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HISTORY
OF
NOVA SCOTIA,
FOR SCHOOLS.

BY DUNCAN CAMPBELL,

HALIFAX, N. S.

(Prescribed by the Council of Public Instruction.)

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PREFACE.

THE aim of the writer has been to produce a little book at once solid and attractive. While he has not completely realized his own ideal, he hopes he has succeeded in presenting what will, to a material extent, supply a want which has been sensibly felt in our public schools. The history of Nova Scotia is invested with as deep general interest as that of any other country in Her Majesty's Dominions, and the author trusts his narrative may be the means, not only of imparting useful information, but also of generating a taste for historical reading in our youth, and especially of inducing them to study the larger histories of the Provinces.

At the suggestion of The Rev. Mr. Hunt, the Superintendent of Education, a few biographies have been added, which will probably be regarded as not the least interesting portion of the book.

It is hoped that the questions attached to each chapter will be found useful to teachers in examining the pupils on the various topics treated.

HALIFAX, October, 1874.

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The first part of the book contains a list of the names of the authors of the papers read at the meetings of the Society, and a list of the titles of the papers. The second part contains a list of the names of the authors of the papers, and a list of the titles of the papers. The third part contains a list of the names of the authors of the papers, and a list of the titles of the papers. The fourth part contains a list of the names of the authors of the papers, and a list of the titles of the papers. The fifth part contains a list of the names of the authors of the papers, and a list of the titles of the papers. The sixth part contains a list of the names of the authors of the papers, and a list of the titles of the papers. The seventh part contains a list of the names of the authors of the papers, and a list of the titles of the papers. The eighth part contains a list of the names of the authors of the papers, and a list of the titles of the papers. The ninth part contains a list of the names of the authors of the papers, and a list of the titles of the papers. The tenth part contains a list of the names of the authors of the papers, and a list of the titles of the papers.

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SCHOOL HISTORY OF NOVA SCOTIA.

CHAPTER I.

CHARACTER OF INDIANS.—EARLY SETTLEMENT.

If we look at a map of North America we shall find that the Province of Nova Scotia forms an arm of the main land, stretching eastward towards Europe, and being nearly surrounded by the sea. The Continent of North America, of which Nova Scotia forms a part, is supposed to have been first discovered by Norsemen and subsequently by Sebastian Cabot, the son of John Cabot—a Venetian merchant, resident in England. Sebastian sailed from Bristol in May, 1497, discovered Newfoundland on the twenty-fourth of June, and in sailing along the coast towards Florida is supposed to have sighted Nova Scotia, but there is no evidence that a landing was effected. The country at this time was inhabited by the Micmac Indians, many of whose descendants are now living in the Province. The Indians were then a warlike tribe.

They used to wander from place to place, killing the moose and the cariboo with the bow and arrow, and fighting with the neighboring tribes. They worshipped what they called the Great Spirit, but were ignorant of the true God, and of his son the Lord Jesus Christ.

It is remarkable that almost all the early observers of the Indians inhabiting the upper and lower Provinces should have declared them destitute of any form of worship. Champlain, a distinguished Frenchman who had ample opportunity of observing the habits and customs of the Micmacs, affirmed that they never worshipped deities nor performed any devotions. Careful observation has, however, proved beyond doubt that all the Indian tribes believe in the existence of a great good and a great evil spirit. It may, indeed, be regarded as incontrovertible, that no tribe or nation has yet been discovered in any part of the world totally devoid of belief in an unseen intelligent power or powers, to whom homage in some form or other is considered due. It would be quiet as difficult to find a people devoid of an irrepressible prompting to worship, as to find one without language. The principle of religion is just as deeply rooted in man, as the social principle, and quite as difficult to eradicate. The readiness with which the Micmacs submitted to the teaching of the Roman Catholic missionaries who first taught them religious doctrine, and the punctuality and fervor with which they performed their devotions,

attested their natural longing for more perfect conceptions of the Supreme Being.

Like many other savage people, the Micmacs were firm believers in supernatural agencies. Considerable skill is displayed in the construction of their tales, which are pervaded by not a little quaint humor, and are redolent in all in which a wild, undisciplined imagination might be supposed to delight. The most renowned personage in Micmac traditional story is Glooscap, a hero whose attributes are a strange combination of the human and the divine—with omnipotent power which he exerted in providing human conveniencies on a large scale. His beaver pond was the basin of Minas—the dam being at Cape Split. Spencer's Island was his kettle which he turned upside down. When indignant at the English he suddenly departed from the Peninsula, transforming at the same time his huge dogs into stone. At the motion of his magic wand the Moose and the Cariboo, the Bear and the Lucifée, hastened to his side. The elements also were under his control. When his enemies assembled, numerous as the leaves of the forest, he mysteriously extinguished their fires, intensifying the cold to such a degree that in the morning the hostile host lay dead as the army of Sennacherib. But Glooscap was benevolent. Strangers were made welcome to his great Wigwam where he entertained them right royally. Tradition asserts that he will return again, when his kettle will

assume its original form, his petrified dogs spring into life, and his unbounded hospitality be dispensed. In this creation of the Indian brain we have an indication of the gropings of the untutored mind after right conceptions of the character of the Creator.

The first attempt on the part of Europeans to settle on the eastern portion of the Continent was by the Baron de Lery in the year 1518. But he arrived on the coast too late in the season, and after leaving a part of his live stock at Canso, and the remainder on Sable Island he returned to France. The animals left at Canso either perished or were destroyed by the Indians, while a few of those left on Sable Island survived and multiplied. Several other attempts were made to effect a settlement, the most remarkable of which was an English expedition, at the head of which was a Mr. Hore. It was fitted out in the year 1536, under the patronage of King Henry the Eighth, and consisted of one hundred persons—of whom thirty were men of birth and education—who embarked in two ships. Two months after starting, the expedition arrived at the Island of Cape Breton. They afterwards sailed for Newfoundland, where they failed in opening communication with the natives. They were reduced to a state of absolute starvation, depending for sustenance on roots, and such fish as the parent birds brought to their nests. In the frenzy produced by hunger one or two men were murdered by their companions, when searching for

food on the Island, and their flesh devoured. That evening, some of the company agreed to cast lots who should be killed, rather than that all should perish, when lo! a sail was seen in the distance which proved to be that of a French ship amply supplied with provisions. But to the disgrace of the English they took forcible possession of her, and sailed for England, leaving the Frenchmen, who rescued them from the very jaws of death, in possession of their dilapidated vessel. The reckless voyagers had returned to England about the end of October, and were in a few weeks, followed by the Frenchmen whom they had robbed, and who lost no time in making a formal complaint to the King as to the injuries inflicted on them by his subjects. The King, after an examination into the facts made full reparation to the complainants, and pardoned his subjects on account of the miseries they had already endured. For forty years after the expedition of Mr. Hore no effort was made in prosecuting further discoveries in America.

