requiring the energy of a dictator. On the 17th of December, 1819, an union between the republics of Granada and Venezuela was solemnly decreed in conformity with the report of a select committee of deputies from each state. This confederation received the title of

THE REPUBLIC OF COLUMBIA.

In conformity with the fundamental law, the installation o

)und the sources of the

in conformity with the fundamental law, the installation of the

gress of Columbia took place on the 6th of May, city of Rosario of Cucuta. The first measure con- is body was the constitution, and it was finally deter- he two states should form one nation, under a popular e government, divided into legislative, executive, and olivar, the president, was in the mean time actively bringing the war to a close. On the 24th of June, ought the memorable battle of Carabobo, in which army was totally defeated, with the loss of their ggage, and upwards of six thousand men. At the f 1822, only Porto Cabello, in Venezuela, and the Panama, in New Granada, remained in possession of ls.

BRAZIL.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

including Portuguese Guiana, is situated between 4° S. lat.; and 35° and 72° W. long. It is bounded by the Republic of Colombia, French Guiana, and Ocean; east and south-east by the Atlantic Ocean; United Provinces, Peru, and Colombia. Its mean north to south is about 1800 miles, and its mean 0, the area being 3,060,000 square miles, or 00 acres.

pulation of this vast country is not much above two resents little more than two persons for every three but it should be remembered that the greater part of ne immense and almost impenetrable forest.—]Edit.

ce of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

f mountains, termed the Brazilian Andes, runs and at no great distance from, the coast, from 10° to th the steepest side towards the sea, and sloping ly towards the interior. In the west, the country id by gentle gradations attains to the height of from feet above the level of the sea, where it spreads out rren and sandy plains known under the name of xis, which occupy the very centre of South America, urces of the Tapajos and part of the head waters of

the Madeira. Nearly the whole of Brazil is covered by a vast forest, scarcely 20,000 square miles being as yet brought under cultivation.

The soil, so far as it has been explored, is extremely fertile and well watered. In so extensive a country the productions must, of course, be very much diversified. The northern provinces produce cotton, sugar, coffee, tobacco, and all the common fruits and vegetables of tropical climates; while in the south wheat and other European grains are raised in abundance, and in some districts the country swarms with innumerable herds of cattle. The forests every where abound with the greatest varieties of useful and beautiful wood, well adapted for dyeing, for cabinet work, or for ship-building. But the most precious productions of Brazil are diamonds and gold, which are abundant, especially in the capitania of Minas Geraes. They are chiefly found in the beds of the mountain torrents or in deep valleys, in a stratum of rounded pebbles or gravel, from which they are separated by washing. All the head waters of the great rivers which flow northward, and fall into the Amazon, as the Araguaya, the Xingu, the Tapajoz, and the Madeira, are found fertile with gold. The principal diamond ground is in the capitania of Minas Geraes, among the mountains in which the Rio Francisco and the Rio Grande have their rise. What is termed the Diamond District extends about 50 miles from north to south, and 25 from east to west around the sources of these rivers. This territory is under military government, and guards are stationed on all the roads to examine travellers, and detain persons suspected of smuggling diamonds.

Rivers.

The principal tributaries of the Amazon, beginning in the west, are, the Madeira, the Tapajos, the Xingu, and the Tocantins, all of which flow from south to north, and the least of them has a course of more than 1000 miles. The Paraguay, the Parana, and the Uraguay, rise in this country, and pass into the United Provinces. These rivers open a navigable communication from the ocean to almost every part of the interior.

The most remarkable streams which fall directly into the ocean, beginning in the north are:—1. The Parnaiba, which discharges itself from the northern coast, in long. 42° west: 2. the Rio Francisco, which rises on the western declivity of the Brazilian Andes, near the parallel of 20° S. lat., and, pursuing a northern course, at last turns to the east, and discharges its waters under the parallel of 11° S. lat. after a course of 1000 miles: 3. the Rio Grande, which rises near the sources of the Francisco, and falls into the ocean a little north of Porto Seguro, in lat. 15° S.; 4. the Doce, which rises near the 21st degree of S. lat., near the elevated town of Villa Rica, and being joined by several considerable streams, falls into the sea in about 19° 30′; 5. the

Paraiba, which pursues a north-easterly course of 150 miles along the foot of the eastern declivity of the mountains, and discharges itself in lat. 22° S.; 6. the Rio Grande, the second of the same name, discharges itself in lat. 32° S.

Climate.

This extensive country, stretching from the equator to 34° S. lat., has a diversified climate. In some places the heats are great, but tempered by the mountains and the humidity of the atmosphere. In the southern parts the weather is mild and temperate, the thermometer sometimes falling below 40°; and the whole is considered healthy.

[As the northern parts of Brazil are situated near the middle of the torrid zone, the heat in the lower regions is often sultry and oppressive, but the moisture of the atmosphere keeps vegetation in perpetual vigour. Here there is little difference in the seasons: the days and nights scarcely vary in length; the sun declines only a few degrees from his vertical position; the trees never lose their foliage, nor is the ground ever destitute of flowers. Many of the trees and plants are adorned with blossoms of the most beautiful kinds, which being intermixed with leaves of the brightest green, impart to the forests of these regions a splendour unparalleled in the temperate zones. Near the shores of the Atlantic, where the trade wind constantly blows, its refreshing influence is daily felt. In the more elevated parts, and at a greater distance from the equator, the climate is proportionably mild. In reference to this part of the New World, it has been emphatically observed,—"A finer country than Brazil—one blessed with a more genial climate, or possessing a more fruitful soil; one more happily diversified with wood and water; intersected with navigable rivers; or richer in mineral treasures, is scarcely to be found in the whole compass of the globe."—MYERS's *Modern Geography*, Vol. II. p. 763.]—EDIT.

Civil Divisions and Population.

Portuguese Guiana includes all the part north of the Amazon. The rest of the country is divided into the following twelve provinces, called capitanias:

1. Para.
2. Maranham.
3. Seara.
4. Pernambuco.
5. Bahia.
6. Minas Geraes.
7. Rio Janeiro.
8. St. Paul.
9. St. Catherina. *(Island on East Coast.)*
10. Rio Grande.
11. Goias.
12. Matto Grosso.

The total population, at present, is estimated at 2,400,000. In 1792, it consisted, according to Hassel, of 2,184,273, of which number one-sixth were whites of Portuguese origin, one-half negroes and mulattoes, and the remainder independent Indians.

Part of Nunnery at Santa Theresa

Chief Towns.

Rio Janeiro, or St. Sebastian, stands in lat. 22° 54′ S. on the shore of a large bay or harbour, at the foot of several high mountains which rise behind it. The harbour is easy of access, and one of the finest in the world for capaciousness and security. The entrance, which is about two miles wide, is bounded on one side by a conical hill, 700 feet in height, and on the other by a huge mass of granite, which supports the castle of Santa Cruz. Near the middle lies a small island, on which Fort Lucia is built The channel through which ships enter, lies between the two forts. Though at first narrow, the harbour gradually widens to about three or four miles; in several directions it branches farther than the eye can reach, and is interspersed with numerous little islands and peninsulas. The town stands on the west side of the harbour, four miles from the entrance, on a projecting tongue of land, at the extreme point of which is a fort commanding the town. Opposite this point, and separated from it by a deep and narrow channel, is Serpent Island, around which are the usual anchoring places for the shipping that frequent the port. The town is generally well built, the houses being usually of stone or brick, and the churches and convents are numerous. The population is estimated at 100,000*, of whom about one-half are negroes. This city is the chief mart of Brazil, especially of the provinces of Minas Geraes, St. Paul's, Goias, and Matto Grosso, which contain the mining districts.

St. Salvador, or Bahia, is in lat. 12° 45′ S. on the Bay of All Saints, which puts up from south to north about 40 miles, and is eight miles broad at the mouth. The town is built on the eastern shore of the bay, commencing about one mile from the point at the entrance. It extends upwards of three miles along the coast, and near the centre, more than a mile into the interior, gradually narrowing, however, towards each extremity. A single street runs along the shore the whole length of the town. Immediately back of this, the land rises suddenly to the height of 400 feet, and the principal part of the town is on the top of the hill, from which there is a magnificent prospect of the bay, and the surrounding country. The descent from the upper to the lower town is steep and laborious, and heavy packages are conveyed up and down by cranes and other machinery. The harbour is well defended by numerous forts and batteries, and affords good anchorage close to the shore, where vessels lie perfectly safe from every wind.

* Mr. Henderson, in his work on Brazil lately published, states the population of Rio Janeiro at 150,000; about two-thirds of whom, he says, are negroes, mulattoes, and others of various complexions. Mr. Luccock describes a vast improvement as having taken place in this transatlantic metropolis during the time it was the residence of the Portuguese court: and it is to be hoped, that the increase in domestic comforts which has thus been experienced, will induce the Rio Janeirians still to prosecute what has been so auspiciously begun.—Edit.

Part Nunnery of Santa Theresa

e town contains numerous churches and convents, many of m elegant, and the houses are almost universally of stone, and dsomely built. The population is estimated at upwards of),000, of whom 30,000 are whites, 30,000 mulattoes, and the negroes. The commerce is very extensive.

Pernambuco lies on the coast, north-east of St. Salvador, in 8° south. The town consists of three divisions, Recife, St. onio, and Boa Vista. The division of Recife, which is nearest sea, and where the principal part of the business is transacted, uilt at the extremity of a long narrow sand bank, which projects thward from the main land. The division of St. Antonio, the est and handsomest part of the town, is on a sandy island, nected with Recife by a narrow bridge. Boa Vista, situated the continent, and united with St. Antonio by a wooden bridge, sists chiefly of small houses built in a straggling manner. The bour is formed by a reef of rocks, which runs in front of the sion of Recife, and parallel with it, at a very small distance. nas two entrances, defended by two forts. The tide enters er the bridges, and forms a large expanse of water, more than e miles in length, having much the appearance of a lake, on north side of the town. Pernambuco is a thriving place, inha- d by many opulent merchants, who carry on considerable merce, chiefly in cotton. The population is estimated at 000.

Pernambuco is generally understood to comprehend both the n of Recife and the city of Ollinda, which stands very near it, is joined to it by a narrow sand bank. It is so considered by . Henderson, who states the population of both parts at 65,000 ividuals.]—Edit.

Para, the capital of the province of the same name, is on the r Tocantins, 60 miles from its mouth. It contains 10,000 abitants. Maranham, or St. Luis de Maranham, is on an nd of the same name, at the mouth of three small rivers, which charge themselves on the northern coast, in long. 43° 37′ W. has a convenient harbour, and 15,000 inhabitants.

Santos, situated on the coast W. S. W. of Rio Janeiro, is a ce of considerable commerce, being the storehouse of the ca- ania of St. Paul, and employing many vessels in the coasting de to the Rio de la Plata. Population, 7000.

St. Paul, the capital of the capitania of the same name, is an erior town, about forty miles from Santos, in the neighbour- od of gold mines, which were formerly very productive, but ve been exhausted for more than a century. Population 15,000.

Rio Grande, or St. Pedro, near the southern extremity of Bra- , in about lat. 32° S., is a new but very flourishing commercial wn. The port is dangerous to enter, the water being shoal, and violent sea always running. There is, notwithstanding, a great de carried on from this place to all the ports of Brazil, in brigs

and small vessels that do not draw above ten feet water. The vicinity of the town is very populous, the number of inhabitants in a circuit of twenty leagues being estimated at 100,000. Their principal occupation is the breeding of cattle, and the number of hides exported from Rio Grande is almost incredible. Wheat is also shipped from this port to all the towns on the coast.

Villa Rica, the capital of the province of Minas Geraes, is in the interior, 250 miles north of Rio Janeiro, in the vicinity of gold mines, which for many years were esteemed the richest on the globe. The population is about 20,000.

Tejuco, the capital of the diamond district, lies 200 miles north of Villa Rica, near the sources of the Jigitonhonha, a branch of the Rio Grande.

Cuiaba, the most western of the mining stations in Brazil, is on a river of the same name, ninety-six leagues from its confluence with the Paraguay.

Inland Communication.

The roads in the interior are generally bad; but there are some which have been made at great expense, and are tolerably good. The road from the coast to St. Paul's, passes over lofty mountains, is carried through deep forests, and frequently a path is cut through the solid rock at a vast expense. The usual mode of travelling and of transporting produce is by mules. The communication between the coast and the mining district around Cuiaba, is carried on from St. Paul's and Santos, by means of the intervening rivers. The following is the common route from St. Paul's to Cuiaba. From St. Paul's to the banks of the Tiete, a branch of the Parana, which passes within a few leagues of the town; then down the Piete into the Parana, and down the Parana to the mouth of the Rio Pardo, which falls into it from the west. Proceeding up the Rio Pardo and its branches, you arrive within a short distance of the branches of the Taquari, a branch of the Paraguay. Crossing the portage to the Taquari, you descend that river to the Paraguay, and proceed up the Paraguay to the Porrudos, and up the Porrudos to the mouth of the Cuiaba, and up the Cuiaba to the town of the same name. By this route, salt, iron, ammunition, &c., are sent annually by the government of Brazil to the western districts.

Commerce.

The commerce of Brazil was formerly subjected by the Portuguese government to all the usual restraints imposed by the colonial system of Europe. But after the emigration of the court to Rio Janeiro, the old restrictions were done away, and a commercial treaty was concluded with Great Britain, by which all the ports of the country were opened to British vessels and British produce, on payment of a duty of 15 per cent. British manufactures of every description are now imported to a great extent.

ugal continues to send oil, wine, brandy, linens, and cottons. ı the United States are imported flour, salted provisions, ehold furniture, and naval stores. The principal exports are ın, coffee, sugar, tobacco and Brazil wood from the north- provinces; gold and diamonds from the middle; and wheat, , horn, hair, and tallow, from the southern.

Ir. Luccock, who has given the latest and most detailed ac- t of Brazilian commerce with which we are acquainted, de- es it as having recently experienced a considerable increase. er foreign commerce," he says, " although not carried on by wn shipping or seamen, nor with her own capital, is of great ntage to Brazil. Brazil, indeed, is placed in singular cir- stances. It is not in the power of commerce to take from ny thing but the produce of her own labour; it can yield nothing that is valuable but the proceeds of foreign inge- . If it be asked, what she wants? the reply is, nothing uxuries. Are gold, silver, or jewels, desirable? She pos- s them in abundance; they cost her only labour. Does the try refuse to yield corn, or wine, or oil, or any thing else h is valuable in the support of life? It has been controlled olonial laws, and has not yet recovered from the injury which have done. Do the people want clothing, or furniture, or les of show and parade? These depend upon taste and on, and Brazil will receive no more of them than her sur- labour, which must always be voluntary in its degree, ay for. She can never purchase when she ceases to sell; rade is only barter; hence the balance can never be against and that country must be her best friend which makes the st purchases."

is writer has given a variety of tables to illustrate the na- and extent of the coasting, colonial, and foreign trade of il, but for these we must refer such of our readers as feel in- ted in the subject to the close of his work. The following arative view of the trade of its two chief ports, however, we extract.

nerce of Rio de Janeiro compared with that of Bahia, for A. D. 1816.

	INWARDS.		OUTWARDS.	
uese Vessels from the ports of	*Rio de Jan.*	*Bahia.*	*Rio de Jan.*	*Bahia.*
azil	1062	290	862	214
ica	43	21	56	37
rtugal and the Isles . .	78	75	57	56
ver Plata	47	7	53	17
uthern Europe	3	18	1	16
rthern Europe	3	6	2	3
ia	7	0	12	0
vannah and N. America .	0	1	2	0
Carried forward	1243	418	1045	343

	INWARDS.		OUTWARDS.	
	Rio de Jan.	*Bahia.*	*Rio de Jan.*	*Bahia.*
Brought forward	1243	418	1045	343
Foreign Vessels.				
British	113	57	93	52
Russian	6	0	0	0
Swedish	8	1	12	1
French	12	7	11	4
Dutch	14	2	9	3
North American	46	17	41	22
Spanish	13	15	16	6
Prussian, Danish, German	5	2	5	0
Total	1460	519	1232	431

]—EDIT.

Religion.

The religion is Roman Catholic, under one archbishop and eight bishops.

Government.