In the year 1578 Sir Humphrey Gilbert got a patent from Queen Elizabeth for the discovery and settlement of new lands. Gilbert was a brave and generous man. His first voyage was unfortunate, for he lost one of the two ships with which he started, which obliged him to return to England. Determined to fit out another expedition, he sold his estate, and with the money thus obtained he fitted out five small vessels in the year 1583.

He made for Newfoundland where he arrived in August. In returning to England in a vessel called the Squirrel he and all on board were lost, the vessel having foundered.

In our next chapter we shall continue the subject of the early settlement of Nova Scotia.

CHAPTER I.—By whom was the Continent of North America first discovered? In what year did the discovery take place? By whom was Nova Scotia then inhabited? What was the character of the religion of the Indians? Name the great hero of their tales? Who made the first attempt at settlement? What did he leave at Canso and Sable Island? Mention some of those who made subsequent attempts at settlement.

CHAPTER II.

EARLY SETTLEMENT—CONTINUED.

ABOUT the year 1598 the Marquis de la Roche, having obtained a commission from the French King, equipped a vessel, taking about fifty convicts with him, and leaving them on Sable Island, till a suitable place could be found for them. On leaving the Island the Marquis was driven by a tempest eastward, and returned to France, leaving these unhappy men, who would have been starved but for the progeny of the cattle left by the Baron de Lery on the Island. Before the winter set in they secured drift wood from the wrecks of Spanish vessels lost on the coast, which, to some extent protected them from the cold in winter. Seven years afterwards, the King of France sent a vessel to take the men off the Island when only twelve of the number were found to be living, the rest having died of cold and hunger.

Sable Island, on which these unhappy men were left, lies about one hundred and ten miles south east of Halifax, and has been in all ages the terror of mariners. It is shaped like a bow, is twenty-six miles long, and nowhere over a mile wide, having in its centre a shallow

lake about thirteen miles in length. Its surface consists entirely of sand, which has been formed into hills and ridges by force of wind and wave and which in summer is partially covered with verdure. There are no trees on the Island, the vegetation consisting mainly of long rank grass. The beach being exposed on all sides to the billows of the Atlantic, presents a scene of almost constant commotion. When a storm is approaching, the billows, even in the absence of wind, rise high and break with a peculiar moan on the beach. At night, when the elements are fast mustering for strife, the ocean seems in a blaze of phosphoretic light, and when the wind blows more violently, increasing every moment, the waves take a wider sweep, and, crested with foam, partially driven in spray before the blast, crash on the beach with terrific force. The scene is described with graphic power in the following lines:—

“But when thy aspect changes,—when the storm
Sweeps o'er the wide Atlantic's heaving breast;
When, hurrying on in many a giant form,
The broken waters by the wind are prest,—
Roaring like fiends of Hell, which know no rest,
And guided by the lightning's fitful flash,
Who dares look on thee then in terror drest,
As on thy lengthening beach the billows dash,
Shaking the heavens themselves with one long deafening
crash?”*

* Sable Island. A poem by the Honorable Joseph Howe. See Appendix A.

What renders the Island so disastrous to shipping are the subaqueous flats and protuberances of sand by which it is environed, and which are produced by the same causes to which the Island owes its origin. When the wind blows violently the water by which this dangerous ground is covered, being only a few fathoms deep, is agitated from the very bottom far from the beach, and lashed into roaring breakers, which no ship, however strong, can withstand. Perhaps the most remarkable instance on record where oil has been successfully used in smoothing the surface of a tempestuous sea, and thus made the means of saving life, is that of the schooner *Arno*, commanded by Captain Higgins, and cast on Sable Island in the month of September, 1846. This vessel, manned by twelve men, was fishing on the Quero Bank when overtaken by a storm. During the night Higgins lost his head sails, and on the following morning saw land, towards which he was fast drifting without the means of changing his course. He accordingly dropped his anchor in twenty fathoms of water, laying out three hundred fathoms of cable, and thus brought the schooner's head to the wind. In this position he held on till noon, when, despairing of the storm abating before night, and convinced that he could not hold out much longer, he resolved to cut the cable and make for the shore during daylight, as offering the only chance for life. Fixing two large cans of oil near the shrouds, he caused two of his best men—having

ailed up the cabin door and sent the rest of his hands below—to lash themselves to them, and to deal out the oil with ladles, throwing it as high as possible. The violence of the blast threw it far to leeward, and it acted as a charm on the troubled sea, spreading in the course of the schooner, and making the surface of the mighty waves so smooth that not a barrel full of water fell on the deck the whole distance—the Captain all the while, lashed to the helm, and with steady hand directing the schooner's course. Around the surface where the oil floated, seas were breaking, any one of which, in the absence of the oil, would have smashed the schooner in fragments. She at length crossed the bar in safety, and struck the beach. The crew were assisted in landing by Mr. Darby, the superintendent on the Island, and his men, and soon after the vessel went to pieces.

On the island are some hundreds of wild ponies. When the breed was introduced it is impossible to say. They are divided into herds, each having a separate pasture, and each presided over by an old male, remarkable for the length of his mane, rolling in tangled masses over eye and ear. A number of the animals are brought yearly to market, and the securing them for that purpose affords excellent sport.

In the year 1604, one De Monts took command of a French expedition bound for North America. He was accompanied by a gentleman named Poutrincourt. They

arrived at Nova Scotia in the spring of that year, and entered the bay of St. Mary. Here many of the voyagers landed, and among them a priest named Aubry, who, having separated from his friends, and being unable to rejoin them, wandered in the woods for seventeen days, having subsisted during that period on wild fruit, when he was at last discovered by his friends, making feeble efforts to attract attention, and rescued from his perilous position. Proceeding up the Bay of Fundy the party observed a strait which they entered. It was the entrance to the basin of the Annapolis. The coast along which they had previously sailed is comparatively rugged, presenting, when viewed at a distance, few attractive features. But on entering the basin the scene is changed, many of the peculiar elements which lend a charm to the Acadian landscape being found in harmonious combination. The basin itself is a noble expanse of water, so large as to be scarcely comprehended in all its proportions by the keen glance of unaided vision. We can imagine the day, one of unclouded splendor, the heat of summer being tempered by the cooling sea breeze. Fleecy clouds may have occasionally floated across the sun's disc, casting a temporary shadow on wood and water, alternate glimpses of shade and sunshine producing by contrast a pleasing variety in the variegated colors of the "forest primeval." Or we can fancy the vessel, wafted in the evening through the strait by a gentle breeze, and when fairly within the basin

the wind to have died away, leaving the sails hanging loosely, and the surface of the water resplendent in the distance with the reflected rays of the declining sun. Towards the east, islands repose on the bosom of the deep, their forms being vividly mirrored on its placid surface, and from which canoes may be seen darting towards the mainland, with their paddles fitfully splashing in the sunlight. In the distance are no ranges of lofty mountains with snow clad peaks shooting heavenward, but there are peaceful undulating hills, thickly clad from base to summit with wood, constituting an admirable back ground to the whole scene. In silent admiration the voyagers gaze on the enchanting scene, and particularly Poutrincourt, on whom the impression is such that he resolves to make the place his home.