Brazil was, until 1806, a Portuguese colony, governed by a viceroy. In that year, when Portugal was invaded by the French, the royal family, to escape the impending danger, removed to Brazil, and established the government at Rio Janeiro, which continued for fourteen years to be the capital of the Portuguese possessions in both hemispheres. The king has now returned to Europe, but whether Brazil will be reduced to its former state of colonial dependence on the mother country is uncertain.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

THE discovery of Brazil, has, by some, been attributed to Martin Behem, who is said to have visited the coast so early as 1484; but the better opinion has allowed the merit, if it can properly so be called, of having first seen this part of South America, to Pedro Alvarez Cabral. Emanuel, king of Portugal, had equipped a squadron of 13 sail, carrying 1200 soldiers and sailors, for a voyage to the East Indies, under the command of Cabral. The admiral, quitting Lisbon on the 9th of March, 1500, struck out to sea to avoid the storms off the Cape of Good Hope; and, steering his course southward, fell in accidentally, on the 24th of April, with the continent of South America, which he at first supposed to be a large island on the coast of Africa. In this conjecture he was soon undeceived, when the natives came in sight. Having discovered a good harbour, he anchored his vessels, and called the bay Puerto Seguro. On the next day he sent a

boat on shore, and, having secured two of the natives, treated them so kindly, that when they were set free, their report drew their countrymen to the beach, where they welcomed the Portuguese with shouts and rejoicings. Cabral then landed with a body of troops, and having erected the cross, and celebrated high mass under the spreading branches of a lofty tree, he took possession of the country in the name of his sovereign. In token of the cross which he had thus erected, he called the land Santa Cruz; but the name was afterwards altered by King Emanuel to that of Brazil, after the red wood which the country produces.

Having conceived a high idea of the fertility, and other natural advantages of the country, Cabral despatched a ship to Lisbon, with an account of the event. The Portuguese, however, notwithstanding the flattering report of Cabral, entertained for some time no very favourable opinion of the country, having found by a survey of the coast, and of the rivers and bays, that it afforded neither gold nor silver, the great objects of ambition in those days; and, accordingly, they sent thither none but convicts, and women of abandoned character. Two ships were annually sent from Portugal, to carry to the new world the refuse of the human race, and to receive from thence cargoes of parrots and dye-woods. Ginger was afterwards added, but, in a short time, prohibited, lest the cultivation of it might interfere with the sale of the same article from India. In 1548, the Jews, many of whom had taken refuge in Portugal, were persecuted by the inquisition, and banished to Brazil. Here they would probably have perished, but for the assistance of some enterprising friends, with whom they had been formerly connected, and who enabled them to procure sugar canes from Madeira, and to begin the cultivation of that article. The court of Lisbon, notwithstanding its prejudices against the settlers of Brazil, began to perceive that a colony might be beneficial to the mother country, without producing gold or silver; and, like other mother countries, having left the colony to struggle unassisted through the difficulties of the first settlement, sent over a governor to regulate and superintend it, as soon as those difficulties were surmounted. Thomas de Souza, a wise and able man, was the first governor. Notwithstanding the talents he possessed, De Souza found it very difficult to succeed in inducing the natives, who were dispersed through the forests and plains, to associate with each other, to fix on settled habitations, and to submit to the Portuguese government. Dissatisfaction ensued, which at length terminated in war. Souza did not bring with him a sufficient number of men to conclude hostilities speedily. By building St. Salvador, in 1549, at the Bay of All Saints, he established a central and rallying point for the colony: but the great object of reducing the Indians to submission was effected by the Jesuits, who, insinuating themselves among the savages, and gaining their affections by presents and acts of kindness,

brought them to regard the Portuguese as a humane and benevolent people.

The increasing prosperity of Brazil, which became visible to Europe at the beginning of the 17th century, excited the envy of the French, Spaniards, and Dutch successively. The latter, however, were the principal enemies with whom the Portuguese had to contend, for the dominion of Brazil. Their admiral, Willekens, was, in 1624, detached with a powerful squadron, and a considerable number of soldiers and marines; and, having cast anchor before St. Salvador, he landed his forces, expelled the inhabitants, and took possession of the town, and of the whole country, in the name of the United Provinces. His first act was the publication of a manifesto, in the name of the States, allowing liberty of conscience to all who were willing to take an oath of fidelity to the republic of Holland. Having plundered the people of St. Salvador of their wealth, he returned to Europe, leaving Colonel Van Dort, as governor, with a strong garrison for his support. The Spaniards next sent out a formidable fleet, under Frederic de Toledo, manned with 12,000 soldiers and marines, who, immediately on their arrival, laid siege to St. Salvador, and compelled the Dutch to surrender, after an obstinate resistance, and the loss of its governor, Van Dort. When the affairs of the Dutch assumed a more favourable aspect at home, they despatched Admiral Henry Lonk, in the beginning of 1630, with 46 men of war, to attempt the entire conquest of Brazil. After several obstinate engagements, he succeeded in reducing Pernambuco, one of the most considerable and best fortified provinces of the country. Having returned to Europe, he left behind him troops which reduced, in the years 1633, 1634, and 1635, the three provinces of Temeraca, Paraiba, and Rio Grande. These, as well as Pernambuco, furnished yearly a large quantity of sugar, a great deal of wood for dyeing, and other commodities. The Dutch were so elated with the acquisition of wealth which flowed from the sale of these productions, that they determined to conquer all Brazil, and intrusted Maurice, of Nassau, with the direction of the enterprise. This distinguished officer reached the place of his destination in the beginning of 1637. He found his soldiers well disciplined, and their commanders experienced and able men. He was successively opposed by Albuquerque, Banjola, Lewis Rocca de Borgia, and by Cameron, a Brazilian, who was devotedly attached to the Portuguese, and who wanted no qualification necessary to a general, but to have learned the art of war under able officers. These commanders exerted their utmost efforts to defend the possessions under their protection, but their endeavours proved ineffectual. The Dutch seized upon Seara, Seregippe, and the greater part of Bahia. Seven of the 15 provinces which composed the colony had already submitted to them, and they flattered themselves that one or two campaigns

would make them masters of the remainder, when they were suddenly checked by the revolution, which banished Philip IV. from the throne of Portugal, and gave to the Portuguese independence, and a native sovereign. The seven provinces of Brazil, which had remained unsubdued, imitated the example of the mother country, by throwing off the Spanish yoke. The Dutch then, as enemies of the Spaniards, became friends to the Portuguese. The two parties soon came to an agreement. The Dutch relinquished that part of Brazil which they had not conquered, to the Portuguese, and the latter, in their turn, confirmed the title of the Dutch to the seven provinces of which they were in actual possession. This division gave rise to the name of the Brazils, in place of the former appellation. The Dutch government soon began to oppress the Portuguese colonists, who took up arms in self-defence; and, after an obstinate contest, and without an open support from the mother country, drove them out of several of the provinces. Finding they were not able to retain possession of the country, the Dutch entered into a treaty, by which they ceded all their interest to the Portuguese for a pecuniary compensation. The dominion of Portugal was now extended over all Brazil, which was honoured by giving title to the presumptive heir of the crown. During the 18th century, Brazil remained in the peaceful possession of the Portuguese, with no other exception than the transient occupation of the fortress of St. Sacrament, by the Spaniards, which was restored soon afterwards by the treaty of peace.

From that period until the beginning of the present century, no event of importance appears to have occurred in Brazilian history. In the year 1806, Portugal having been invaded by the French, the royal family, to escape the danger of the captivity, embarked for Brazil, under convoy of a British squadron, which was at that time blockading the mouth of the Tagus. From the moment of their arrival at Brazil, a revolution took place in the character and situation of the country. From the station of a province, Brazil rose at once to the dignity and importance of an independent nation, and Portugal sunk from her ancient superiority to the appearance of a province. The consequences of this change were in the highest degree favourable to the prosperity of Brazil. Commerce was thrown open with other nations, and a sudden spring was given to improvement, which even the impolitic regulations of the court did not check. The revolutionary ferment which had displayed itself in other parts of South America, extended to Brazil. In 1817, an insurrection broke out in Pernambuco, which it was first supposed would spread over the whole country: but the port of Pernambuco being blockaded, and troops arriving from the surrounding provinces, the insurgents were overpowered, and their leaders executed. On the formation of a free constitution in Portugal, the king was compelled to return to Lisbon, the

18th degree of south latitude. Just above this parallel it overflows its banks during the rainy season, and spreads itself over the flat country, forming an immense lake called Lake Xarayes, which is generally 330 miles long, and 120 broad, but so shallow that it is not navigable in any part, except for canoes and small boats.

The Parana, which robs the Paraguay of its name, rises in the mountains of Brazil, in the province of Minas Geraes, and running on the whole in a south-westerly direction for about 1000 miles, joins the Paraguay at Corrientes. It runs in a broad, deep channel, and seldom overflows it banks. In lat. 24° is the fall of Itu, formed by a collection of rocks, which rise from the bed of the river in separate masses, and leave channels for the passage of the water. Boats pass down without difficulty, and are drawn up by ropes.

The Uruguay rises on the declivity of the Brazilian Andes, in the province of Rio Grande, near the parallel of 28° south latitude; and pursues a south-westerly course of more than 1000 miles. It is navigable for 200 miles from its mouth, but higher up the navigation is interrupted by rapids and falls, which prevent the ascent of every thing but canoes and flat-bottomed boats.

The Rio Negro is an eastern branch of the Uruguay, and joins it 54 miles from its mouth. It is navigable for large vessels 40 miles.

The Pilcomayo, the largest western branch of the Paraguay, rises in the Andes, near the parallel of 20 degrees north latitude; and, after flowing in an easterly direction for 600 miles through the mountainous country, turns to the south-east, and, traversing a level country for more than 400 miles, falls into the Paraguay in 25 degrees south latitude. It is navigable nearly to its source.

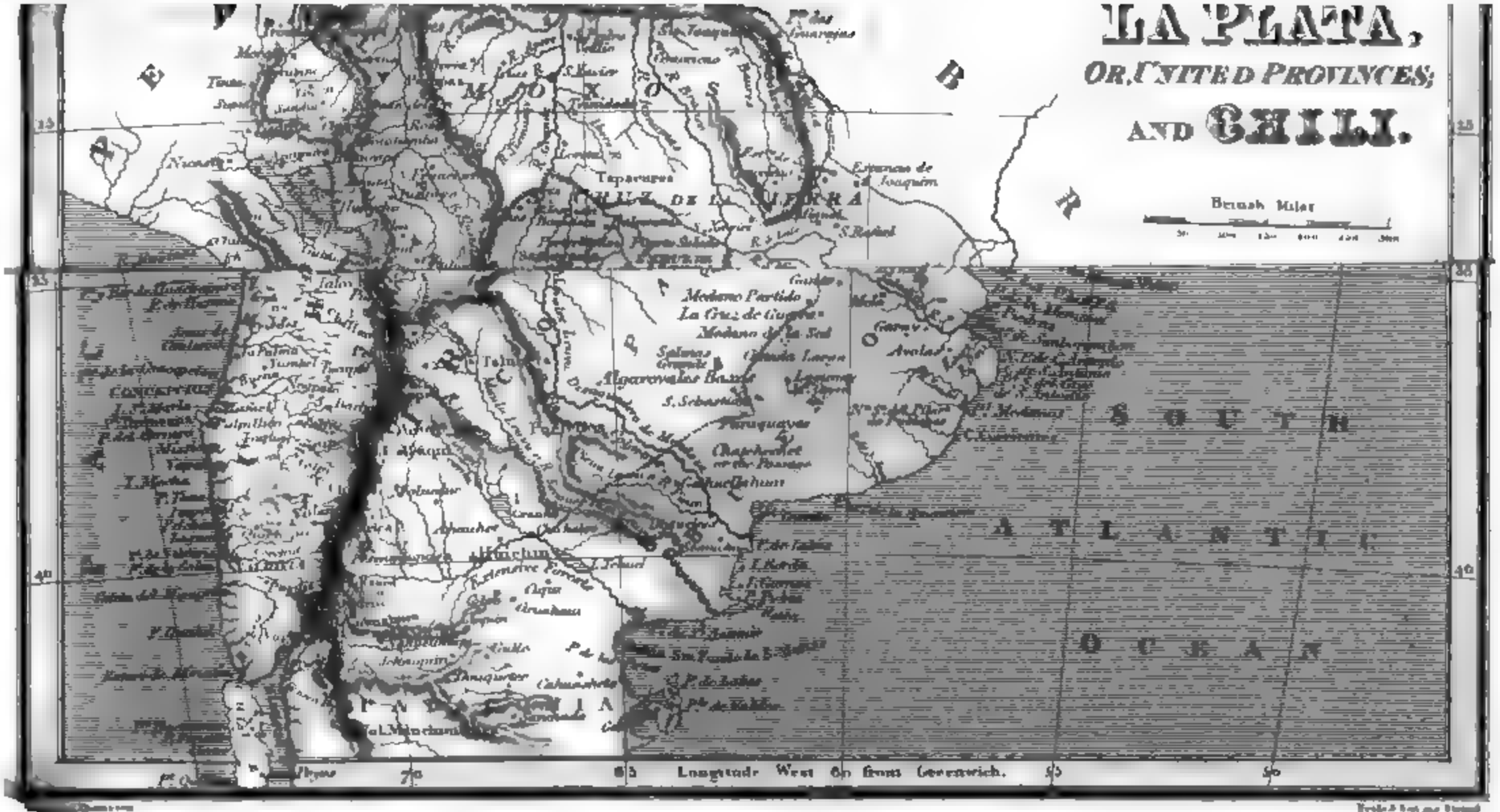
The Vermejo rises near the sources of the Pilcomayo, and flowing south-east, joins the Paraguay in about latitude 27 degrees south. Its current is very gentle, and few rivers are equally navigable.

The Salado, which discharges itself at Santa Fe, in latitude 31° 40′ south, after a south-east course of 800 miles, is difficult of navigation.

The Saladillo, which falls into the Plata, about 50 miles from Cape St. Antonio, after a south-east course of several hundred miles, may be regarded as a continuation of the Rio Quinto and Rio Quarto, which, during the greater part of the year, are lost in a marshy lake; but, in the rainy season, communicate by various channels with the Saladillo.

The Rio Dulce rises in the mountains of the interior, and flowing parallel with the Salado for a considerable distance, loses itself in the salt lakes of Povongos, 100 miles north-west of Santa Fe.

LA PLATA,
OR, UNITED PROVINCES;
AND CHILI.



Published March 1st 1810 by Harwood Baldy & Jones N° 10 Paternoster Row London

the population was 1,300,000, exclusive of Indians. The civilized Indians alone, it is supposed, amount to more than 700,000. The population is composed, as in the other Spanish colonies, of Whites, Indians, Mestizoes, Negroes, and Mulattoes. The number of Negroes and Mulattoes, however, is very small. The most populous districts are around the towns on the coast, and near the mouths of the great rivers, and the mining districts in the west; but particularly the north-western provinces, near the borders of Peru, which were formerly attached to that country; and are still called Alto Peru, or Upper Peru. The plains in the north are almost exclusively occupied by tribes of wandering Indians.

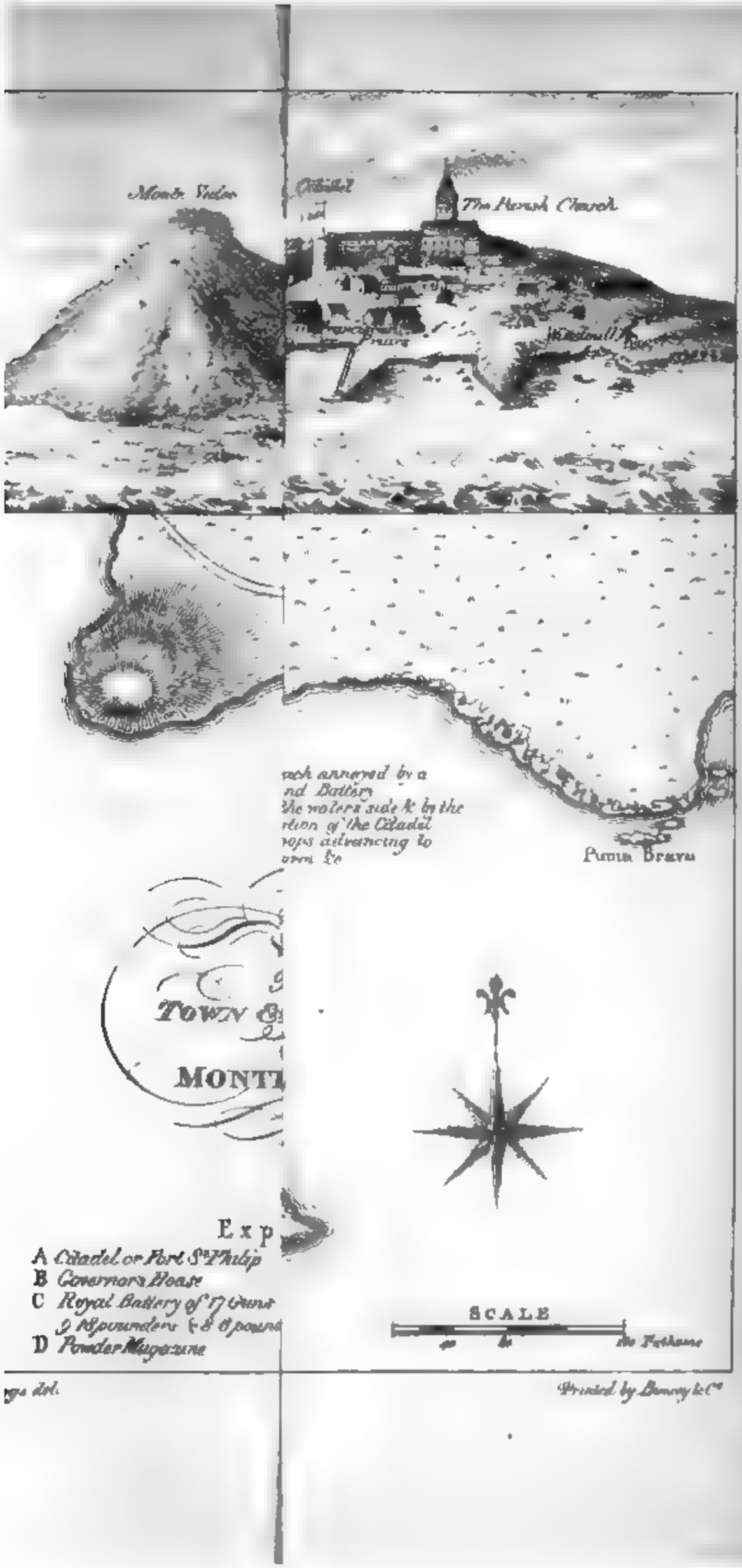
Chief Towns.

Buenos Ayres, the capital, is built on the south-west bank of the Rio de la Plata, 180 miles from its mouth. The river is here 30 miles broad, and is merely an open road. Ships cannot approach within three leagues of the shore, and are compelled to unload by lighters. The commerce of the town is very extensive, the port being the outlet for the produce, not only of the whole valley of the Plata, but also of large districts of Peru and Chili. The population is estimated at 62,000.

Monte Video stands on the north shore of the Plata, 120 miles east of Buenos Ayres, and occupies the whole of a peninsula promontory, which projects southward from the main land. The fortifications are on the isthmus to the north of the town, and are very strong, being regular works built of stone. The harbour, which lies on the west of the town, is of a circular shape, four miles in diameter, with a narrow entrance. It is deep enough for large ships, and is the best in the Rio de la Plata. The population is variously stated, from 10 to 20,000.—*See the annexed Plan.*

Potosi, famous for its rich silver mines lies in the Andes, in lat. 20° 26′ S., near one of the sources of the Pilcomayo. The population is estimated at 100,000, of whom 30,000 are employed in the adjacent mines.

[Potosi presents a striking instance of the power of over-ruling circumstances in fixing the situation of cities. It stands on a narrow plain, amidst the eternal snows of the Andes, on the side of the insulated mountain that contains the metal which gives it all its importance. The climate is cold, and the environs barren; the valleys are destitute of wood, and the sides of the hills are clothed with moss, while the only covering spread over their summits is one of perennial snow. A few solitary vicunas are alone seen grazing in this desolate region, which would never have become the abode of man, if it had not been for the accidental discovery of the silver contained in the mountains, by an Indian hunter, as he pursued the wild goats that bounded over its surface.]—Edit.


Monte Victor
The Parish Church
Punta Bravu
TOWN &
MONTI
A Citadel or Fort St Philip
B Governors House
C Royal Battery of 17 Guns
D Powder Magazine
SCALE
Printed by Bunney &C.

Assumption, the capital of Paraguay, stands on the east bank of the river Paraguay, a little above the mouth of the Pilcomayo, and 977 miles from the sea. The population is 7000.

Corrientes, situated a little below the confluence of the Parana and the Paraguay, contains 5000 inhabitants.

Sante Fe, at the mouth of the Salado, has about 6000 inhabitants

Cordova is on the small river Primero, which loses itself in one of the salt lakes to the north-west of Santa Fe. Population 6000.

Santiago del Estero lies north of Cordova, on the west bank of the Dulce.

The principal towns in the mountainous country, not already mentioned, beginning in the south, are Mendoza, which lies at the foot of the eastern declivity of the Andes, and contains 21,000 inhabitants; St. Juan, also lying at the foot of the Andes, north of Mendoza, and containing 19,000 inhabitants; Rioja, still farther north; Tucuman, or St. Miguel de Tucuman, on the Dulce, more than 100 miles above Santiago del Estero; Salta, on a branch of the Vermejo, with 9000 inhabitants; La Plata, or Chiquisica, about 60 miles north-east of Potosi, with 14,000 inhabitants; Charcas, or Chayanta, lying north of Potosi, and containing 30,000 inhabitants; and La Paz, near the south-east extremity of lake Titicaca, with 20,000 inhabitants.

Commerce and Manufactures.

Under the old government, commerce was a monopoly in the hands of the merchants of Spain. At present the export and import trade is principally in the hands of the British, though the United States and other nations participate in it to a certain degree. The exports consist, principally, of hides, beef, and tallow, the great staples of the country; a variety of furs and peltry; with gold and silver from the mines of Potosi. Mules are also sent in vast droves, from Salta over the Andes into Peru. The imports are principally British manufactures, consisting of woollen and cotton goods of every description, hardware, hats, porter, &c. From the United States are imported lumber and naval stores of all kinds, salted fish, furniture, boots, shoes, &c.; and from Brazil, sugar, coffee, and rum. The value of the exports is estimated at 10,000,000 dollars per annum; and that of the imports is about the same.

Religion.

The Roman Catholic is the established religion.

Government.

This country was formerly a Spanish colony, under the government of a viceroy; but a new government was established in 1810, which ruled in the name of the King of Spain, till the 9th of July, 1816, when it declared itself wholly independent, under the title of the United Provinces of Rio de la Plata, which has since been

changed for that of the United Provinces of South America. Since 1810 there have been three or four revolutions, in each of which, the form of government, so far as relates to the executive department, has been altered. During all the changes, however, there has existed a Congress consisting of representatives from the several provinces.

Revenue.

The revenue for the year 1817, was 3,037,187 dollars.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

THE discovery of the country, now known by the name of Buenos Ayres, took place somewhat later than that of other parts of South America on the Atlantic. The honour of the discovery is claimed by the Spaniards. Juan Diaz de Solis, having sailed from Spain in 1515, to explore Brazil, arrived at the mouth of the Rio de la Plata, and took formal possession of the country; but, deceived by the friendly appearance of the Indians, and being off his guard, he was slain with the few attendants who had landed in company. In 1526, Sebastian Cabot, then in the Spanish service, being also on a voyage to the coast of Brazil, entered the same river, and discovered an island, which he called St. Gabriel. Advancing about 12 leagues, he found a fine river flowing into the great stream: this he named St. Salvador, and, causing his fleet to enter, disembarked his men and built a fort, in which he left a garrison, while he proceeded further up and discovered the Paraguay. In consequence of receiving a considerable quantity of silver from the Indians, who procured it from the mines of Peru, he imagined that mines of this precious metal existed in the interior, and accordingly gave to the river the name of Rio de la Plata, or the river of silver. The Spanish government, having conceived a high idea of the value of the country, determined to colonise it; and, to prevent any interference on the part of other nations, Don Pedro de Mendoza was sent out, and founded the city of Buenos Ayres, in 1535. From the earliest period after the colonization, until the establishment of a vice-royalty, the government was dependent upon that of Peru; though the chief of Buenos Ayres had the title of Captain-General. Buenos Ayres continued for a long time almost unknown, all the inhabited parts of the kingdom lying at a considerable distance from the ocean; and in consequence of the restrictions imposed upon its commerce, having no other communication with Europe than by the annual fleet from Spain, it languished in poverty and obscurity. So extensive and fertile a country could

not, however, remain for ever concealed. As the population increased, though it was but slowly, and the agricultural produce multiplied, the evil consequences of the restrictions were more severely felt. The reiterated remonstrances of the people at last opened the eyes of the Spanish government to the importance of the colony. A relaxation took place in the system of commercial monopoly which had been rigorously adhered to; and finally, in order to put a stop to a contraband trade that had been carried to an alarming height, register ships were allowed to sail under a license from the council of the Indies, at any time of the year. The consequence was, that the annual flota was lessened from 15,000 to 2000 tons of shipping; and, in 1748, it sailed for the last time to Cadiz.

Other amendments of the mercantile system were made soon afterwards. In 1774, a free trade was allowed between several of the American ports; and, in 1778 and the succeeding year, several Spanish sea-ports were allowed an open trade to Buenos Ayres and the ports of the Pacific. Buenos Ayres was now advancing rapidly into political and commercial importance: this was rendered stable by the erection of the government into a viceroyalty in 1778, and since that period its trade progressively increased until the war between Spain and England, when a material interruption was given to it. Nothing of moment appears in the history of Buenos Ayres, until July, 1806, when the capital was taken by surprise by a British army, under General Beresford, which suddenly invaded the country. These troops, proceeding from the Cape of Good Hope, found the country entirely defenceless, there being only a handful of regular troops, and the militia being unarmed and undisciplined. The British enjoyed their triumph only a few weeks, when a small body of the militia, under the command of General Liniers, a French officer, invested the city, and forced them to surrender at discretion on the 12th of August. Soon after the surrender of General Beresford's army, another body of troops, in number about 5000, arrived from the Cape of Good Hope, under Sir Home Popham, who, after taking Fort Maldonado, at the mouth of La Plata, laid siege to Monte Video. The Spanish garrison made a resolute and glorious defence, and finally compelled the besiegers to withdraw disgracefully from the contest. Other troops arrived some time afterwards, under Sir Samuel Auchmuty, and the number of the British bearing a vast superiority over that of the garrison, another attempt was made, and the town was finally carried by storm, after a defence which reflects the highest honour upon its little garrison. It was now determined by the British commanders to proceed against Buenos Ayres, as soon as certain expected reinforcements arrived. In May, 1807, these succours arrived, under General Whitelocke, who assumed the chief command, and was joined on the 15th of

June by General Crawford. The invading army now amounted to upwards of 12,000 men, all regular disciplined soldiers. On the appointed day they embarked in boats, and sailing up the river, debarked below the capital. They were permitted to approach the town without molestation; but no sooner had they entered it, than they were received by the indignant inhabitants with one tremendous and well-directed fire of grape and musketry. Every house was converted into a fortress, from which vengeance was poured out upon the invaders of the soil. The British troops were thrown into confusion, and endeavoured to find safety in a disgraceful flight. General Whitelocke, finding that the patriotism of the people was not to be overcome, and having no means of escape, surrendered this formidable army prisoners of war to the militia of Buenos Ayres; and thus ended the second British invasion of this province.

The important services which Liniers had rendered the people at once elevated him to distinction. The viceroy, Sobremonte, was deposed, and the French general placed in his stead. The invasion of Spain, however, and the deposition of Ferdinand VII., produced a counter revolution in the public opinion. Liniers was desirous of establishing the authority of the Emperor Napoleon in America as well as in Old Spain; but Don Josef de Goyeneche, who had been sent out by the junta of Cadiz, caused the inhabitants of Buenos Ayres to proclaim Ferdinand, advising at the same time that a junta should be immediately formed. So powerful and well-concerted were his measures, that on the 1st of January, 1809, the people rose in all parts of the city, and demanded the establishment of a junta. They were, however, dispersed; and the leaders punished by the troops, who still remained faithful to Liniers. But this temporary triumph was not of long continuance. In August, 1809, Cisneros, the new viceroy, arrived from Spain, and Liniers was deposed by the junta, which now solemnly declared their rights. Liniers was then exiled to Cordova; but the spirit of insurrection had spread itself too widely by this time to admit of the new viceroy continuing long in the exercise of his functions. Commotion succeeded to commotion; and, on the 26th of May, 1810, a provisional government assembled itself, deposed the new viceroy, and sent him to Spain. Against this measure the interior provinces and the city of Montevideo protested. Liniers formed an army in the neighbourhood of Cordova; and in Potosi another was assembled, under General Nieto. To check these a force marched from Buenos Ayres. Liniers and Nieto were defeated, and themselves and six of their principal officers beheaded.

These decisive measures did not, however, extinguish the spirit of disaffection to the cause of emancipation. A force was put in motion in Paraguay, under the governor, Velasco; who was, however, defeated, taken prisoner, and sent to Buenos

Ayres. Montevideo still remained faithful to the mother country; but, in December, 1816, a body of Portuguese troops entered the Banda Oriental, and took possession of the city. All the principal places on the eastern shore of the Uruguay, and of the country between the Parana and the Uruguay, and the province still remains in their possession. Buenos Ayres, though independent, in fact, after the revolution of 1810, was not so in name. The junta professed to pay allegiance to the government of Spain, and all decrees were issued in the name of Ferdinand VII. At length, on the 9th of July, 1816, the minds of the people being fully prepared for it, a formal declaration of independence was made by the general congress. No opposition was made to the measure in Buenos Ayres, as no Spanish troops had remained there since 1810. An unfortunate dissension, however, broke out between the provinces on the east bank of the La Plata and the general confederation, which arose from a dispute between the government of Buenos Ayres and General Artigas, one of the officers appointed to reduce Montevideo. The contest between them continued for several years, and many engagements took place, in most of which Artigas was successful. The province of Paraguay, too, although professedly favourable to independence, refused to make common cause with Buenos Ayres, and adopted a kind of non-intercourse with the whole world.

Since the declaration of independence, political revolutions have been frequent in Buenos Ayres. All parties, however, favour the cause of independence. The most important events in the recent history of this republic are, the annexation of the Banda Oriental to the kingdom of Brazil, and the recognition of the independence of Buenos Ayres by the Portuguese government, both of which events took place in July, 1821.

PERU.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

PERU is situated between 3° 25′ and 21° 30′ S. lat., and 65° and 81° 10′ W. long. It is bounded on the north by the Republic of Columbia; east by Brazil; south by the desert of Atacama, which separates it from Chili, and by the United Provinces of South America; and west by the Pacific Ocean. Its mean length from north to south is about 750 miles, and its mean breadth about 660, the area being about 495,000.

[As the whole population of the Peruvian territories, including the native Indians that range over the vast plains east of the Andes, cannot be estimated at more than one million and a-half, there will be only about three inhabitants to each square mile. Like most other parts of South America, the population is here concentrated into a few favoured spots, while immense tracts are left in the undisturbed possession of the wild beasts of the forest.]—EDIT.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.

The Andes pass through Peru, from south-east to north-west, parallel with the coast. Soon after crossing the southern boundary, they divide into three principal ridges or cordilleras, which continue till about the sixth degree of S. lat., where they are again united into a single chain. Along the whole coast is a narrow plain, from 35 to 70 miles wide, called the country of Valles, consisting of a succession of barren sandy deserts. Immediately east of this is the lower, or western, ridge of the Andes, reaching the whole length of Peru; not in one unbroken elevation, like the cordillera of Mexico, but composed of successive summits of immense height, between which the eastern inhabitants find a laborious passage to the country of Valles. Between the western and central ridges of the Andes, there is a series of plains, varying in width from 100 to 170 miles, elevated generally 8 or 10,000 feet above the level of the ocean, and separated from each other by deep valleys. The central cordillera consists also of separate summits, but is less broken than the western, and has an average height of 15,000 feet. Beyond the eastern cordillera there are immense unexplored plains, which reach into Brazil, and are traversed from south to north by several of the principal tributaries of the Amazon.

[Many aspiring mountains point their bold summits to the skies within the limits of Peru; but the absolute heights of very few of them have been correctly ascertained. Those which are less elevated, or that rise comparatively little above the high table-land, are chiefly metallic; and some of them are considered to be more abundant in silver than any others on the globe. A few heights may here be given, viz.

	Feet above the Sea.
The mines of Gualgayoe, in the partido of Choto .	13,385
Gold was formerly procured by the Incas, in the plains of Curimayo, at more than	11,184
The plain of Chocopampa, containing a vast quantity of petrified sea-shells	13,123
Mines of Pasco, more than	13,000
Assuay, the ancient Peruvian road	15,540
The town of Micupampa	11,670

]—EDIT.

The country of Valles has a sandy soil; and, owing to the want of moisture, is principally destitute of vegetation. The only spots capable of cultivation are the banks of the small rivers, or such as are within the reach of artificial irrigation. The elevated plains between the Andes are perpetually verdant; and the grains, the vegetables, and fine fruits, of Europe flourish here amidst those of the torrid zone. Wine, oil, and sugar, are the most valuable productions of the coast; and corn, wheat, Peruvian bark, and cacao, of the high country.

Rivers.

There are no rivers of any importance on the western side of the Andes, all the streams which rise there having but a short course from their sources to the ocean. On the east of the Andes are the Amazon and several of its tributaries, by some of which navigation has been performed from the Pacific to the Atlantic with a land route of only 37 miles.

Mines.