Poutrincourt and his companions accordingly settled at Port Royal—now called Annapolis—but the King of France having deprived the colonists of the monopoly of the peltry trade, they resolved to break up the settlement and return to France. The whole party sailed for France in the autumn of 1607, leaving not one European in the country. The poor Indians shed tears of unaffected sorrow in parting with their friends the French, who generously presented them with ten hogsheads of meal, and all the standing crop then ready for the sickle. The almost uninterrupted friendship which had subsisted between the French and the Micmacs from the very

beginning of their intercourse, is easily accounted for by the tact the former displayed in their management, which was based on genuine acts of beneficence, and due attention to their instruction in the arts of civilized life, and in the doctrines of the Roman Catholic faith.

Poutrincourt returned to Port Royal in 1610, but left for France in the following year, leaving his son in charge of Port Royal. The English Governor of Virginia having resolved to destroy the French settlements in Acadia sent Captain Argal with several armed vessels to effect his purpose, when the son of Poutrincourt fled to the forest and lived with the Indians. In the mean time Poutrincourt visited Port Royal where he found a scene of desolation. He accordingly resolved to leave it forever, which he did, returning to France, and fell fighting bravely in the service of his country, in December, 1615. His son seems to have remained in Acadia till his death, which occurred in the year 1624.

CHAPTER II.—What class of persons did the Marquis de la Roche leave at Sable Island? When did the King of France send for them? What is the distance between Halifax and Sable Island? What is its length and width? What is the Island noted for? When did De Monts sail for America? Who accompanied him? Who lost his way? What basin did they enter? What was the ancient name of Annapolis? Who first settled there?

CHAPTER III.

SIR WILLIAM ALEXANDER AND LA TOUR.

THE French having been expelled from Port Royal in 1613, no attempt at settlement was made under the auspices of the English government till 1621, when King James the First of England made a large grant, which included Acadia, to Sir William Alexander, a native of Scotland. In the mean time Charles the First had ascended the British throne, and Sir William not only obtained a confirmation of the grant made to him by King James, but also the addition of an immense territory which led to the formation of a company, designated "The Merchant Adventurers of Canada." One of them was the celebrated Sir David Kirk, who was born at Dieppe, and whose father was a Scotsman, and his mother a Frenchwoman. Two or three vessels were prepared of which Kirk took command. He sailed under a commission from the King of England, to attack the French settlements in North America, and take French merchant vessels as prizes, of which he secured, in 1627, not fewer than eighteen, taking them to England. In the following year Port Royal was taken by him, and also many French

vessels. Among the prisoners taken in one of those captured was Claude de la Tour, a French Protestant, who had recently obtained an extensive grant of land on the river St. John, and whom Kirk conveyed with others to England.

Charles, the son of Claude de la Tour, commanded a French fort at Cape Sable. His father while in England had married a lady of rank, and having been created a Baronet of Nova Scotia, entered into an arrangement to seduce his son Charles from his allegiance to the French King. Two men of war were accordingly fitted out, and, with De la Tour on board sailed for Cape Sable, where having arrived, he had an interview with his son, to whom he presented a glowing picture of the personal advantages he would derive from giving up the fort, and identifying himself with English interests. His son replied with a spirit and determination highly honorable to his character, that to comply with his father's wishes would be to become a traitor to his King, intimating his determination to defend the fort to the utmost extremity, and even to sacrifice his life rather than his honor. Finding his son resolute De la Tour ordered an attack on the fort, which was continued for two days, and which resulted in the defeat of the attacking force. De la Tour now found himself in an awkward position. To return to France was death, and to England disgrace. He therefore requested his son to permit him to settle quietly with his

wife in the neighborhood, to which the young man consented, on the condition that his father was never to enter the fort.

It was now the year 1632, and after prolonged negotiations peace was proclaimed between Great Britain and France by the treaty of Saint Germain, which was the first public treaty between the two crowns, which settled the possession of Nova Scotia. Notwithstanding that Sir David Kirk, in conjunction with Sir William Alexander and others, had forced the French from both sides of the river Saint Lawrence, and taken all the territories France then had in North America, yet the whole were restored to the crown of France. The wholesale disposal of North America by the English Government to the French, indicates the trifling value put upon the territory by the government of the time, and viewed in relation to its consequences, can scarcely be regarded as compatible with sanity on the part of the advisers of the English crown.

Isaac Razilly was now appointed Lieutenant Governor of Nova Scotia. Arriving at La Havre, he was so charmed with the scenery, that he resolved to settle there. He, however, died shortly afterwards, and was succeeded by Daubre de Charnise, who abandoned La Havre and removed to Penobscot. Razilly had brought with him from France letters patent, by which Nova Scotia, according to the limits there recognized, was divided between himself

and Claude, the son of Claude de la Tour and Denys. The division of the property led to disputes and bloodshed. Charnise and De la Tour were the chief antagonists. Intelligence of the contest between these rivals having reached France, the king interfered, assigning to each the specific limits to which his authority was to be confined. This did not, however, allay the storm. Charnise succeeded, in 1641, in obtaining from France a Royal Warrant for the apprehension of his rival, which, however, he found it impossible to effect, as the forces on both sides were pretty equally balanced. Both parties applied to the Bostonians for assistance, but De la Tour was more successful than his rival, in commanding the sympathy of that Protestant community, chiefly on account of his wife, a singularly excellent, able and energetic woman, being of that persuasion, combined with the trade relations that subsisted between De la Tour and some of the leading merchants of the town.

In the year 1643 De la Tour's fort in the river Saint John was blockaded by his enemy, where a vessel arrived containing supplies for the garrison and one hundred and forty emigrants. Knowing that the vessel could not pass the blockading squadron he resolved to leave, in the mean time, the defence of his fort to his men, and, with his wife, to visit Boston in order, if possible, to obtain aid. Great was the commotion in the town on their arrival. The Puritan divines set themselves to the examination of

scripture in order to find, if possible, a sanction for the solicited resistance, which resulted in a slight preponderance in favor of Bostonian popular inclination. The result was permission being granted to De la Tour to charter vessels, and engage men for his purpose.

On the fourteenth of July, 1643, the expedition sailed, duly arriving at the river Saint John, when Charnise prudently took to flight. Despairing of conquering a rival so active as De la Tour without a strong force, Charnise went to France in order to consolidate his court influence, and obtain the necessary assistance. He returned, however, without being accompanied by military aid. The wife of De la Tour at the same time visited England and returned in a vessel which she chartered for Saint John, but the master of the vessel in spite of the remonstrance of the lady, went up the St. Lawrence to trade with the Indians, for which breach of contract she on the arrival of the vessel at Boston, recovered two thousand pounds as damages, with which she purchased additional supplies, and returned to Saint John.