The mountainous districts abound in metallic wealth. In 1791, the number of gold mines and washings worked in Peru, was 69, the number of silver mines 784, of quicksilver 4, of copper 4, and of lead 12. The annual produce of the whole is valued at 4,500,000 dollars, of which silver constitutes seven-eighths. These rich mines, however, are under miserable management. There is, in every department, not only the greatest ignorance of the art of mining, and of the best methods of extracting the metal from the ore, but in those which are worked for the government, the most shameful and glaring corruption. [For a more copious account of the mineral riches of Peru, we must refer to the Geography already mentioned. Vol. II. p. 733.]—EDIT.

Climate.

In the country of Valles, included between the western cordillera and the coast, rain, thunder, and lightning, are entirely unknown. During the winter, however, which lasts from July to November, the ground is almost constantly covered with a thick fog, which, towards the close of the day, generally dissolves into a very small mist, or dew, and moistens the earth equably. During the summer the sun's rays occasion an intense heat, throughout all this region; the more so as they are received upon a sandy soil, whence they are strongly reflected. This low region is far from being healthy; malignant, intermittent, and catarrhal fevers, pleurisies and constipations, are the most common diseases, and rage constantly at Lima. A great part of Peru, between the western coast of the Andes and the shores of the Pacific, supplies one of the most perfect examples of what is called a *hot* and *dry* climate; as for the space of about 400 leagues along the coast, rain is wholly unknown. The Andes intercept the clouds, which pour their contents on the

mountain districts, often accompanied by tremendous thunder a lightning, while near the sea not a drop falls to moisten t parched soil. The air in all this tract is, therefore, uniform hot. During the winter at Lima, Fahrenheit's thermometer ne sinks below 60° at noon, and it seldom rises above 85°; though is occasionally seen at 96 degrees. In some other distri however, the temperature is greater than it is at the capital. T climate in the high table-lands is a mixture of spring and autu summer and winter are equally unknown, and a luxuriant vegeta flourishes to the height of about 10,000 feet.]—EDIT.

The elevated plains between the western and central cordille called by Humboldt the high table-land of Peru, has scarcely variation of temperature throughout the year; the mercury Fahrenheit's thermometer always standing at about 65 or degrees; the climate is here mild and genial. The only distinction of seasons arises from the rains, which prevail from Nove ber to May. The highest Andes are perpetually covered wi snow, and experience an uninterrupted winter between the tropi Here are also many volcanoes which are flaming within, wh their summits, chasms, and apertures, are involved in ice.

Civil Divisions and Population.

Peru is divided into seven intendancies, which are subdivid into 51 districts. The following is a list of the intendancies, wi their population in 1795, each of which derives its name from i principal town.

Intendancies.	*Whites.*	*Indians.*	*Mestizoes.*	*Mulattoes.*	*Slaves.*	*Total.*
Lima,	22,370	63,180	13,747	17,864	29,763	149,1
Cuzco,	31,828	159,105	23,104	993	283	216,3
Arequipa,	39,357	66,609	17,797	7,003	5,258	136,0
Truxillo,	19,098	115,647	76,949	13,757	4,725	230,1
Guamanga,	5,378	75,284	29,621	943	30	111,3
Guancavelica,	2,341	23,899	4,537		41	30,9
Tarma,	15,639	105,187	78,682	884	236	201,2
Total,	136,311	608,911	244,437	41,404	40,336	1,076,9

This population is concentrated in the western part of Peru, i the country of Valles, and along the ridges of the Andes, seldo extending many hundred miles from the coast. There are, beside many tribes of independent Indians, not included in the censu and whose number is unknown, occupying all the plains to t east of the mountains.

Chief Towns.

Lima is situated about two leagues from the coast, in lat. 12° S., in the centre of a delightful valley watered by the small ri Rimac, which flows along the north side of the city. It is su rounded with a brick wall, which was erected merely as a defe against the sudden attacks of the Indians. The houses a

generally handsome, though low, and constructed of wood, on account of the frequent earthquakes; the principal square in the middle of the city is of great extent and beauty, and contains in the centre a large and magnificent fountain; on its sides are the cathedral and the archbishop's palace, the viceroy's palace, the town-house, and prison. The other principal buildings are the churches and chapels, which are partly built of stone, and decorated in the most splendid style with paintings, and ornaments of gold, silver, and diamonds of the greatest value. The population, in 1790, was 52,627, of which number 17,215 were whites, 8,960 Negroes, 3,912 Indians, and the remainder Mulattoes, Mestizoes, &c. Of the whites, about 3000 were monks and nuns. Luxury in dress, and fondness for show and splendour, prevail to an extravagant degree among the inhabitants of Lima.

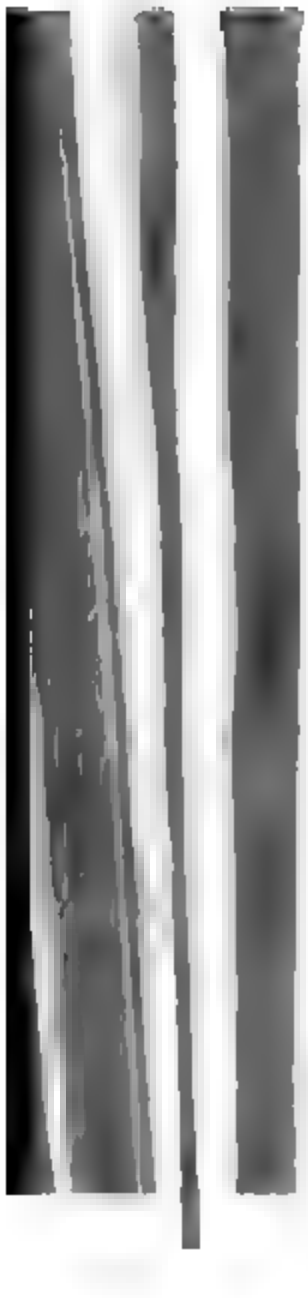
Callao, the port of Lima, is two leagues distant, on a low, flat point of land near the mouth of a small river of the same name. The port is one of the most safe and commodious on the coast of the Pacific ocean, and is defended by numerous batteries. It is the rendezvous of about 17,000 tons of shipping, employed in commerce with the other provinces of South America, and with Europe. The population is about 5000.

Cuzco, the ancient capital of the Peruvians, is 550 miles E. S. E. of Lima; the city still preserves many monuments of its ancient grandeur; and, among others, the great fortress built for its defence. The population is 32,000, of whom 16,000 are whites, 14,000 Indians, and the rest of mixed blood.

Arequipa, 217 leagues S. E. of Lima, is on the banks of a small river, 20 leagues from the coast. It is one of the largest towns in Peru, containing 24,000 inhabitants. Truxillo, in lat. 8° S. about half a league from the sea, contains 6000 inhabitants. Guamanga, 190 miles S. E. of Lima, is an Indian town, containing 25,970 souls, of whom only 169 are whites. Tarma, 85 miles east of Lima, contains 5538 souls, of whom only 361 are whites, and the rest principally Indians and Mestizoes. Guancavelica, celebrated for its mine of quicksilver, and for the gold and silver mines in its vicinity, is 140 miles S. E. of Lima, and contains 5156 inhabitants, of whom 560 are whites.

Commerce.

Peru trades with Europe, the Philippine islands, coastwise with Guatimala and Chili, and overland with Buenos Ayres. Its exports are chiefly gold and silver, wine, brandy, sugar, pimento, Peruvian bark, salt, vicuna wool, and coarse woollens. It receives in return from Europe, manufactured goods, particularly silks, superfine cloth, lace, fine linen, and other articles of luxury and show; from the Philippine islands, muslins, tea, and other East India goods; from Guatimala indigo; from Chili, wheat and copper; and from Buenos Ayres, mules and Paraguay tea.



it, to travel on the backs of Indians; in this wa
for 15 or 20 days together, over roads windi
habited forests.

Religion.

The religion is Roman Catholic, and the affai
are under the control of one archbishop and four

Government.

While under the dominion of Spain, the gover
in a viceroy, and had two royal audiences, Lima
the important offices, civil, military, and ecclesias
hands of the European Spaniards, the creoles
from all posts of honour and trust. The revolu
affairs produced by the capture of Lima, has be
enable us to give satisfactory information as to the
ment of Peru, which will probably, however, be
republican basis.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

If we may believe the traditionary history o
Indians, their ancestors were initiated in the arts
government, by a man and woman who came fro
great lake south of Peru. Manco Capac instru
agriculture, and other useful employments, while

the end of the twelfth, or the beginning of the thirteenth, century of the Christian era. From this period, to the epoch of the arrival of the Spaniards, the native historians enumerate fourteen reigns of Incas, (such was the title of the monarchs,) whose names have been preserved.

It was in the latter part of the reign of Huana Capac, in 1524, that the discovery of Peru by Europeans took place. Three inhabitants of Spain, Francisco Pizarro, Diego Almagró, and a priest named Hernando de Luque, set out on a voyage of discovery, excited by the success of Cortes, under whom Pizarro had served. About 50 leagues from Panama, Pizarro discovered a small barren district called Peru, and from this spot the whole country received its name. They prosecuted their discoveries along the coast, and spent three years in the enterprise, without obtaining more to reward their labours than the certainty that there existed an empire abounding with the precious metals. Not possessing sufficient force to attempt the conquest of the country, Pizarro went to Spain, where he received from the king some assistance and the title of Governor of Peru. Returning to Panama, he collected a body of men, and set out on another expedition in 1531. After reducing several towns on the coast, he founded the first Spanish colony in Peru, at San Miguel, in May, 1532. While at this place, he received a message from Huascar, the reigning Inca, informing him of the revolt of his brother Atahualpa, and requesting his assistance to re-establish the power of the legitimate sovereign. Pizarro now determined to penetrate into the interior, and he accordingly set out under the guidance of the Peruvian ambassadors, with his whole disposable force, which consisted of only 62 horsemen, and 102 foot soldiers. On his route he received messengers from Atahualpa, who had usurped the throne, requesting also his assistance. Pizarro declared that his object was merely to reconcile the difference between the brothers. He was received by Atahualpa with great respect, but the kindness of the Peruvian Monarch was requited by the basest treachery. On a pretended provocation, Pizarro attacked the army of the natives, and having gained possession of the inca's person, an universal panic seized the Indians, 4000 of whom fell in this memorable action, which decided the fate of Peru. Not one Spaniard was killed, and the booty was immense. This battle took place at Caxamarca, on the 10th of November, 1532. The captive inca, finding that he had no chance of escape, offered for his ransom a quantity of gold sufficient to fill the apartment in which he was confined. Pizarro agreed to the proposal, and an immense amount of the precious metal was collected by the Peruvians; but the treacherous invader had no sooner received it, than he determined to put his prisoner to death. Accordingly, having instituted a tribunal, a mock trial of Atahualpa took place, on the charge of having wrested the sceptre of Peru from its natural sovereign. The unfortunate

monarch was condemned to be burnt to death; and, after suffering baptism from his Christian judges, the sentence was executed upon him.

Soon after this dreadful tragedy, Pizarro defeated Paula Inca, a brother of Atahualpa, who had been invested with the crown by the Peruvians, and entered Cuzco, the capital. Quito was next taken; and, having established the Spanish power on a sure foundation, Pizarro despatched his brother Ferdinand to Spain, with an immense present to the king, of gold and silver. This substantial argument gained him a favourable reception. Pizarro was confirmed in his government, to which an addition of 70 leagues south was made, and was created Marquis of Atabillos, while Almagro received the government of the countries 200 leagues south of the limits prescribed to Pizarro. In January, 1533, Pizarro founded the city of Lima, and soon afterwards employed himself in giving form to the government, and distributing land among the colonists; but, while thus occupied, Manco Capac, the reigning inca, again took up arms. After several severe engagements, the Peruvians got possession of Cuzco, which was, however, retaken by the Spaniards; and it was with difficulty that the brothers of Pizarro maintained themselves in Lima. Another formidable enemy now arose, in Almagro, between whom and Pizarro, enmities had long subsisted. Almagro, considering Cuzco within the limit of his grant, marched against it from the frontiers of Chili, in 1537, and the brothers of Pizarro, being too weak to oppose him, were forced to submit. Manco Capac, about this time, finding Almagro too strong to be ejected, retired to the mountains. Pizarro, hearing of the siege of Cuzco, sent Alvarido with 500 men to the assistance of his brother, but this general was attacked by Almagro and speedily beaten. Pizarro then advanced in person, with 700 men, and endeavoured to bring Almagro to a pacific settlement, without success. A decisive battle was fought near Cuzco, in which Almagro was taken prisoner, and was soon afterwards brought to trial and beheaded. Two years afterwards, Pizarro was assassinated by one of the party of Almagro. This event took place on the 26th of June, 1541.

After the death of Pizarro, Vasca de Castro was appointed governor, and was succeeded by Blasco Vela. The conduct of this viceroy excited an insurrection, at the head of which was Gonzalo Pizarro. After several actions with the royal troops, Gonzalo defeated them in a pitched battle, in which the viceroy was slain. Pedro de la Gasca, a priest, was now sent over as president, and finding he could not bring Pizarro to terms, he attacked and defeated him. Pizarro was taken and tried, and was beheaded on the 10th of April, 1548. Peru remained, nevertheless, in an unsettled state for many years. In 1562, Toledo, the viceroy, attacked Tupac Amaru, the son of Manco Capac, who had taken refuge in the mountains. The inca, unable to resist,

surrendered himself with his wife and children, who were all carried prisoners to Cuzco. Tupac Amaru was brought to trial, for supposed crimes, and sentenced to be beheaded. Previous to his execution, he was baptized in prison, and was thence led to the scaffold; and thus, amid the tears of the people, expired the last of the Peruvian emperors. At the same time, all the sons of Indian women, by Spaniards, were put in confinement, on the charge of conspiring with Tupac Amaru to overthrow the Spanish government. Many of them were put to the torture, and others perished in exile, or in confinement. Toledo, the barbarous author of these cruelties, after amassing a large fortune, returned to Spain, where he fell under the royal displeasure. His property was sequestered, his person confined, and he is said to have died at last of a broken heart.

The royal authority was, after the death of Tupac Amaru, established as firmly in Peru as in the other Spanish colonies, and the general tranquillity has caused the history of the province to be barren of important incidents. During the 17th century, no event seems to have occurred worthy commemoration. The year 1782 was marked by an insurrection of the Indians, under Jose Gabriel Condorcanqui, a descendant of Tupac Amaru, who assumed the same name. He had petitioned the Spanish court to restore to him the title of Marquis of Oropesa, which had been granted to his ancestor, Sayu Tupac; but, finding his request neglected, he retired to the mountains, and proclaiming himself inca, the Indians flocked to his standard, and acknowledged his title with every mark of profound veneration and attachment. Having collected an immense army, he proclaimed vengeance against the European Spaniards, promising protection to all born in America; but his followers, mindful of the cruelties which had been perpetrated upon them, spared none but Indians. The insurrection lasted two years. Success at first attended all the operations of the Indians, who made themselves masters of several provinces; but, in the end, Tupac Amaru was defeated, and with all his family made captive; and, a short time afterwards, they were all, excepting his brother, Diego, who had escaped, executed in the city of Cuzco, to the deep distress of the Indians, who thus beheld the end of the last of the children of the sun. Diego afterwards surrendered, and was, for some time, allowed to live unmolested with his family; but, some years afterwards, on suspicion of being concerned in a revolt that happened in Quito, he was tried and beheaded.

Of the history of Peru, we find nothing more recorded from this period till the invasion of Spain by Napoleon. In the early part of that contest, the viceroyalty was less agitated by revolutionary movements than any other part of the continent. The party in favour of adherence to Old Spain was, until very lately, strong enough to prevent any change of government, and more

sufficient strength to send a large military
against Peru, and to compel the surrender of th
capitulated to the liberating army in June, 182
claration, published in the next month, the
Peru was declared to be the wish of the people.
soon afterwards followed by the surrender of Ca
place in September, 1821.

CHILI.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent

Chili is a long narrow country, lying betwee
the Pacific Ocean, extending from 24° 20′ to 43°
from 68° 50′ to 74° 20′ W. long. from London.
on the north by the desert of Atacama, which se
Peru; east, by the Andes, which separate it fr
Provinces; south, by Patagonia and the Gulf of
west, by the Pacific Ocean. It is about 1350 mil
an average, 130 broad, containing about 175,50
[The population of Chili may be estimated at 1,
compared with the above area, is about seven p

who wanders over these delightful valleys, the scenery is frequently exceedingly grand. Passing from south to north, he scarcely ever loses sight of the towering summits of the Andes on the right, and now and then ascending an eminence, or looking through an opening in the ridge, he has a distant view of the great Pacific Ocean.

Soil and Productions.