Charnise hearing in the spring of 1645 that De la Tour was absent, and that his fort was only garrisoned by forty men, determined to attack it. Madame De la Tour, inspired with heroism equal to that of her husband, resisted the attack bravely, killing and wounding the attacking force. Charnise proposed a capitulation, which was agreed to. The villain having thus obtained entrance, hanged all

the brave defenders, save one, who was the executioner of the rest, and with cowardly vindictiveness compelled the noble woman to witness, with a halter round her neck, the execution of her courageous soldiers. Great spoil was found in the fort, which Charnise conveyed to Penobscot. Madame De la Tour, broken in heart by the inhuman treatment she received, died soon after this event. She was a heroine of the highest type, beloved and esteemed by all who knew her. Charnise did not long enjoy his triumph, for he died in 1650, leaving a record in which none of the finer features of humanity are discernable. In 1653 La Tour married the widow of Charnise, his late antagonist,—an event which brought all existing disputes to an amicable termination.

CHAPTER III.—To whom did James the First make a grant of Acadia? Who was the most celebrated merchant adventurer? Whom did he take prisoner? What was his son's name? What did his father attempt? Did he succeed? What was the character of Madame De la Tour? What was the character of Charnise?

CHAPTER IV.

OLIVER CROMWELL AND SIR WILLIAM PHIPS.

WHILE France and England were at peace, Oliver Cromwell sent, in the year 1654, Major Sedgwick to attack the French forts in Nova Scotia, and take possession of the country on the plea that a certain sum of money which France had promised on the cession of Nova Scotia had not been paid. The truth is that the Protector was indignant at the Government which gave up British territory to France, and had determined to wrest it from her grasp, holding as he did that the country was the property of England by right of discovery. France loudly complained of such hostile action in time of peace, and insisted on the restoration of the territory; but so impressed was Cromwell with the folly of the cession that he preferred hazarding a war to compliance with the demand for restitution. Thus the English had possession of the coast from Cape Canso to New England, while the French retained the shore of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and the Island of Cape Breton. In the year 1667 the folly of 1632 was re-enacted by the restoration of Nova Scotia to the crown of France, in violation

of the rights of Sir Thomas Temple and other British subjects who had expended large sums of money in placing the forts in a proper state of defence.

In the year 1689, on the accession of William and Mary, a war broke out between France and England. Anticipating a contest, extensive preparations were made in Britain and New England for its vigorous prosecution. It was resolved to strike, if possible, a decisive blow at French power in North America, and means considered commensurate with the design were adopted. The population of the English Colonies at this time was about two hundred thousand, while that of Canada was only about nine thousand, thus giving England an immense advantage in a war to be waged at so great a distance from the parent state. An expedition was prepared at Boston, whose object was to attack Annapolis, of which Sir William Phips was appointed commander. Phips was born about sixty miles west of Penobscot. His father was a blacksmith, and Phips followed, in his youth, the humble occupation of a shepherd. He was apprenticed to a carpenter, and on the expiration of his indenture built a vessel for himself, which he navigated. Hearing of a Spanish wreck near the Bahama Islands, he went thither, but failed in recovering the cargo, which consisted of bullion and coin. When thirty-three years of age, he was sent by the British Government to make a similar attempt on a Spanish wreck near Port de la Plata, in

which he likewise failed. Five years subsequently, the Duke of Albemarle, being then Governor of Jamaica, provided the means for another attempt in the case of the latter wreck. Diligent search was made where the ship was said to have gone down, and further search was about being abandoned, when a sea feather was seen from one of the boats. An Indian descending to bring it up discovered guns at the bottom; and on the second descent brought up a mass of silver. The good news was at once communicated to Captain Phips, who succeeded in recovering gold, silver and jewels to the value of £300,000 sterling. For this service he was knighted. Such was the man who took charge of the expedition to Port Royal.

The squadron, consisting of a frigate of fifty guns, two sloops, and four small vessels, in which a force of seven hundred men and boys were embarked, left Boston in April, 1690. M. de Menneval was then Governor of Nova Scotia, residing at Port Royal, and had only a garrison of eighty-six men. The fort was in a dilapidated condition, the guns not being placed in battery, and the place was therefore surrendered. Cheered by the success in this instance of Phips, the New Englanders lost no time in sending him in charge of a squadron of thirty-two ships and tenders, having a force of two thousand fighting men on board, on purpose to attack Quebec, but in this expedition he was not so successful. The fleet having sustained

considerable damage, without making any marked impression on the forts, retired and returned to Boston.

When Phips left Port Royal he did not leave a solitary man to defend it; hence the French again took possession of it.

In the year 1710 great preparations were made for the conquest of Canada and Nova Scotia. The command of the New England forces was entrusted to Francis Nicholson, who had been appointed Governor of New England, under Sir Edmond Andros, in the year 1688, and was made Governor-in-Chief in 1698. Nicholson sailed from Boston on the eighteenth of September with a fleet of thirty-six vessels, and arrived at Port Royal towards the end of the month. Subercase, the Governor, despairing of successfully resisting so great a force, surrendered on conditions favorable to the garrison. The English, now sensible of the disastrous consequences resulting from the policy hitherto adopted of abandoning Port Royal after having taken repeated possession of it, had resolved to retain it permanently.

The Acadians were alarmed at the indications of permanent occupancy which they witnessed, and evinced a degree of hostility which caused the Governor to adopt such measures as were calculated to convince them that they must act in virtue of their temporary allegiance to the British Crown; as became faithful subjects. The restraints imposed were galling to the French, and they despatched a

messenger with a letter to the Governor of Canada, referring to their general misery under British rule, and praying to be furnished with means of leaving a country where they could not enjoy absolute freedom; but the letter contained no specific charges. In the hope of regaining Port Royal, and impressed with the importance in the meantime of intensifying Indian hostility to English rule, the Canadian Governor sent messengers to the French residents to exert their influence in that direction. The consequence was that parties sent out to cut wood were attacked, and that travelling beyond the fort was considered dangerous. Eighty men sent from the garrison on that service were attacked by the Indians, who killed about thirty of the party, taking the rest prisoners. Vaudreuil, the Governor of Canada, had made preparations to assist in the recapture of the fort, but intelligence of a strong force being in preparation to attack Canada prevented the accomplishment of his purpose.

CHAPTER IV.—Who was Oliver Cromwell? What did he do in 1654? When did war break out between France and England? Who was sent to attack Annapolis? How many men and boys embarked? Where was Phips next sent to? Did he succeed? What occurred in the year 1710? How did the Indians conduct themselves towards the British?

CHAPTER V.

LOUISBOURG.—THE ACADIANS.

A FLEET under Admiral Walker, which was to co-operate with General Nicholson in attacking Quebec, having sustained great damage in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, the enterprise was abandoned.

The severe contests in which France and Britain were almost continually engaged required occasional breathing times. Hence both nations were equally desirous of peace, and no difficulty was experienced in coming to terms. In the preparation of previous treaties, France had succeeded in making the cession to her of any portion of North American territory wrested from her a fundamental condition of agreement, but the English Government had now resolved to retain Nova Scotia. Hence in the celebrated treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, it was provided that all Nova Scotia should be yielded to the English Crown for ever, together with Newfoundland, France retaining possession of Cape Breton. The French justly attaching great importance to that beautiful island, began to look for a harbor that might be rendered impregnable, when Louisbourg was regarded as the most eligible.

An effort was now made by the Governor of Cape Breton to induce the Acadians to remove to that island but the people could not appreciate the advantages to be gained in removing from the fertile meadows of the Annapolis valley to a soil which, however excellent, required much labor to render it fit for cultivation. Repeated efforts were made to get the Acadians to take the oath of allegiance to the British Crown, but they continued firmly to refuse to do so, without the condition that they should not in any circumstances be compelled to take up arms against the King of France.

If the year 1745 was memorable in British history, as that in which Prince Charles Edward Stuart attempted, by force of arms, to regain the throne of his ancestors, it was equally so in the history of British North America, as that in which the great fortress of Louisbourg was taken. The renowned French stronghold lay on the east coast of the island of Cape Breton. An admirable drawing of it, as it stood at this period, may be seen in the Provincial Museum in Halifax. War had been declared by Great Britain against France in April, 1744. In the contemplated attack on Louisbourg, William Shirley, the Governor of Massachusetts, was the moving spirit. A powerful fleet arrived at Gabarus Bay, near Louisbourg, on the thirtieth of April, 1745. The siege had been pressed with vigor for a month, when it was determined to make a simultaneous attack by sea and land, which the British

were the better able to do as the squadron was strengthened by the arrival of several war ships. Everything was in preparation for the purpose when the French Governor sent a message, indicating his desire to capitulate. Terms being agreed to the forces took possession of the fortress on the seventeenth of June. The loss of the British during the siege did not exceed one hundred and thirty men, while that of the French could not be accurately ascertained.

On entering the fortress, and examining its elaborate scientific defences, the army was amazed. Had the defence been continued with resolution, the loss of life in its capture would have been enormous.

While intelligence of the fall of Louisbourg was received in England with joy, it produced in France widespread consternation. It was at once resolved to retake the fortress. A formidable fleet was for that purpose despatched under the command of the Duke D'Anville. The ships encountered fearful weather, which scattered them in all directions. D'Anville arrived at Chebucto—Halifax—the port of rendezvous, with only his ship and a few transports. The calamity preyed on the mind of the French Admiral to such an extent that he died of a fit of apoplexy. Vice Admiral, D'Estournelle, then took command, and held a council of war, at which he proposed to return to France. All the officers were, however, in favor of first taking Annapolis. Finding himself opposed

in council, the Admiral fevered, and in a state of delirium fell on his sword and died. He is said to have been buried on George's Island. The French made, in the following year, another attempt to regain their lost possessions in America, but the fleet sent for that purpose was defeated near Cape Finesterre by an English squadron sent to intercept it—the engagement resulting in the capture by the English of nine ships of war and six East Indiamen.

In May, 1745, M. Marin, a lieutenant from Canada, arrived in the vicinity of Port Royal with a force of three hundred French Canadians, and three hundred Indians, hoping to be joined by the Acadians, and thus be able to reduce the fort, but the people had been previously so impressed with the friendly disposition of the Governor, and so fortified against open defection by his arguments, that neither the soothing blandishments nor the bitter threats of Marin had the effect of inducing them to appear in arms against him. Besides, the Acadians knew the extent of Governor Mascarenc's defensive operations, and that such an attack as Marin proposed would probably prove unsuccessful. The French officer, under these depressing circumstances, was meditating a retreat when he received a pressing order to sail for Louisbourg, which was now invested by the English. About five hundred of the force—the rest returning to Minas—accordingly embarked in small vessels, but when near Cape Sable, were chased by

New England cruisers, and did not reach Louisbourg till a month after the place had been surrendered.

In the following year De Ramezay, a Canadian General, appeared before Annapolis with a force consisting of seven hundred Canadians, but Mascarene having been reinforced the Canadian General thought it prudent to retire to Chegnecto, and there wait expected assistance. Meanwhile four hundred and seventy men, besides officers, arrived at Minas from New England to join Mascarene. The soldiers, of whom Colonel Noble had command, were quartered at Grand Pre, and, not anticipating any attack, took no precautions for their own security.

Intelligence of the arrival of the English having reached Ramezay, it was resolved, at a council of officers, to attack them at once. Preparations for that purpose were accordingly made. The attacking force consisted of two hundred and forty Canadians, with twelve officers and sixty Indians, who left Chegnecto—Cumberland—on the twenty-third of January, 1747, and arrived at Pizequid—Windsor—on the ninth of February. As it was intended to take the English by surprise, the woods were guarded, so that intelligence might not reach them. The French arrived at Grand Pre on the fourth of February, at two o'clock A.M., having guides to the various houses where the troops were quartered. They approached under cover of a snow storm, and were not seen by the English sentinels till it was too late to give the alarm. A desperate

struggle ensued, in which the French, owing to the English being in bed, had every advantage. Colonel Noble was killed, fighting in his shirt. Coulon, the commander of the French, was severely wounded, and carried to Gaspereaux. After fighting from house to house till ten o'clock A.M., terms of capitulation were agreed to, by which the English were to leave Annapolis within twenty-four hours, with the honors of war and six days provisions—the English prisoners remaining in the hands of the French, who left on the twenty-third of February, arriving at Beaubassin on the eight of March, from which the whole French force was shortly after withdrawn.

CHAPTER V.—What was the general policy of France in making peace with England? What occurred in 1713? Who were the Acadians? What was the policy of Britain in regard to them? What two events is 1745 celebrated for in British History? Who attempted in 1745 to regain Port Royal? What was the disposition of the Acadians towards the English at this time? Where did a remarkable contest take place between the French and English, and with what result?

CHAPTER VI.

SETTLEMENT OF HALIFAX.

It was now the year 1748, and peace was about to be declared between France and England. The terms being agreed upon, a treaty was concluded in October. Though the island of Cape Breton was restored to France, it was determined to retain a firm hold of Nova Scotia. A settlement of a numerous colony of British subjects in the Province was recommended as the best means of firmly attaching it to the throne, as well as the most effectual protection against aggression. An advertisement was accordingly published in the *London Gazette* setting forth the advantages offered to the proposed colony. The emigrants to the number of 2576 arrived early in July off the harbor, which the officers pronounced to be the finest they had ever seen. The ground, which is now the site of a considerable city, was then covered with forest trees which grew to the water's edge. "The country," said the Honorable Edward Cornwallis, who had command of the expedition, "is one continued wood, no clear spot to be seen or heard of." A few French families had settled some miles off, who visited the fleet on its arrival.