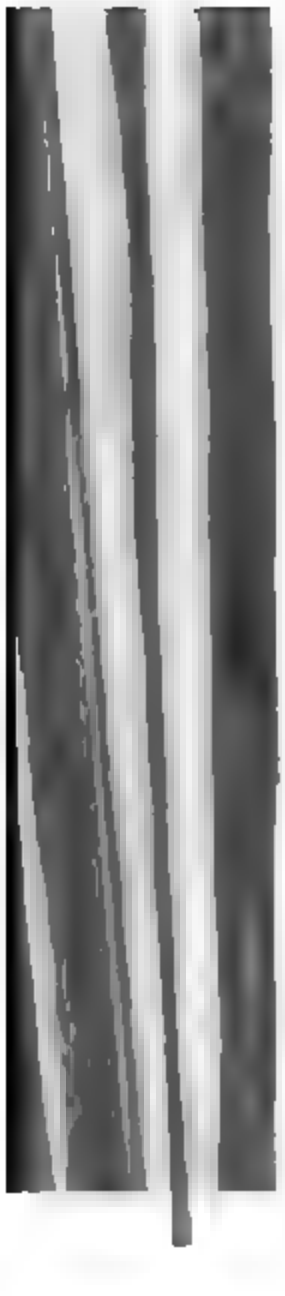
The humid region south of the River Maule, is abundantly clothed with fine timber and forest-trees; but in the dry region north of that river, there is only occasionally a solitary tree. All the country lying south of the parallel of 32° S. lat., including the whole of the humid region, and the southern part of the dry region, is a land abounding with corn, wine, and oil. The country between the parallel of 32° and the northern boundary, is barren of vegetable productions, but rich in mines of tin, copper, silver, and gold. The principal productions are wheat, which is of an excellent quality, and extensively cultivated in the valleys; barley, which is raised in great quantity for the use of horses and mules; and hemp, which flourishes in every part where the soil can be regularly irrigated. The vine also is very generally cultivated, and with great profit, and the olive-tree yields abundantly. The climate and soil are well adapted to the culture of sugar; but the inhabitants have been long accustomed to obtain that article from Lima, in exchange for their wheat, and are not disposed to change their ancient habits. Rice, likewise, would grow on the low lands, but it is brought from Lima. Cattle are every where numerous, and of a large size.

Rivers.

Few countries are so well watered as Chili. Lying at the foot of the Andes, it naturally receives the waters which fall on the western declivity of those mountains, and rush with the rapidity of torrents directly into the Pacific Ocean. The rivers are very numerous, but very short; they serve, however, to irrigate the valleys, and render them exceedingly fertile. Through a large portion of the country there is no valley, nor scarcely a field, which is not so situated that it may be regularly irrigated from some river. The most remarkable streams, beginning in the north, are, the Salado, which forms the northern boundary; Junkal, Huasco, Coquimbo, Limari, Quillota, the Maypo, Mataquito, the Maule, Itata, Biobio, Tolten, Callacallas or Valdivia, and Bueno.

Islands.

There are forty-seven islands in the Archipelago of Chiloe, or El Ancud, at the southern extremity of Chili. Of these, thirty-two are peopled by the Spaniards and Indians, and the rest are uninhabited. Chiloe is by far the largest, and gives its name to



middle of the Andes, from east to west, so th
ashes thrown out by them never extend beyond
Three or four earthquakes occur annually; the
slight, and but little notice is taken of them. Be
1520 and 1782, only five great earthquakes occur

Minerals.

Almost all the precious and useful metals abou
ern provinces. Gold is found in the sands of th
and rivers, and to a greater or less degree in almo
tain and hill. Several of the mines have been w
turies, and have yielded a great produce. All
are found in the highest and coldest parts of the
that account few of them are worked. The
Huasco, discovered in 1811, is the richest in th
given quantity of the ore yields more pure silver t
the ore of Guanacuato, which is the richest in M
times as much as that of Potosi. The copper m
ingly numerous, and all that are worked yield
the weight of the ore in refined copper. In 17
more than 1000 mines between the cities of Co
quimbo. The copper of Coquimbo is esteemed
world. The value of the gold and silver annua
few years since, was estimated at 3,000,000 dolla
the copper and tin is supposed to be 500,000 d
these metals, lead, and iron of the very best quali
abundance. There are also several mines of quic

Climate

November to May. The atmosphere, during this period, is perfectly clear, and the dews are scarcely perceptible, nor is the heat oppressive. The proximity of the Andes tempers the air, and the mercury fluctuates between 70° and 80° of Fahrenheit, and rarely rises to 85°. Thunder storms, so frequent on the east of the Andes, are unknown in this part of Chili. The air, generally, is remarkably salubrious.

Civil Divisions and Population.

The southern part of the country, including all the territory below the River Biobio, in lat. 36° 50′ S., is in the possession of various tribes of independent Indians, particularly the Araucanians. The rest of the country, extending from the River Biobio to the northern boundary, is inhabited by the Spaniards, and divided into the following districts:

Copiapo,	Canquenes,
Huasco,	Itata,
Coquimbo,	Puchacay,
Cuscos,	Conception,
Petorca,	Aconcagua,
Quillota,	Santa Rosa,
Melipilla,	Mapocho,
Rancagua,	Isla de Maule,
Colchagua,	Chillan,
Curico,	Rere,
Maule,	Isla de la Laxa.

According to a census taken about the year 1812, the population was 1,200,000, exclusive of independent tribes of Indians; and the island of Chiloe and neighbouring islands, added since, have a population of 26,000.

Chief Towns.

St. Jago, the capital, is in lat. 33° 20′ S., in a delightful plain, on the south bank of the Mapocho, a branch of the Maypo, 90 miles from the ocean, and 21 from the Andes. The city is regularly laid out, the streets intersecting each other at right angles, and enclosing in the middle a spacious open square, on the sides of which are the principal buildings, and in the centre a beautiful fountain. The population is estimated at 46,000. [St. Jago contains several good public buildings. Besides the spacious cathedral, which was planned and partly built by two Englishmen, there are various churches, convents, chapels, and hospitals. There is also a university and a handsome mint, which was raised by an architect from Rome. St. Jago, however, is not only the metropolis of Chili, and the residence of its primate, but the emporium of its commerce, which is increased by its vicinity to the mines.]—EDIT.

Valparaiso, the port of St. Jago, and the most commercial city in Chili, is built on a high rugged promontory, which projects into the ocean, forming with the shore a deep crescent, the concavity of which, opening to the north, forms the harbour. The entrance is immediate and easy, and ships of any rise, or in any number, may ride in perfect safety against all winds but those from the north, which blow with great violence in winter, accompanied with a heavy sea. The town is built irregularly, the houses being scattered along the beach and over the hills and ravines of the promontory. The population does not exceed 6500 souls.

Conception, the second city of Chili in rank, stands on the north side of the Biobio, a league from the sea, and contains 13,000 inhabitants. It was originally built three leagues to the north of its present position, but having been twice destroyed by earthquakes, the inhabitants removed hither. Talcahnano, the port of Conception, is six miles distant on the south-west side of the Bay of Conception. This bay is one of the largest and safest on the coast of the Pacific Ocean. It is ten miles long from north to south, and nine from east to west. The mouth of the bay opens towards the north, and is divided by the Island of Quiriquina into two channels; the eastern and safest is two miles broad, and the western about a mile and a half. Both have sufficient depth of water for the largest vessels. There is good anchorage under the south side of the Island of Quiriquina, but the best is at the south-west extremity of the bay, opposite the town of Talcahuano.

The most important sea-ports not already mentioned, are, 1. Copiapo, situated immediately at the mouth of the river of the same name, in lat. 27° 15′ S. The harbour affords good anchorage, is easy of access for vessels of any size, and, as it opens towards the west, is protected from the northerly and southerly winds. 2. Coquimbo, or La Serana, in lat. 29° 54′, on the south bank of the River Coquimbo, within half a league of the coast. Its harbour is a fine capacious bay, easy of access, and protected from all winds, as well as from the swell of the sea. It is the chief port of the mining country, and the richest of the copper mines are in its vicinity. 3. The port of Valdivia, in lat. 39° 50′, is one of the safest, strongest, and most capacious harbours on the western coast of America; but there is no cultivated territory, or civilized population in its vicinity to make it of much importance at present.

Roads.

The high ridges which every where separate the valleys of Chili from each other, are passable only for mules. At present, there are but three carriage roads in the whole country; two of these run from Santiago to Valparaiso, and the third from Santiago to Conception. Except these, there is not another road, on which

a carriage can travel with safety, out of the particular valley to which it belongs. The commerce with the provinces of Buenos Ayres, is carried on through the passes of the Andes; the pass most frequented is that of Putaendo or Uspallata, on the road between Santiago and Mendoza.

Commerce.

While Chili was a Spanish colony, European goods, to the amount of more than a million of dollars, were imported from the mother country, and the returns were principally in gold and silver. Since the declaration of independence, the imports have been from Great Britain and the United States, and consist of arms, ammunition, iron, furniture, tobacco, and French, India, and British manufactures. The exports are gold, silver, copper, tin, wheat, hemp, hides, &c.

Army, Navy, and Revenue.

The army, in 1818, consisted of 8400 regular troops. The navy consisted of one vessel of 52 guns, one of 36, and several smaller vessels, manned by foreign seamen, chiefly Americans and English. The revenue for 1817, according to the official statements of the government, was 2,177,967 dollars.

Religion.

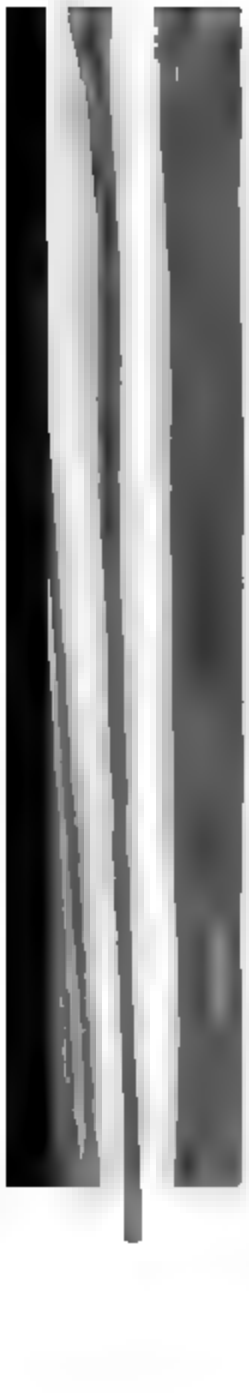
The Roman Catholic is the established religion, and the church is very rich; there are said to be about 10,000 monks and nuns in Chili, and the religious institutions with which they are connected hold nearly one-third of the landed property of the country.

Government.

Chili was formerly a Spanish colony under the dominion of a viceroy; but on the 12th of February, 1818, the people declared themselves independent. The supreme authority is at present in the hands of a director, who is absolute; but it is expected that a congress will soon be called, and a government organized on republican principles.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

Of the history of Chili, previous to the middle of the 15th century, nothing more is known than what may be derived from the vague traditions of the natives. In the year 1450, Upanqui, who then governed Peru, having extended his empire to the borders of Chili, determined upon attempting its conquest. He accordingly despatched one of his princes, who subdued the four

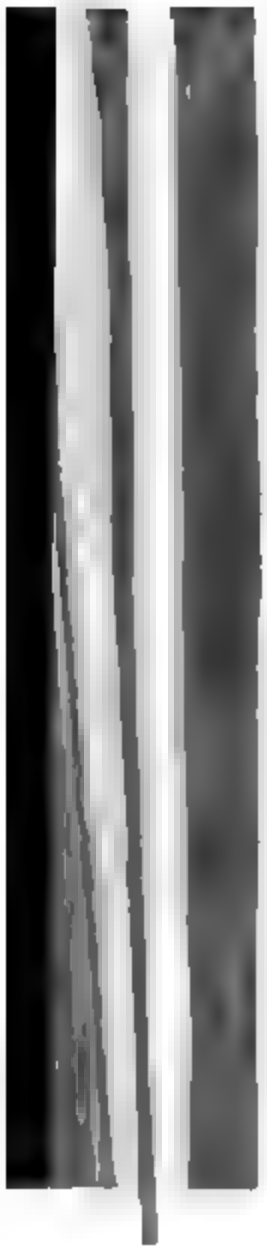


Peruvians perished. The Spaniards were, at fir
the Chilians with the utmost respect: but a cruel m
of their chief men, by order of Almagro, produced
ings; and Almagro, advancing into the country o
cians, was defeated with loss; and the Spaniards,
their general and with the state of affairs, returned t
they arrived in 1538.

Two years afterwards, Pizarro, ambitious of
confirming his conquests, despatched Pedro de Val
Spaniards and a numerous body of Peruvians,
women, monks, and cattle, on an expedition to Chi
pose of settling such districts as he should conq
found the natives of Copiapo determined to oppos
by force, the conduct of Almagro having convince
perfidy of Europeans, but he succeeded in ove
resistance; and having conquered several districts
little loss in the country of Mapocho. Here he fou
of Santiago, on the 24th of February, 1541. The
having assembled some forces, Valdivia set out to
but he was no sooner gone than the Mapochians att
settlement, and the inhabitants were driven into the
surrender of which they were relieved by the timely
divia. Hostilities with the Mapochians continued
when, having utterly defeated the Indians, he ret
mountains. In 1545, Valdivia entered into a treaty
mancians, who were converted into allies, and the ne
Peru. On his return, he brought with him a c
governor, and a supply of soldiers and stores. In

after which he traversed the country to the territory of the Cunches, where he founded another town, calling it by his own name, and soon afterwards returned to Santiago.

While Valdivia was engaged at Santiago, in schemes by which he conceived his power might be confirmed, the Araucanians were preparing a force which totally overthrew it. Caupolicar, the chief of these warlike savages, having destroyed two of the Spanish settlements, advanced against Valdivia, and the two armies met on the 3d of December, 1553. A fierce contest ensued; victory at first inclined in favour of the Spaniards; but a young chief, who had been baptized and employed as a page by Valdivia, suddenly deserted his standard; and, putting himself at the head of his countrymen, renewed the attack with such vigour, that the Spaniards and their allies, the Promancians, were cut to pieces, only two of the latter escaping. Valdivia himself was taken prisoner; and, while a council was deliberating on his fate, an old chief put an end to his existence with a club. He was succeeded in command by Villagran, who was again defeated by the Araucanians, and forced to retreat to Conception, which place he was also obliged to abandon, and proceed to Santiago. Many battles were subsequently fought between the Spaniards and Araucanians, which, though they generally terminated in favour of the former, were destructive to them, and impeded the progress of the settlements. In 1557, the viceroy of Peru sent Don Garcia de Mendoza, his son, with a large force, to Chili. The new governor landed on an island in the bay of Conception, and made overtures of peace to the Araucanians, but found them inveterate in their hostility. Two sanguinary battles were fought, in which the Spaniards were triumphant. In 1559, several battles took place; but although most of their principal leaders were slain, the determined spirit of the Araucanians was not subdued. Don Garcia returning to Peru, was succeeded by Villagran, who met with reverses of fortune, and dying soon after, was succeeded by his son Pedro. During his government, and for many years afterwards, an unceasing warfare was maintained with the Araucanians. The power and determination of the latter seemed to increase with their misfortunes, and at length a signal revenge was taken upon the Spaniards. In 1598, a general insurrection of the Araucanians took place; and, with the assistance of their allies, they put to death every Spaniard whom they found outside of the forts. Villanca, Valdivia, Imperial, and several other towns, were attacked and taken, and Conception and Chillar were burnt. To add to the misfortunes of the Spaniards, the Dutch landed on the Chiloe Islands, plundered Chiloe, and put the Spanish garrison to the sword. Hostilities were continued for many years without any extraordinary result. Each party seemed obstinate in its determination, and each committed cruelties and



between the Spaniards and Araucanians lasted ni
hostilities again broke out with their former fury,
for ten years with various success. At the end
formal treaty was made. This peace was more l
former, and until the beginning of the 18th century
Chili presents little deserving of record.

Though tranquil for so long a space of time, t
Araucanians was not broken, nor was their aversi
niards abated. In 1722, a general conspiracy was
nations from the borders of Peru to the river Biob
moment, when the watch-fires were to blaze on
the Indians were to rise against the whites, a
country from their yoke. The design, however, mi
the Araucanians took up arms; and, after a short
was again concluded. In 1742, Don Josef Manto,
collected the colonists into towns, divided the co
vinces, and founded several new cities. In 1770,
Don Antonio Gonzago, to compel the Araucan
habits of industry, and to associate in towns, was
new war. The Pehuenches, the allies of the Sp
defeated by the Araucanians. Many battles we
most terrible of which took place in 1773, and cau
slaughter. At length peace was restored, one cond
was, that the Araucanians should keep a reside
Santiago, a stipulation which proves the power and
the Araucanians.