Knowing the severity of the climate in winter, no delay was permitted in landing the emigrants and setting them to work in effecting a clearance, and erecting habitations. It was at first intended that the town should be built near Point Pleasant, but on further consideration it was wisely resolved to adopt a site further up the harbor. As indications of winter appeared, the movements of the colonists towards completing their houses were quickened. Many of the structures were by no means substantial or well adapted for so severe a climate. To insufficient protection from cold, must, to a great extent, be attributed the great mortality of the succeeding winter.

On the twenty-fifth of July a council was sworn in on board one of the transports. Their names were Paul Mascarene, John Gorham, Benjamin Green, John Salisbury and Hugh Davidson.

Such was the energy with which the colonists worked, that on the twenty-eighth of October they had three hundred houses roofed and made habitable. The military had surrounded the town with a barricade for protection against Indian attacks, which they finished about the same time.

On the arrival of the Governor, the Indians seemed extremely friendly. They visited his Excellency and received presents. Afterwards a formal treaty was prepared, which was signed with due formality, but was soon violated on their part. In October they attacked

six men engaged in cutting wood near Dartmouth, killed four of them, captured one, and the sixth man escaped. At Canso they took twenty Englishmen prisoners, besides committing other hostilities. These breaches of good faith led to the adoption of the principle of extermination on the part of the Governor, a considerable sum of money being offered for any Indian scalps produced. The Governor had already tried fair means in order to conciliate them, and these having failed, he was determined to make them feel the full weight of his resentment.

In the month of August, 1750, the ship *Alderney* arrived in Halifax with about three hundred and fifty emigrants, who were sent to the opposite side of the harbor, and founded the town of Dartmouth in the autumn of that year. In December following, the first ferry was established, and John Connor appointed ferryman by order in Council. In the following year the Indians surprised the little village at night, scalped a number of settlers, and carried off several prisoners. The inhabitants, fearing an attack, had cut down the spruce trees near the settlement, which, instead of a protection as was intended, served as a cover for the enemy. Captain Clapham and his company of Rangers were stationed on the Blackburn Hill, and, it is said, remained within his block-house firing from the loopholes during the whole affair. The light of the torches

and the firing of musketry alarmed the inhabitants of Halifax, some of whom put off to their assistance, but did not arrive in any force till after the Indians had retired. The night was calm, and the cries of the settlers and the whoops of the Indians were distinctly heard on the western side of the harbor. On the following morning several bodies were brought over—the Indians having carried off the scalps.

Deputies from the Acadians having again come to the Governor to petition for liberty to retire from the Province with their property, expressing their determination not to sow seed, the produce of which others were destined to reap, the Governor reasoned with them as to the impropriety of their conduct, urging them to perform their usual spring labor. His Excellency was more conciliatory than usual, and the key to his altered manner is found in a letter dated the eleventh September, 1749, addressed to the Board of Trade, in which he says:—"I am sure they will not leave their habitations this season. My view is to make them as useful as possible to His Majesty while they stay. If afterwards they are still obstinate and refuse to take the oath, I shall receive in spring His Majesty's further instructions from your Lordships." Having complied with the Governor's instructions in regard to the cultivation of the land, the deputies returned, in order to receive a specific answer to their petition. The Governor in an address complimented the people on

their industry and temperance, and on the absence amongst them of any vice or debauchery. He reminded them that they had every possible assurance of the free and public exercise of their religion, and that they possessed the only cultivated land in the Province, producing grain and nourishing cattle sufficient for the whole colony; but he peremptorily refused to allow them to retire in a body, even without their property, as the French, who were establishing themselves in violation of treaty in various parts of the Province, would compel them to take up arms against British authority; but he promised after the country became more settled, to give passports to such as should ask for them.

Cornwallis returned to England in the summer of 1752. His administration was most effective, proving him to have been a man of rare gifts for government. Wisdom, decision, tact, and energy, distinguished his rule. He infused vigor into every department of the government, and left his mark on Nova Scotia.

Governor Cornwallis was succeeded by Peregrine Thomas Hopson, in August, 1752. In a despatch sent by him to the Board of Trade, dated twenty-third of July, 1753, he gives an account of the Acadians and Indians, which is interesting as relating to a period so near that of the expulsion of the former from the Province. The number of Acadian families he puts down at nine hundred and seventy-three, who are mainly settled in Pizequid,

River Canard, Minas and Annapolis—the other settlements, Cobequid, Rimchigne, Tatamagouche and Cape Sable, containing only sixty-three families. He estimates the Micmacs at about three hundred families, and says that at no time had more than two hundred of them appeared in arms. He remarks, it may appear unaccountable to their Lordships, that with such a force as he has at his disposal he should solicit further military aid, accounting for the apparent anomaly from the number of soldiers required to defend the various forts, and the peculiarities of Indian warfare. He adds that the French are strengthening themselves at Fort Beausejour, in Cumberland, and expresses his conviction, that till the French flag is removed, the English colonists can have no settled peace.

CHAPTER VI.—In what year was Halifax settled? How many emigrants first arrived? Who commanded the expedition? When and where was the first Council sworn in? Mention their names. How did the Indians conduct themselves? When was Dartmouth founded? What was the policy of Cornwallis in regard to the Indians? Who succeeded him in the Governorship? What was the number of Acadian families in the Province? What was the number of Micmac families?

CHAPTER VII.

THE EXPULSION OF THE ACADIANS.

WE have now come to that interesting period of the history of Nova Scotia when the Acadians were expelled. Their number was estimated at about seven thousand, and they had about five thousand black cattle, besides a great number of sheep and hogs. They were an exceedingly moral people, and lived in peace and comfort in the most fertile portion of the Province, but their presence in the Province was deemed dangerous by the British government, as they were naturally in sympathy with France, the country of their fathers, with which Great Britain was almost constantly at war. The Acadians had always refused to take the oath of allegiance, and it was now determined to remove them. Measures were taken for that purpose without their knowledge. The poor Acadians were busy completing their harvest when the time of their departure had arrived. Colonel Winslow, on the second of September, 1755, issued a written order commanding the inhabitants of Grand Pre, Minas and other places adjoining to attend at the Church at Grand Pre, for the purpose of hearing

His Majesty's instructions respecting them. A large number consequently attended, having no idea of what was to follow, when Winslow, to their horror and astonishment, informed them that it was the King's orders that they should be immediately removed. The calamity was so sudden that the people could not for some time realize their true position. The number collected for removal at Grand Pre, was 1923 souls. A number escaped to the woods, from which they beheld the smoke of their burning habitations; for the command to destroy all means of shelter and subsistence was rapidly executed. In the district of Minas alone, there were 255 houses, 276 barns, 155 out-houses, 11 mills, and 1 Church destroyed. On the tenth of September, the people—men, women, and children—were driven on board the transports in a state of great grief and agitation. At Annapolis and Cumberland the people left their dwellings and fled to the woods. At the latter place 253 houses were set on fire, and the harvest produce at the same time destroyed. Thus were the Acadians banished, and sent to Virginia, South Carolina, and other places where the people were alien in language and religion.

At the various colonies at which the unfortunate Acadians arrived, they were not, by any means, made welcome. As winter had now set in, it was impossible to find employment for such as were able to work, and their maintenance, therefore, became a serious burden to the

Colonial Governments, who wrote to Governor Lawrence of Nova Scotia, demanding money for their support, which the Governor was in no haste to supply, his object being simply to get quit of the Acadians, without concerning himself as to how they fared in the lands to which they had been transported, provided their return to the Province was prevented. According to a despatch addressed to Governor Lawrence by the Lords of Trade, in July, 1756, it seems that several hundreds of the Acadians had been sent to England from Virginia and South Carolina.

But the question occurs—assuming that the removal of the Acadians was for reasons of State absolutely necessary—was the British Government justified in transporting the entire population—men, women and children—to colonies, where their language was unknown, and their religion was regarded as heresy, without even provision having been made for their maintenance? That question must surely be answered in the negative. It is granted that to have permitted them to remove to Cape Breton, and thus augment the power of the enemy, would have been worse than foolish; but the difficulty could have been solved by sending them to France. That was the course which would most naturally occur, and that of which Governor Lawrence first thought, as clearly appears by a passage addressed by him to the Lords of Trade on the eighteenth of July, 1755, where, in referring to an interview with the Acadians, he says:—"The next morning

they appeared and refused to take the oath without the old reserve to bear arms, upon which they were acquainted that, as they refused to become English subjects, we could no longer look upon them in that light; that we should send them to France by the first opportunity; and till then they were ordered to be kept prisoners at George's Island, whither they were immediately conducted."

The Acadians were repeatedly informed that they would be sent away from the Province, and forfeit all their property unless they consented to become British subjects, but they were not told that the penalty of refusal was to be packed on board ship, and transported to countries alien in language and religion—that numbers of families were to be cruelly separated from each other; that venerable old men and women, and fair Acadian maidens were to be reduced to a state of beggary in strange lands. The transportation of the people in the manner executed was a blunder, and it is far more manly to acknowledge it as such than vainly to attempt to palliate or excuse conduct at which, when coolly viewed in relation to its consequences, the moral instincts of mankind shudder. It would be unjust to the memory of the Honorable Charles Lawrence to say that he himself was at first cognizant of the consequences involved in his policy, but an impartial historian, on a review of his public life, can scarcely fail to remark that when the panorama of Acadian suffering was fully unfolded to his view he

beheld it with a countenance as unmoved as that of Napoleon, when, on the day after a bloody battle, he deliberately rode over the field—as was his wont—beholding without any visible emotion the havoc of war.

CHAPTER VII.—When were the Acadians transported? What was their number? Who commanded the expelling force? How were the Acadians received in the various Colonies to which they were sent?

CHAPTER VIII.

FIRST ASSEMBLY IN NOVA SCOTIA.—LOUISBOURG
DESTROYED.

ABOUT the beginning of the year 1755, the attention of the Lords of Trade was directed by Chief Justice Jonathan Belcher to the important constitutional question: whether the Governor and Council of Nova Scotia had the power to pass laws without an Assembly. The question having been submitted by the Home Government to Her Majesty's Attorney-General and Solicitor-General for their opinion, they decided that the Governor and Council alone were not authorized to make laws. As some statutes had been passed, it followed that they were not valid. The Government informed Lawrence of the opinion, cautioning him not to give it publicity till an Assembly had been called, and an act of indemnification obtained. Lawrence was opposed to the calling of an Assembly, and did all in his power to frustrate the intentions of the Home Government. The people were, however, determined to press the Crown for an Assembly, and accordingly transmitted a petition setting forth the evils arising from the absence of a representative body.

On the attention of the Governor being called by the Lords of Trade to the petition, he assured their Lordships that no person whatever, with whom he had conversed, and on whose judgment and advice he could rely, had of late considered the measure of calling an Assembly otherwise than as chimerical. He hoped therefore that their Lordships would not be displeased that their instructions had not been carried out. Their Lordships replied that having fully considered the Governor's letter in regard to the calling of an Assembly, and having so often and so fully repeated to him their sense of the propriety of the measure, it now only remained for them to direct its being carried into immediate execution. Accordingly at a meeting of Council held on the twentieth of May, 1758, it was resolved that sixteen members should be elected, which was done, and the Assembly met on the seventh of October, 1758, and after electing Robert Sanderson, Speaker, passed a number of laws. It was resolved that for the first session the members should not receive any remuneration.

War against France had been declared in London on the 18th of May, 1756,—one of the principal reasons of the declaration being the encroachments of the French on the Province of Nova Scotia. It was resolved to attack Louisbourg. For that purpose Admiral Boscawen arrived with a powerful fleet at Halifax in May, 1758. Major-General Amherst had command of the land forces,

and the whole armament, consisting of one hundred and forty sail, took their departure from the harbor of Halifax on the 28th of May. In the attack which followed Brigadier-General Wolfe greatly distinguished himself. Despairing of successful resistance the Governor of Louisbourg sent a letter to the English admiral, desiring a capitulation on favorable terms, to which the latter replied that the garrison must surrender themselves prisoners of war. The Chevalier Drucour, offended at the hard terms proposed, replied that rather than submit to them, he would sustain a general assault. The inhabitants having earnestly petitioned for compliance, the Governor reluctantly gave way, and on the 26th of July, the English were once more in possession of the great stronghold. The joyful intelligence was speedily conveyed to England, where it was received with every mark of satisfaction. Addresses of congratulation to the King poured in from all quarters. Captain Amherst, brother to the commander, who had conveyed particulars of the siege to England, had with him eleven pair of colors taken at the fortress, which by command of the King, were carried in triumph from the Palace of Kensington to St Paul's Cathedral.

General Wolfe had displayed talents in the conduct of the siege of Louisbourg which attracted the attention of Europe, and he was therefore selected as the most competent General to head an attack on Quebec, in which he

was successful. Early in the engagement he was wounded in the wrist, and while leading his men with the utmost ardor, and confident of victory, he was struck by a ball in the breast, and carried to the rear. "They flee," remarked some one. "Who?" said the general. "The French," was the reply. "What? already; then I die content," responded the hero, and expired in the thirty second year of his age. The battle on the plains of Abraham decided the fate of Quebec, and led to the cession of Canada to Great Britain.

In the year 1760 orders were issued by the British government for the demolition of the great fortress of Louisbourg, which was skilfully and speedily effected by competent engineers.