Chili appears to have enjoyed tranquillity during
of the eighteenth century; and, being relieved fro

joined by the people generally, defeated the royalists in several engagements. The independence of the country was, it is believed, finally achieved by the victory obtained at the decisive battle of Maypa, in April, 1818. A free constitution has been established, and, from the intelligence and courage of the people, will probably be maintained. The arms of Chili have recently been directed against Peru with signal success; and the fall of Lima attests the skill and bravery of San Martin and his republican army.

CONCLUDING REMARKS.

BY THE EDITOR.

AMONG the various events which have distinguished this eventful period, there is, perhaps, none which the patriot and the philanthropist will contemplate with greater complacency than those which have given freedom to, and may ultimately confer happiness upon, millions of human beings in the western world. The progress of these, too, has been so rapid, and the circumstances attending them so congenial to the diffusion of knowledge, liberty, and truth, that the anticipations of the most ardent mind have been more than realized by the transactions of a few fleeting years. Few years, indeed, have elapsed since the shadow of death seemed to rest upon this southern continent, from the Gulf of Mexico to the Straits of Magellan; but now the torpidity of winter has begun to vanish, and the germ of intellectual and moral life to expand, from the confines of Colombia, to these of Patigonia. While we hail with pleasure the results of those efforts to be free, it is from a conviction that the American subjects of Spain rose not "against an abstract metaphysical principle, but against the extreme of practical oppression;" and we conceive that it requires but little penetration to discover, and still less courage to assert, the utter improbability that the decrees of Madrid will ever again be obeyed on the banks of La Plata, the coasts of the Atlantic, the plains of Bogota, the valley of Rimac, the shores of the Pacific, or the borders of Tezcuco. In withdrawing our attention, however, from the abuses of the past, and directing it to the hopes of the future, we are not so sanguine as to expect, that because the bond between Spain and her American colonies is severed, and, no doubt, for ever, absolute freedom will be the immediate and necessary consequence. Our views on this subject have been briefly, but emphatically, expressed by a recent author, who says, "that to change the character of a nation, is neither the effect of a public decree, nor the work of a day. Time must first wave his broad pinions over this devoted land, and brush away the contagion which the tyranny of three hundred years has so widely spread. The human mind must first recover from that state of ignorance and apathy into which it has been plunged. The mental and moral faculties must first regain their lost energy, more

rational ideas of liberty and justice must first be diffused among the great mass of the people; and then with the models of Great Britain and the North American States before them, the result will be no longer doubtful."—MYERS's *Modern Geography*.

Though the abuses of the past will obviously lengthen the exertions of the future, and much time will be requisite for accomplishing all that may be desired, yet the philanthropist will rejoice to trace the wisdom of experience, and behold the seeds of prosperity in the new constitutions that have been formed for the respective states. Whatever varieties these may present, they all agree that difference of colour is not a sufficient ground for any difference in the civil and political rights of their subjects. The provision made by the rising states for the diffusion of general education, and the gradual abolition of slavery, are no less evidences of correct principles, than proofs of increasing knowledge and pledges of its continuance. Throughout the whole range of these states, the slave trade has not only been prohibited, but the early and gradual abolition of slavery itself has been provided for, by all persons, of whatever colour, who are born subjects of these states being declared free. While the philosopher and the philanthropist, therefore, rejoice together over the downfall of slavery, the expansion of freedom, and the diffusion of knowledge, the Christian beholds the dawn of that day when light shall arise in darkness, and anticipates the hour when the "Sun of Righteousness" shall more fully illuminate the dark places of the earth, and pure and unadulterated Christianity with all its attendant blessings, shall rest, like a radiant glory, upon the western world. Nor do Christian societies, either of this country or the United States of North America, merely hail the day—they seize time as it passes; for the shores of La Plata, the distant regions of Chili, the mountains of Peru, and the swamps of Guiana, have all witnessed their exertions, and rejoiced in their success. The sacred oracles are now to be found where they had never reached before; the agents of the British and Foreign School Society are traversing the southern part of the New Continent from state to state, organizing systems of instruction, and preparing the minds of thousands for the reception of truth. And what must be the result of this commotion?—Providence bestows the bounties of nature in rich profusion—liberty starts from the grasp of oppression—knowledge banishes the shades of ignorance—while the Gospel heals the wounds which contention had made—and why? but that America may be great, happy, and free!

THE END.

LONDON:
PRINTED BY WILLIAM CLOWES,
Northumberland-court.

INDEX.

A.

'A, 338.
of Virginia, 205.
situation, boundaries, and
69. Surface, soil, and
ns, *ib.* Rivers and cli-
. Civil divisions, and po-
ib. Chief towns and forts,
ucation, roads, and canals,
vernment, *ib.* Historical
273. Governors and re-
places, 276.
er, 86, 270.
river, 228.
, 136
S
Sound, 32.
194, 282
College, 168
iver, 144, 164
iver, 3, 407.
situation, boundaries, and
Surface, soil, and pro-
ib. Mountains, gulfs, and
Bays, lakes, and rivers,
ite, 3. Political divisions,
overy and settlement, 5.
d persons connected with,

NORTH, situation, bounda-
extent, 13. Mountains,
s or gulfs, and straits, *ib.*
rivers, and divisions, 14.
l sketch of, 16.
SOUTH, situation, bounda-
extent, 403. Mountains,
ers, 406. Civil divisions
ulation, 409. Historical
b.
uck river, 92
in river, 83, 92.
418.
island, 393. Historical
, 398.

Animals, of Arkansas, 312. Of Michigan, 318.
Annapolis, 185.
Antigua, description of, 395. Historical sketch of, 401.
Appalachicola, river, 36, 325
Apure, river, 407.
Areopolis, 313
Arequipa, 447
Arkansas, 313
Arkansas, river, 35, 311
ARKANSAS TERRITORY, situation, boundaries, and extent, 311. Surface, soil, and rivers, *ib.* Springs and animals, 312. Indians and climate, 313. Civil divisions and population, *ib.* Towns and settlements, *ib.* Government and Historical sketch, 314
ARMY, of the United States of North America, 41. Chili, 457.
Ashuelot river, 92
Assumption, 439
Athens, 148, 240
Atrato river, 414
Augusta, 85, 231
Augustine, St., 326

B.

BAHAMA ISLANDS, situation and extent, 356. Banks and keys, *ib.* Surface, soil, and productions, 357. Navigation and population, *ib.* Historical sketch, 358
Baltimore, 184
Bangor, 85
Banks, Bahama, 356
Barbadoes, description, 385. Historical sketch of, 390
Barbuda, description, 394. Historical sketch of, 398
Bartholomew, St., description of, 393. Historical sketch of, 398
Bath, 85, 94

BATTLES *and* SIEGES, in Maine, 90. New Hampshire, 101. Massachusetts, 113. Rhode Island, 123. Connecticut, 129. Vermont, 137. New York, 153. New Jersey, 162. Pennsylvania, 174. Delaware, 182. Maryland, 191. Columbia, 195. Virginia, 209. Carolina, North, 219. Carolina, South, 227. Georgia, 236. Ohio, 245. Alabama, 276. Louisiana, 288. Indiana, 295. Illinois, 303. Michigan, 324. Cuba, 355.
BAYS, America, 2. America, North, 13. United States of North America, 32. New Brunswick, 25. Rhode Island, 115. New York, 143. Michigan, 317. Florida, 326. Cuba, 351. St. Domingo, 369. Colombia, 414.
Bedford, New, 106
Bennington, 135
Bethlehem, 166
Beverley, 105
Big Black river, 262
Big Sandy, river, 246
Black, river, 144
Black Warrior, river, 270
Blakely, 271
Bogota, Santa Fe de, 417
Boston, 105
BOUNDARIES, of America, 1. America, North, 13. Lower Canada, 19. Upper Canada, 22. Nova Scotia, 24. New Brunswick, 25. United States of North America, 31. Maine, 82. New Hampshire, 91. Massachusetts, 101. Rhode Island, 114. Connecticut, 123. Vermont, 133. New York, 142. New Jersey, 155. Pennsylvania, 163. Delaware, 174. Maryland, 182. Virginia, 199. Carolina, North, 211. Carolina, South, 219. Georgia, 228. Ohio, 237. Kentucky, 245. Tennessee, 254. Mississippi, 261. Alabama, 269. Louisiana, 277. Indiana, 288. Illinois, 296. Missouri, 304. Arkansas, 311. Michigan, 316. Florida, 324. Mexico, 332. Cuba, 350. America, South, 403. Colombia, 412. Brazil, 423. United Provinces, S. A., 434. Peru, 443. Chili, 452
Bowdoin College, 86
Brainard, Missionary Station, 257
Brandywine Creek, 175
Brattleborough, 135
BRAZIL, situation, boundaries, and extent, 423. Surface, soil, and productions, *ib.* Rivers, 424. Climate, civil divisions, and population, 425. Inland communication and commerce, 428. Religion, government, and historical sketch, 430
Bridgeport, 126
Bridgetown, 386
British Possessions, 19
Bristol, 116
Brookville, 291
Brown University, 117
Brunswick, 84
BRUNSWICK, NEW, situation and boundaries, 25. Bays and rivers, *ib.* Soil and productions, *ib.* Population and chief towns, *ib.* Historical sketch of, 30
Brunswick, New, 175
Buenos Ayres, 438
Burlington, 136, 157

C.

Cahawla, 272
Callao, 447
CANADA, LOWER, situation, boundaries, and divisions, 19. Rivers, *ib.* Climate, soil, and productions, 20. Population, *ib.* Chief towns, 21. Commerce, *ib.* Religion and government, 22.
CANADA, UPPER, situation, boundaries, and divisions, 22. Lakes and rivers, *ib.* Soil and climate, 23. Population, *ib.* Chief towns and government, *ib.*
CANADA, historical sketch of, 27
CANALS, of Massachusetts, 103. New York, 145. New Jersey, 156. Pennsylvania, 166. Delaware, 176. Maryland, 185. Virginia, 205. Carolina, South, 220. Ohio, 240. Mississippi, 263. Alabama, 272. Indiana, 291. Illinois, 290. Missouri, 306. Columbia, 418.
Canonsburg, 166
Cape Breton, description of, 26. Historical sketch of, 30
Cape Fear River, 212
Cape Haytien, 370
CAPES, of Massachusetts, 102. Carolina, North, 211. Cuba, 357. St. Domingo, 369.
Caraccas, historical sketch of, 421
Caraccas, de Leon, 417
Cariaceou, island, 387.

CAROLINA, NORTH, situation, boundaries, and extent, 211. Surface, soil, and productions, *ib.* Capes, inlets, sounds, and swamps, *ib.* Rivers and climate, 212. Civil divisions, population, and chief towns, 213. Internal improvements, and natural curiosity, 214. Commerce, manufactures, and education, *ib.* Religion and Government, 215. Historical sketch, *ib.* Governors and remarkable places, 218.

CAROLINA, SOUTH, situation, boundaries, and extent, 219. Surface, soil, and productions, 219. Climate, rivers, and canals, 220. Chief towns, civil divisions, and population, *ib.* Commerce and manufactures, 222. Education, religion, and government, *ib.* Historical sketch, 223. Governors, and remarkable places, 226

Carolina, N. University, 215
Carlisle, 166
Carthagena, 417
Castine, 85
Catawba, river, 212
Catskill, 148
Cauca, river, 414
Celebrated Persons, connected with America, 10
Central College, 205
Champlain Canal, 37
Champlain Lake, 33, 134
Charcas, 439
Charles River, 103
Charlestown, 105, 220
Chatahouchee, river, 229
Chatakouchy, 36
Chaudiere, river, 20
Chesapeake Bay, 32
Chesapeake and *Albemarle Canal*, 37
Chesencook, lake, 83

CHIEF TOWNS, of Lower Canada, 21. Upper Canada, 23. Nova Scotia, 24. New Brunswick, 25.—Maine, 84. New Hampshire, 94. Massachusetts, 105. Rhode Island, 116. Connecticut, 125. Vermont, 135. New York, 148. New Jersey, 157. Pennsylvania, 165. Delaware, 176. Maryland, 184. Columbia, 194. Virginia, 204. North Carolina, 213. South Carolina, 220. Georgia, 230. Ohio, 239. Kentucky, 247. Tennessee, 256. Mississippi, 263. Alabama, 271. Louisiana, 281. Indiana, 290. Illinois, 297. Missouri, 306. Arkansas, 313. Michigan, 318. Florida, 326. Mexico, 339. Cuba, 351. Jamaica, 362. St. Domingo, 370. Porto Rico, 377. Colombia, 417. Brazil, 426. United Provinces, S.A., 438. Peru, 446. Chili, 455.

CHILI, situation, boundaries, and extent, 452. Soil and productions, 459. Rivers and Islands, *ib.* Volcanoes, minerals, and climate, 451. Divisions, population, and chief towns, 455. Roads, 456. Commerce, 457. Army, navy, and revenue, *ib.* Religion, government, and historical sketch, *ib.*

Chillicothe, 240
Chowan, river, 212
Christiana Creek, 275
Christianstadt, 381
Christopher's St., description of, 394. Historical sketch of, 400
Cincinnati, 239.
Clair St., lake, 22, 33
Clarke's River, 36
Clarkesville, 257
Cleveland, 240

CLIMATE, of America, 2. Lower Canada, 20. Upper Canada, 23. United States of North America, 38. Maine, 84. New Hampshire, 93. Massachusetts, 104. Rhode Island, 115, Connecticut, 124. Vermont, 135. New York, 146. New Jersey, 156. Pennsylvania, 164. Delaware, 175. Maryland, 184. Columbia, 192. Virginia, 201. Carolina, North, 212. Carolina, South, 220. Georgia, 229. Ohio, 238. Kentucky, 247. Tennessee, 255. Mississippi, 263. Alabama, 270. Louisiana, 279. Indiana, 289. Illinois, 297. Missouri, 304. Arkansas, 313. Michigan, 318. Florida, 326. Mexico, 336. West Indies, 347. Jamaica, 361. St. Domingo, 369. Brazil, 425. Colombia, 415. United Provinces of S. A., 437. Peru, 445. Chili, 454.

Cohiapo, 456

COLLEGES, Bowdoin, 86. Dartmouth 95. William's, 107. Yale, 127. Middleburg, 136. Columbia, 149. Jefferson's, 168. Washington, *ib.* Alleghany, *ib.* Dickinson, *ib.* Franklin, *ib.* William and Mary, 205. Washington, *ib.* Hampden

Sydney, *ib.* Central, *ib.* South Carolina, 222. Greenville, 257. Knoxville, 257. Nashville, *ib.* Washington, *ib.* Vincennes, 291
COLOMBIA, situation, boundaries, and extent, 412. Surface and mountains, *ib.* Rivers, bays, and lakes, 414. Soil, productions, and climate, 415. Civil divisions and population, 416. Chief towns, 417. Canals and inland navigation, 418. Commerce, religion, and historical sketch, 419. Republic of, 422
Calorado, river, 335
COLUMBIA, district of, situation and extent, 192. Climate, civil divisions and population, *ib.* Chief towns, 194. Commerce, manufactories, and government, 195. Remarkable places, and historical sketch, *ib.*
Columbia, river, 36
Columbus, 240
COMMERCE, of Lower Canada, 21. United States of North America, 40. Statistical views of, 44. Maine, 85. New Hampshire, 94. Massachusetts, 106. Rhode Island, 117. Connecticut, 126. Vermont, 136. New York, 148. New Jersey, 157. Pennsylvania, 168. Delaware, 177. Maryland, 186. Columbia, 195. Virginia, 205. Carolina, North, 214. Carolina, South, 222. Georgia, 221. Ohio, 240. Kentucky, 248. Tennessee, 257. Louisiana, 282. Missouri, 306. Michigan, 320. Mexico, 339. Jamaica, 363. St. Domingo, 371. Colombia, 418. Brazil, 428. United Provinces, S. A., 439. Peru, 447. Chili, 457
Conception, 456
Conecuh, river, 326
Concord, 94
CONNECTICUT, situation, boundaries, and extent, 123. Surface, soil, and productions, *ib.* Rivers, and mountains, 124. Climate, *ib.* Civil divisions, and population, 125. Chief towns, and harbours, *ib.* Manufactures, and commerce, 126. Education, religion, and government, 127. Governors, and remarkable places, 129. Historical sketch, *ib.*
Connecticut river, 35, 92, 103, 124, 134
Coquimbo, 456
Cordova, 439
Cornwall, 126
Corrientes, 439
Corydon, 290
Croix, St., river, 83
Crooked Lake, 143
CUBA, situation, boundaries, and extent, 350. Surface, soil, and productions, *ib.* Capes and bays, 351. Island, population, and chief towns, *ib.* Religion, and political importance, 352. Historical sketch of, 353. Remarkable places, 355
Cuiaba, 428
Cumberland, 185, 246
Cumberland, river, 34
CURIOSITIES, *Natural*, of New Hampshire, 92. New York, 144. Virginia, 200. North Carolina, 214
Cuzco, 447

D.

Darien, 231
Dartmouth College, 95
Debt, Public, of the United States of North America, 41, 45
DELAWARE, situation, boundaries, and extent, 174. Surface, soil, and productions, *ib.* Rivers and climate, 175. Civil divisions and population, *ib.* Chief towns and canal, 176. Manufactures and commerce, 177. Religion, government, and governors, *ib.* Historical sketch, 179. Remarkable place, 182
Delaware Bay, 32
Delaware River, 35, 143
Demopolis, 272
Descada, description of, 397. Historical sketch of, 399
Detroit, 319
Dickinson College, 168
Divisions of America, 3. America, North, 15. Lower Canada, 19. Upper Canada, 22. Nova Scotia, 24. United States, 38. Maine, 84. New Hampshire, 94. Massachusetts, 104. Rhode Island, 116. Connecticut, 125. Vermont, 135. New York, 146. New Jersey, 156. Pennsylvania, 158. Delaware, 175. Maryland, 186. Columbia, 192. Virginia, 201. Carolina, North, 213. Carolina, South, 221. Georgia, 229. Ohio, 238. Kentucky, 249. Tennessee, 255. Mississippi, 263. Alabama, 270. Louisiana, 280. Indiana, 290. Illinois, 297. Missouri, 305. Arkansas, 313. Michigan, 319. Florida, 326. Mexico, 337.

Indies, 348. Jamaica, 236.
omingo, 370. America, South,
Colombia, 416. Brazil, 425.
d Provinces, S. A., 437. Peru,
Chili, 455
ver, 424
GO, St., situation, and extent,
Surface, soil, and productions,
Capes, bays, and rivers, 369.
ite, *ib.* Civil divisions, popu-
, and chief towns, 370. Com-
and education, 371. Religion,
nment, and military power,
Historical sketch, *ib.*
o, St., town, 371
ca, description of, 397. His-
l sketch of, 399
94, 176
iver, 255
lio, 436

E.

165
t, 85
, 214
ION, in Maine, 86. New Hamp-
95. Massachusetts, 106.
e Island, 117. Connecticut.
Vermont, 136. New York,
New Jersey, 157. Pennsyl-
168. Virginia, 205. Caro-
North, 214. Carolina, South,
Georgia, 231. Ohio, 240.
icky, 248. Tennessee, 257.
ma, 272. Louisiana, 282.
a, 291. Illinois, 298. Mis-
306. Mexico, 339. St. Do-
, 371.
sville, 298
thtown, 157
264
nal, 37. Lake, 22, 33
, description of, 394. Histo-
ketch, 399
94
iture of the United States, 44
of the United States, 43
r, of America, 1. United
s of North America, 31. A-
a, North, 13. Maine, 82.
Hampshire, 91. Massachu-
101. Rhode Island, 114.
ecticut, 123. Vermont, 133.
York, 142. New Jersey, 155.
sylvania, 163. Delaware, 174.
land, 182. Columbia, 192.
nia, 199. Carolina, North,
Carolina, South, 219. Geor-
gia, 228. Ohio, 237. Kentucky, 245. Tennessee, 254. Mississippi, 261. Alabama, 269. Louisiaan, 277. Indiana, 288. Illinois, 296. Missouri, 304. Arkansas, 311. Michigan, 316. Florida, 324. Mexico, 332. West Indies, 348. Cuba, 350. Bahama Islands, 356. Jamaica, 359. St. Domingo, 368. Porto Rico, 377. America, South, 403. Colombia, 412. Brazil, 423. United Provinces, S. A., 434. Peru, 443. Chili, 452.

F.

Fairfield, 126
Fayetteville, 213
Fisheries of Massachusetts, 106
Flint river, 36, 229
FLORIDA, situation, boundaries, and extent, 324. Surface, soil, and productions, 325. Rivers, *ib.* Bays and climate, 323 Civil divisions and population, *ib.* Chief towns, *ib.* Islands and government, 327. Historical sketch, 328. Governors, 332
Fort Royal, 384
FORTS, in Alabama, 271. Michigan, 319
Fox River, 318
Francis, St. river, 312
Francisco, Rio, 424
Frankfort, 247
Franklin College, 168
Fredericksburg, 204
Fredericktown, 25, 185

G.

Genesee, river, 144
George, lake, 143
George St., 186
Georgetown, 191
GEORGIA, situation, boundaries, and extent, 228. Surface, soil, and productions, *ib.* Rivers, islands, and swamps, *ib.* Climate, civil divisions, and population, 229. Chief towns, education, and religion, 230. Commerce and manufactures, 231. Indian Country, and government, *ib.* Historical sketch, 233. Governors and remarkable places, 236
Georgia University, 231
Gila, river, 335
Gloucester, 105
GOVERNMENT, of Lower Canada,

22. Upper Canada, 23. United States of North America, 40. Maine, 86. New Hampshire, 95. Massachusetts, 107. Rhode Island, 118. Connecticut, 128. Vermont, 136. New York, 149. New Jersey, 158. Pennsylvania, 169. Delaware, 177. Maryland, 186. Columbia, 195. Virginia, 205. Carolina, North, 215. Carolina, South, 222. Georgia, 232. Ohio, 241. Kentucky, 250. Tennessee, 258. Mississippi, 264. Alabama, 272. Louisiana, 282. Indiana, 291. Illinois, 299. Missouri, 307. Arkansas, 314. Michigan, 320. Florida, 327. Jamaica, 363. St. Domingo, 372. Porto Rico, 377. Brazil, 430. United Provinces, S. A., 439. Peru, 448. Chili, 457.

GOVERNORS, of Maine, 90. New Hampshire, 96. Massachusetts, 108. Rhode Island, 118. Connecticut, 129. Vermont, 137. New York, 154. New Jersey, 159. Pennsylvania, 173. Delaware, 178. Maryland, 191. Virginia, 210. Carolina, North, 218. Georgia, 236. Ohio, 245. Kentucky, 254. Mississippi, 268. Alabama, 276. Louisiana, 287. Indiana, 295. Illinois, 303. Missouri, 311. Arkansas, 316. Florida, 332.

Granada, New, historical sketch of, 419

Grand, river, 23, 304.

Grande, Rio, 424, 427

Gratiot, fort, 320

Greenville, 257

Grenada, description of, 386. Historical sketch, 391

Grenadines, 387

Guadaloupe, description of, 396. Historical sketch, 401

Guanaxuato, 338

Guayaquil, river, 414

Gulfs, of America, 2

H.

Hagerstown, 185

Halifax, 24

Hallowell, 85

Hampden Sydney College, 205

HAMPSHIRE, NEW, situation, boundaries, and extent, 91. Surface, soil, and productions, *ib.* Lakes and rivers, 92. Natural curiosities, *ib.* Islands and Climate, 93. Civil divisions and population, 94. Chief towns, *ib.* Manufactures and commerce, *ib.* Education, religion, and government, 95. Governors, 96. Historical sketch of, 97. Remarkable places, 101

Hanover, 94

Harbour, Connecticut, 125

Harrisburg, 165

Hartford, 125

Harvard University, 196

Havannah, 351

Haverhill, 94

Henderson, 248

HISTORICAL SKETCH, of Canada, 2. Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, 30. Newfoundland, *ib.* Cape Breton, *ib.* Prince Edward's Island, *ib.* America, North, 16. Maine, 87. New Hampshire, 97. Massachusetts, 109. Rhode Island, 119. Connecticut, 129. Vermont, 137. New York, 150. New Jersey, 159. Pennsylvania, 169. Delaware, 179. Maryland, 187. Virginia, 206. Carolina, North, 215. Carolina, South, 223. Georgia, 238. Ohio, 242. Kentucky, 251. Tennessee, 258. Mississippi, 265. Alabama, 273. Louisiana, 283. Indiana, 292. Illinois, 299. Missouri, 307. Arkansas, 314. Michigan, 320. Florida, 328. Mexico, 339. West Indies, 243. Cuba, 353. Bahama Islands, 358. Jamaica, 363. St. Domingo, 372. Porto Rico, 378. Virgin Islands, 382. Martinico, 388. St. Lucia, 389. St. Vincent, 390. Barbadoes, *ib.* Grenada, 391. Tobago, 392. Trinidad, *ib.* Anguilla, 398. St. Martin, *ib.* St. Bartholomew, *ib.* Saba, *ib.* Barbuda, *ib.* St. Eustatia, 399. Mariegalante, *ib.* Deseada, *ib.* Dominica, *ib.* St. Christopher's, 400. Nevis, *ib.* Antigua, 401. Montserrat, *ib.* Guadaloupe, *ib.* South America, 409. Colombia, 419. Brazil, 430. United Provinces, S. A., 440. Peru, 448. Chili, 457.

Hiwassee, river, 255

Homochitto, river, 262

Housatonic, river, 124

Hudson, 148

Hudson, river, 35, 143

Huntsville, 272

Huron, lake, 22, 33

I.
, situation, boundaries, and
, 296. Surface, soil, and pro-
ıs, *ib.* Rivers, *ib.* Cli-
ivil divisions, and population,
Chief towns, *ib.* Canal, pub-
ls, and education, 298. Go-
ent and historical sketch, 299.
ıor, and remarkable places,

river, 34, 296
COUNTRY, Georgia, 231.
ssee, 257. Mississippi, 263.
, situation, boundaries, and
, 288. Surface, soil, and
tions, *ib.* Rivers and cli-
289. Civil divisions, popula-
nd chief towns, 290. Public
and education, 291. Canal
overnment, *ib.* Historical
of, 292. Governor, and re-
ble places, 295.
olis, 291
313
ommunication. Brazil, 428.
448
arolina, North, 211
river, 103
, New Hampshire, 93. Mas-
etts, 102. Rhode Island, 115.
ia, 229. Florida, 327. Ba-
Islands, 358. Chili, 453.

J.
, 352
, situation and extent, 359
e, soil, and productions, *ib.*
te, 361. Civil divisions and
tion, 362. Chief towns, *ib.*
erce, religion, and govern-
363. Historical sketch, *ib.*
ver, 36
Rio, 426
, 306
ville, 291
College, 168
NEW, situation, boundaries,
tent, 155. Surface, soil, and
tions, *ib.* Rivers and ca-
56. Climate, civil divisions,
opulation, *ib.* Chief towns,
factures, and commerce, 157.
tion, religion, and govern-
ib. Governors, Historical
of, 159. Remarkable places,

., island, description of, 381
St., Newfoundland, 26
John's, St., city, 25
John's, St., river, 25, 84, 325
Juan, St., 439
Juan, St., *de Porto Rico*, 377

K.
Kansas, river, 35
Kaskaskia, 297
Kaskaskia river, 297
Keene, 94
Kennebeck river, 83
KENTUCKY, situation, boundaries, and extent, 245. Surface, soil, and productions, *ib.* Rivers, 246. Climate and chief towns, 247. Manufactures and commerce, 248. Education and religion, *ib.* Civil divisions, and population, 249. Government, 250. Historical sketch, 251. Governors, 254
Keys, Bahama Islands, 356
Kingston, United States, 23. Jamaica, 362. St. Vincent, 385
Knoxville, 257

L.
LAKES, of America, 2. America, North, 14. Upper Canada, 22. United States of North America, 32. Maine, 83. New Hampshire, 96. Massachusetts, 103. Vermont, 134. New York, 143. Michigan, 317. Colombia, 414. United Provinces, S. A., 435
Lawrence, St., river, 19
Lead Mines, Missouri, 305
Lehigh, river, 163
Lenox, 106
Leogane, 371
Levees in Louisiana, 280
Lewistown, 176
Lexington, 247
Lima, 389
Litchfield, 126
Liverpool, 24
Long Island Sound, 32
Louis, St., 306
LOUISIANA, situation, boundaries and extent, 277. Surface, soil, an productions, *ib.* Climate and ri vers, 279. Levees, civil division and population, 280. Chief town 281. Commerce and religion, 28 Education and government, *i* Historical sketch, 283. Governo 287. Remarkable places, 288.
Louisville, 247
Lubeck, 85

Lucia, description of, 384. Historical sketch, 389
Lynchburg, 204
Lynn, 105

M.

Machias, 85
Mackinnaw, fort, 319
Madeira, river, 407
Magdalena, river, 414
MAINE, situation, boundaries, and extent, 82. Surface, soil, and productions, *ib.* Lakes and rivers, 83. Climate, civil divisions, and population, 84. Chief towns, *ib.* Manufactures and commerce, 85, Education, religion, and government, 86. Historical sketch of, 87. Governors, and remarkable places, 90.
MANUFACTURES, of Maine, 85. New Hampshire, 94. Massachusetts, 106. Rhode Island, 117. Connecticut, 126. New York, 148. New Jersey, 157. Pennsylvania, 168. Delaware, 177. Maryland, 186. Columbia, 195. Virginia, 205. Carolina, North, 214. Carolina, South, 222. Georgia, 231. Ohio, 240. Kentucky, 248. United Provinces, S. A., 439.
Marblehead, 105
Mariegalante, description of, 397. Historical sketch, 398
Marks, St., river, 326
Maracaibo, 418
Martin, St., description of. 393. Historical sketch, 398
Martinico, St., description of, 384. Historical sketch, 388
Mary, St., river, 229, 318
Marietta, 240
MARYLAND, situation, boundaries, and extent, 182. Surface, soil, and productions, 183. Rivers, climate, and chief towns, *ib.* Roads and canals, 185. Religion, *ib.* Civil divisions and population, 186. Manufactures, commerce, and government, *ib.* Historical sketch, 187. Governors and remarkable places, 191
MASSACHUSETTS, situation, boundaries, and extent, 101. Surface, soil, and productions, *ib.* Peninsula, islands, and capes, 102. Rivers and canals, 103. Climate, civil divisions, and population, 104. Chief towns and harbours, 105. Manufactories, fisheries, and commerce, 106. Education, religion, and government, *ib.* Governors, 108. Historical sketch of, 109. Remarkable places, 113.
Massachusetts, bay, 32
Maurice, St., river, 20
Maysville, 248
Meadville, 166
Memphremagog, lake, 154
Mendoza, 439
Merrimack, river, 92, 103
MEXICO, situation, boundaries, and extent, 332. Surface, soil, and productions, 333. Mountains, 334. Rivers, 335. Sea-coast and ports, 336. Climate, *ib.* Civil divisions and population, 337. Chief towns, *ib.* Mines, 338. Commerce, religion, and education, 339. Historical sketch, *ib.*
Mexico, 327
Miami University, 240
Michigan, lake, 33
MICHIGAN TERRITORY, situation, boundaries, and extent, 316. Surface, and soil, 317. Lake, bays, and rivers, *ib.* Animals and climate, 318. Civil divisions and population, 319. Towns and forts, *ib.* Commerce, government, and historical sketch, 320. Remarkable places, 324.
Middlebury, College, 136
Middlesex, canal, 37, 103
Middleton, 125
Military power of St. Domingo, 372
Milledgeville, 231
Minerals of Ohio, 237. Chili, 454
MINERAL SPRINGS, of New York, 144. Virginia, 200. Arkansas, 312.
Mines, in Mexico, 338. Peru, 445.
MISSISSIPPI, situation, boundaries and extent, 261. Surface, soil, and productions, *ib.* Rivers, 262. Indian country, 263. Climate and chief towns, *ib.* Public lands, roads, and canals, 264. Government, *ib.* Historical sketch, 265. Governors, 268.
Mississippi river, 3, 33, 262, 279
Missisque, river, 134
MISSOURI, situation, boundaries, and extent, 304. Surface, soil, and climate, *ib.* Rivers, *ib.* Lead mines, civil divisions, and population, 305. Chief towns and religion, 306. Education, roads, canals, and public lands, *ib.* Commerce, *ib.* Go-

vernment and historical sketch, 307. Governor, 311.
Missouri, river, 34, 304
Mobile, 271
Mobile, river, 36, 270
Moelle, La, river, 134
Mohawk, river, 143
Moines, des, river, 34
Mole, 371
Monongahela, 164
Montego, bay, 362
Monte Video, 438
Monticello, 264
Montpelier, 135
Montreal, 21
Montserrat, description of, 391. Historical sketch of, 401
Moosehead, lake, 83
MOUNTAINS, America, 2. America, North, 13. Connecticut, 124 Vermont, 134. Virginia, 200. Mexico, 334. South America, 403. Colombia, 412.
Multnomah, river, 2, 36
Murfreesborough, 267

N.

Napo river, 408
Narraganset Bay, 115
Nashville, 256
Nassau, 357
Natchez, 263
Natchitoches, 282
NAVIGATION, of the United States, 44. Bahama islands, 357
Navigation island, 418
NAVY, of the United Sates, 41. Chili, 457
Negro, river, 408, 436
Nepissing lake, 22
Neponset river, 103
Neuse, river, 212
NEVIS, description of, 395. Historical sketch of, 400
Newark, 157
Newbern, 213
Newburyport, 105
Newcastle, 176
Newfoundland, description of, 25. Historical sketch of, 30
Newhaven, 125
New Jersey College, 157
New London, 126
Newport, 116, 248
New York, 148
New York harbour, 144
Neybe, river, 369
Niagara, river, 143
Norfolk, 204
Norridgewock, 85
Northampton, 106
Norwich, 126
NOVA SCOTIA, situation, boundaries, and division, 24. Soil, population, chief towns, and religion, 24. Historical sketch of, 30

O.

Ogdenseburg, 148
OHIO, situation, boundaries, and extent, 237. Surface, soil, and productions, *ib.* Minerals, rivers, and climate, *ib.* Civil divisions and population, 238. Chief towns, 239. Roads and canals, 240. Manufactures, commerce, and education, *ib.* Religion and government, 241. Historical sketch, 242. Governors and remarkable places, 245.
Ohio, river, 34, 237.
Ohio University, 240
Okelockonne river, 325
Oneida, lake, 143
Onion river, 134
Ontario, lake, 22, 33
Orange town, 157
Orinoco, river, 406
Orleans, New, 281
Oswego, river, 144
Ouisconsin, river, 34
Ozama, river, 369

P.

Pamlico Sound, 32
Panama, river, 408, 436
Pantography of American History, 12
Para, 427
Paraguay, 408, 435
Paraiba, river, 425
Parana, river, 408, 436
Parnaiba, river, 424
Pascagoula, 282
Passaic, river, 156
Patuxent, 184
Paul, St., 417
Pawcatuk, river, 115
Pawtucket, 116
Pawtucket, river, 114
Pawtuxet, river, 115
Paz, la, 439
Pearl, river, 262, 272
Pedee, river, 220
Peninsulas, in Massachusetts, 102.
Penobscot, river, 83
Pensacola, 326
PENNSYLVANIA, situation, bounda-

ries, and extent, 163. Surface, soil, and productions, *ib.* Rivers, *ib.* Climate, chief towns, 164. Roads and canals, 166. Civil divisions and population, *ib.* Manufactures and commerce, 168. Education, religion, and government, *ib.* Historical sketch, 169. Governors and remarkable places, 178
Pennsylvania University, 168
Perdido, river, 325
Pernambuco, 427
Perth Amboy, 157
PERU, situation, boundaries, and extent, 443. Surface, soil, and productions, 444. Rivers, mines, and climate, 445. Chief towns, 446. Commerce, 447. Inland communication, 448. Religion, *ib.* Government and historical sketch, *ib.*
Petapsco, 184
Petersburg, 204
Peters, St., river, 34
Petoka, river, 289
Philadelphia, 165
Pictou, 24
Pierre, St., 384
Pilcomayo, river, 436
Piscataqua, river, 92
Pittsburg, 165
Pittsfield, 106.
Plata, la, 439
Plata la, river, 439
Plattsburg, 148
Platte, river, 85
Plymouth, 106
Political importance, of Cuba, 352
Popayan, 418
POPULATION, of Lower Canada, 20. Upper Canada, 23. Nova Scotia, 24. New Brunswick, 25. United States, N. A., 38, 42. Maine, 84. New Hampshire, 94. Massachusetts, 104. Rhode Island, 116. Connecticut, 125. Vermont, 135. New York, 146. New Jersey, 156. Pennsylvania, 166. Delaware, 175. Maryland, 186. Columbia, 192. Virginia, 201. Carolina, North, 216. Carolina, South, 221. Georgia, 229. Ohio, 238. Kentucky, 249. Tennessee, 255. Mississippi, 263. Alabama, 270. Louisiana, 280. Indiana, 290. Illinois, 297. Missouri, 305. Arkansas, 313. Michigan, 319. Florida, 326. Mexico, 337. West Indies, 348. Cuba, 351. Bahama Islands, 357. Jamaica, 362. St. Domingo, 370. America, South, 403. Colombia, 416. Brazil, 425. United Provinces, S. A., 437. Peru, 446. Chili, 455
Port au Prince, 370
Portland, 84
Porto Bello, 417
Porto Cabello, 418
PORTO RICO, situation and extent, 377. Surface and soil, *ib.* Chief towns, population, and government, *ib.* Historical sketch, 378
Port Royal, 362
PORTS, in Mexico, 336. Maryland, 185
Portsmouth, 94
Post Office Establishments, in United States, N. A., 45
Potomac, 183
Potomac, river, 36
Potosi, 438
Prince Edward's Island, or St. John's, description of, 26. Historical sketch, 30
PRODUCTIONS, of America, 1. Lower Canada, 20. New Brunswick, 25. United States of North America, 31. Maine, 82. New Hampshire, 91. Massachusetts, 101. Rhode Island, 114. Connecticut, 123. Vermont, 133. New York, 142. New Jersey, 155. Pennsylvania, 163. Delaware, 174. Maryland, 183. Virginia, 199. Carolina, North, 211. Carolina, South, 219. Georgia, 228. Ohio, 237. Kentucky, 245. Tennessee, 254. Mississippi, 261. Alabama, 269. Louisiana, 277. Indiana, 288. Illinois, 296. Florida, 325. Mexico, 333. West Indies, 346. Cuba, 350. Bahama Islands, 357. Jamaica, 359. St. Domingo, 368. Colombia, 415. Brazil, 423. United Provinces, S. A., 434. Peru, 444. Chili, 453
Providence, 116
Providence, river, 115
PUBLIC LANDS, Mississippi, 264. Indiana, 291. Illinois, 298. Missouri, 306
Puebla, 338

Q

Quebec, 21
Queen's College, 158
Quinebaug, river, 124
Quito, 417

R.

Raleigh, 213
Raritan, river, 156
Reading, 165
Redondo Island, 396
Red River, 35, 279
RELIGION, of Canada, 22. Nova Scotia, 24. United States of North America, 41. Maine, 86. New Hampshire, 95. Massachusetts, 107. Rhode Island, 118. Connecticut, 128. Vermont, 136. New York, 149. New Jersey, 158. Pennsylvania, 168. Delaware, 177. Maryland, 185. Virginia, 205. Carolina, North, 215. Carolina, South, 222. Georgia, 231. Ohio, 241. Kentucky, 248. Tennessee, 257. Louisiana, 282. Missouri, 306. Mexico, 339. West Indies, 349. Cuba, 352. Jamaica, 363. St. Domingo, 372. Colombia, 419. Brazil, 430. United Provinces, S. A., 439. Peru, 448. Chili, 457.
Remarks, concluding, 462
REVENUE, of the United States, N. A., 41, 44. Virginia, 205. United Provinces, S. A., 440. Chili, 457
RHODE ISLAND, situation, boundaries, and extent, 114. Surface, soil, and productions, *ib.* Rivers, bays, and islands, *ib.* Climate, civil divisions, and population, 116. Chief towns, manufactures, and commerce, *ib.* Education, religion, and government, 117. Governors, 118. Historical sketch of, 119. Remarkable places, 123
Rice, lake, 23
Richmond, 204
Rio Bravo, 335
Rio Guasacualco, 335
Rioja, 439
Rio Moctezuma, 335
Rio Zacutula, 335
Rivers of America, 2. N. America, 14. Lower Canada, 19. Upper Canada, 22. New Brunswick, 25. United States of N. A., 33., Maine, 83. New Hampshire, 92. Massachusetts, 103. Rhode Island, 114. Connecticut, 124. Vermont, 134. New York, 143. New Jersey, 155. Pennsylvania, 163. Delaware, 175. Maryland, 183. Virginia, 200. Carolina, North, 212. Carolina, South, 220. Georgia, 228. Ohio, 237. Kentucky, 246. Tennessee, 254. Mississippi, 262. Alabama, 270. Louisiana, 279. Indiana, 289. Illinois, 296. Missouri, 304. Arkansas, 311. Michigan, 317. Florida, 325. Mexico, 335. St. Domingo, 369. America, South, 406. Colombia, 414. Brazil, 424. United Provinces, S. A., 435. Peru, 445. Chili, 453.
ROADS, New York, 145. Pennsylvania, 166. Maryland, 185. Ohio, 240. Alabama, 272. Missouri, 306. Chili, 456
Roanake, river, 212
Russelville, 248
Rutland, 136

S.

Saba Island, description of, 393. Historical sketch of, 398
Sacket's Harbour, 144, 148
Saco, river, 83, 92
Sagg Harbour, 148
Saintes Islands, 397
Saladillo, river, 409, 436
Sulado, river, 436
Salem, 105
Salvador, St., 352, 426
San Carlos de Mantanzas, 352
Santa Cruz, 381
Santa Fe, 338, 439
Santee Canal, 37
Santee, river, 220
Santiago, river, 335
Santos, river, 427
Saquenay, river, 20
Savannah, 230
Savannah, river, 36, 220, 228
Saybrook, 126
Schuylkill, river, 163
Sea Coast, of the United States of N. A., 32. Mexico, 336
Sebago, lake, 83
Seneca, river, 144
Settlements, in Arkansas, 313
Shallow Lakes, 22
Shawneetown, 297
Shieldsborough, 264
Simcoe, lake, 22
SITUATION, of America, 1. America, North, 13. Lower Canada, 19. Upper Canada, 22. Nova Scotia, 24. New Brunswick, 25. United States of North America, 31. Maine, 82. New Hampshire, 91. Massachusetts, 101. Rhode Island, 114. Connecticut, 123. Vermont, 133. New York, 142. New Jersey, 155. Pennsylvania, 163. Delaware, 174. Maryland, 182. Columbia, 192.

Virginia, 199. Carolina, North, 211. Carolina, South, 219. Georgia, 228. Ohio, 237. Kentucky, 245. Tennessee, 254. Mississippi, 261. Alabama, 269. Louisiana, 279. Indiana, 288. Illinois, 296. Missouri, 304. Arkansas, 311. Michigan, 316. Florida, 324. West Indies, 346. Cuba, 350. Bahama Islands, 356. Jamaica, 359. St. Domingo, 368. America, South, 403. Colombia, 412. Brazil, 423. United Provinces, S. A., 434. Peru, 443. Chili, 452

SOIL, of America, 1. Lower Canada, 20. Upper Canada, 23. Nova Scotia, 24. New Brunswick, 25. United States of North America, 31. Maine, 82. New Hampshire, 91. Massachusetts, 101. Rhode Island, 114. Connecticut, 123. Vermont, 133. New York, 142. New Jersey, 155. Pennsylvania, 163. Delaware, 174. Maryland, 183. Virginia, 199. Carolina, North, 211. Carolina, South, 219. Georgia, 228. Ohio, 237. Kentucky, 245. Tennessee, 254. Mississippi, 261. Alabama, 269. Louisiana, 277. Indiana, 288. Illinois, 296. Missouri, 304. Arkansas, 311. Michigan, 317. Florida, 325. West Indies, 346. Cuba, 350. Bahama Islands, 357. Jamaica, 359. St. Domingo, 368. Colombia, 415. Brazil, 423. United Provinces, S. A., 434. Peru, 444. Chili, 453

Sounds, in North Carolina, 211

Spanish Islands, 381.

Spanishtown, 352

Springfield, 106

Squam, lake, 92

Stafford, 126

Statistical Tables, of the United States of North America, 42

Stephens, St., 272

Steubenville, 240

Stockbridge, 106

STRAITS, of America, 2. Of North America, 13

Sugar, river, 92

Sunapee, lake, 92

Superior, lake, 22, 32

SURFACE, of America, 1. Maine, 82. New Hampshire, 91. Massachusetts, 101. Rhode Island, 114. Connecticut, 123. Vermont, 133. New York, 142. New Jersey, 155. Pennsylvania, 163. Delaware, 174. Maryland, 183. Virginia, 199. Carolina, North, 211. Carolina, South, 219. Georgia, 228. Ohio, 237. Kentucky, 245. Tennessee, 254. Mississippi, 261. Alabama, 269. Louisiana, 277. Indiana, 288. Illinois, 296. Missouri, 304. Arkansas, 311. Michigan, 317. Florida, 325. Cuba, 350. Bahama Islands, 357. Jamaica, 359. St. Domingo, 368. Colombia, 412. Brazil, 423. United Provinces, S. A., 434. Peru, 444. Chili, 452

Susquehannah, river, 35, 144, 164

Swamps, in North Carolina, 211. Georgia, 229

T.

Taunton river, 103

Teche, river, 279

Tejuco, 428

TENNESSEE, situation, boundaries, and extent, 254. Surface, soil, and productions, *ib.* Rivers, *ib.* Climate, civil divisions, and population, 255. Chief towns, 256. Commerce, education, and religion, 257. Indians, *ib.* Government, 258. Historical sketch, *ib.*

Tennessee, river, 34, 247, 254

Teppecanoe, river, 289

Thames, river, 23, 124

Thomas, St., 380, 417

Thomas, St., island, description of, 380

Titicaca, lake, 437

Tobago, description of, 387. Historical sketch of, 392

Tocantis, river, 408

Tombeckbee, river, 270

Tonnage of the United States, 43

Tortola, description of, 381

Transylvania University, 248

Trenton, 157

Trinidad, description of, 387. Historical sketch of, 392

Trois Rivieres, 21

Tucuman, 439

U.

Umbagog, lake, 83, 92

UNITED PROVINCES, of South America, situation, boundaries, and extent, 434. Surface, soil, and productions, 434. Rivers and lakes, 435. Climate, division, and population, 437. Chief towns, 438. Commerce and manufactures, 439.

Religion and government, *ib.* Revenue, and historical sketch, 440.
UNITED STATES, of North America, situation, boundaries, and extent, 31. Surface, soil, and productions, *ib.* Coasts, bays, sounds, and lakes, 32. Rivers, 33. Inland navigation, 37. Climate, civil divisions, and population, 38. Commerce and government, 40. Revenue, debt, army, and navy, 41. Religion, *ib.* Statistical tables, 42. Historical sketch of, 46. Chronology, 65.
UNIVERSITIES, Harvard, 106. Brown, 117. Of Vermont, 136. Of Pennsylvania, 168. Of Carolina, 215. Of Georgia, 231. Ohio, 240. Miami, 240. Transylvania, 248.
Uruguay, river, 408, 436
Uttawas, river, 20

V.

Valdivia, 456
Valenciana, mine, 339
Valparaiso, 456
Vandalia, 208
Vassalborough, 85
Vera Cruz, 338
Vergennes, 136
VERMONT, situation, boundaries, and extent, 133. Surface, soil, and productions, *ib.* Lakes, rivers, and mountains, 134. Climate, civil divisions, and population, 135. Chief towns and commerce, *ib.* Education, religion, and government, 136. Governors and remarkable places, 137. Historical sketch of, *ib.*
Vermont University, 136
Vevay, 291
Villa del Principe, 352
Villa Rica, 428
Vincennes, 290
Vincennes College, 291
Vincent, St., description of 385. Historical sketch of, 390
Virgin Gorda, description of, 381
VIRGINIA, situation, boundaries, and extent, 199. Surface, soil, and productions, *ib.* Mountains and rivers, 200. Natural curiosities and mineral springs, *ib.* Climate, civil divisions, and population, 201. Chief towns and canals, 204. Agriculture, manufactures, commerce, and revenue, 205. Education, religion, and government, 205. Historical sketch, 206. Remarkable places, 209. Governors, 210.
VIRGIN ISLANDS, division and description, 380. Historical sketch, 382
Volcanoes, of Chili, 454

W.

Wabash, river, 34, 289
Waldaborough, 85
Walpole, 94
Warren, 116
Washington, city, 192
Washington College, 168, 205
Washita, river, 279, 312
Waterville, 85
Westerfield, 126
WEST INDIES, historical sketch of, 343. Situation, soil, and productions, 346. Climate, 347. Divisions, extent, and population, 348. Religion, 349
White river, 289, 311
White Water, river, 289
Wilkesbarre, 166
William's College, 107
William and Mary College, 205
Wilmington, 176, 213, 257, 234
Windsor, 24
WINDWARD ISLANDS, 384
Winnipiseogee, lake, 92
Wiscasset, 85
Worcester, 106

Y.

Yadkin, river, 212
Yale College, Connecticut, 127
Yazoo, river, 34, 262
Yellowstone, river, 35
York, 23, 85
YORK, NEW, situation, boundaries, and extent, 142. Surface, soil, and productions, *ib.* Lakes, rivers, and bays, 143. Natural curiosities and mineral springs, 144. Roads and canals, 145. Climate, civil divisions, and population, 146. Chief towns, manufactures, and commerce, 148. Education, religion, and government, 149. Historical sketch, 150. Remarkable places and governors, 153
Yuna, river, 369

Z.

Zacatecas, 338
Zonesville, 240

LONDON:

PRINTED BY W. CLOWES,
Northumberland-court.