We must now turn for a little to the domestic affairs of the Province. In no department of duty did Lawrence display more ability and judgment than in the arrangements made for the settlement of the Province. It was the desire of the Home Government that the land should be occupied by disbanded soldiers. Against this policy the Governor earnestly remonstrated, declaring that soldiers were the least qualified, from their profession, of any men living, to establish a new colony. The Government appreciated the force of the objections offered, and the Governor was permitted to adopt measures to bring a more suitable class of settlers into the Province. A Proclamation having been issued inviting settlers, inquiries

were made of the Provincial Agent at Boston, as to the terms on which land was to be obtained. It was proposed that townships should consist of one hundred thousand acres, or twelve square miles. One hundred acres were to be allowed to each settler, and fifty acres to any member of his family. The settler came under an obligation to cultivate the land in thirty years. Agents from persons in Connecticut and Rhode Island, who intended to remove to the Province, came to Halifax in the year 1759. Having examined the land, the gentlemen from Connecticut proposed to have a township at Minas, and others agreed to obtain settlers for townships at Chegnecto and Cobequid. The agents were instructed to inform intending settlers, that as soon as a township consisted of fifty families, it should have the right to send two representatives to the General Assembly. Soon after this, immigration into the Province set in on a considerable scale—six vessels having arrived from Boston with two hundred settlers, and four schooners from Rhode Island with a hundred. New London and Plymouth furnished two hundred and eighty, and Ireland, under the management of Alexander McNutt, three hundred.

CHAPTER VIII.—Who first enacted the provincial laws? What opinion did the British Attorney-General and Solicitor-General give on the subject? Who ordered an Assembly to be called? Who was opposed to it? When did the first Assembly meet? When did war with France break out? Who particularly distinguished himself in the attack on Louisbourg? Where was that stronghold situated? When was the great fortress demolished? In what department of public duty did Governor Lawrence excel?

CHAPTER IX.

WAR WITH AMERICA.—THE DUKE OF KENT.

THE year 1765 will continue noted as that in which the stamp-tax was imposed on the American colonies. The sum expected from it was only about two hundred thousand pounds, but there was a principle involved which rendered the impost extremely objectionable to the colonists, namely, that taxation without representation was constitutional—a principle which they repudiated. Intelligence of the passing of the act was received in America with intense indignation. In Boston and other places riots took place. In Nova Scotia no opposition to the tax seems to have been offered. The hostility to British connection continued to intensify among the colonists till in April, 1775, blood was shed, and war immediately ensued. The result of the war is well known—the independence of the revolted colonies was acknowledged by Great Britain. On the declaration of peace, Nova Scotia received a large accession to the population. Thousands of loyalists emigrated from the States to the Province. Governor Parr, in writing to Lord North in September, 1783, intimates that about 13,000 refugees had arrived at Halifax, Annapolis and other places.

In the month of May, 1794, the people of Nova Scotia were gratified by the arrival of Prince Edward—afterwards Duke of Kent—at Halifax. The residence of the Prince, as is well known, was on the west side of Bedford Basin, about six miles from Halifax, and was designated "The Lodge." Sam Slick has given a most graphic account of the place as it appeared in his day. Since the description of the clock-maker was written, the scene has undergone a great change. Every wooden vestige of the house and its appurtenances has disappeared, and nothing now remains but the bare foundation. On a small natural mound, so sharp in outline as to appear artificial, overhanging the margin of the basin, and about a hundred yards from the site of the house, stands what is called the round-house, a small elegant circular erection, with a dome which was used by the military bands as they discoursed music to the gay circle at the lodge, and which is almost quite as entire as it stood upwards of eighty years ago. The lodge property was sold some years ago to four or five gentlemen, who subsequently disposed of it in small building lots.

In August, 1798, His Royal Highness in returning from a field-day of the garrison, fell with his horse in one of the streets of the town, and sustained considerable injury. He accordingly returned to England, and took his seat in the House of Lords as Duke of Kent. In January, 1820, the Duke, a few months after the birth of his daughter—

the Princess Victoria—now our most gracious Queen—in taking a long walk with Captain Conroy, got his feet thoroughly wet, and failing to change his boots and stockings, was seized with inflammation of the lungs, and died on the 23d of the month.

We may conclude this chapter by referring to the loss of His Majesty's ship *La Tribune*, which took place in November, 1797, a little to the south of Herring Cove, near Halifax.

La Tribune was one of the finest frigates in His Majesty's service, carrying 44 guns. She was commanded by Captain S. Barker. In attempting to enter Halifax Harbor she got aground near the Thruin Cap shoals. Signals of distress were made and answered by the military posts, and the ships in the harbor. Boats from His Majesty's ships and the dock-yard proceeded to the relief of the ship. Some of these reached her, but others had to return on account of the weather. The ship was immediately lightened by throwing all her guns overboard, so that at nine o'clock she got off the shoals. The gale now intensified, the wind blowing from the southeast. Her anchors were dropped, but failed in bringing her to, and she was fast driven towards the western shore. It was now ten o'clock, and little hope was entertained of saving the ship or the lives of those on board of her. About half past ten the ship lurched suddenly and went down. Two hundred and forty men, and some women and chil-

dren were now struggling in the water. Although the wreck was so near to the shore that the cries of the unhappy sufferers could be distinctly heard, only eight persons survived to see the light of day. The first effort made for their relief was by a boy thirteen years of age, who ventured off in a skiff by himself about eleven o'clock next day. After great labor the little hero succeeded in backing his boat so near that two men were thus saved. His example shamed others with larger boats, who put off, and thus the eight persons were rescued.

A Quarter-Master belonging to the ship, named McGregor, had his wife on board; they were a respectable couple and greatly attached to each other. McGregor, from his affectionate solicitude for her safety, endeavored to persuade her while the ship lay on the shoals to go ashore in one of the boats which came off from the Island, as his mind would be more at ease. To his solicitations she replied that she never would abandon him, and that if it was his lot to perish she wished not to survive him. She shared the common fate. A considerable time after the ship had foundered, a man was discovered swimming towards the wreck. On his approaching it was found to be McGregor. He informed his comrades who were hanging to the wreck, that he had swam towards the shore—that he had ventured as far as he could with safety into the surf, and found that if he went further he should be dashed in pieces, and he cautioned them all to avoid

making a similar attempt, but if possible to hold by the wreck. He himself gained the main shrouds, and remained there till the mast gave way, and there met the same fate as his unfortunate consort, whose death he was continually deploring while in the shrouds.*

Prince Edward with that generosity which had distinguished him during his residence in the Province, directed that provision should be made for the bereaved families.

* See Appendix B.

CHAPTER IX.—What caused war with America? When was blood first shed? What was the result of the war? When did Prince Edward arrive at Halifax. By what name was he afterwards known? Where was his residence? What sort of accident did he meet with? Where was the frigate *La Tribune* wrecked? How old was the boy who distinguished himself in saving life?

CHAPTER X.

THE MAROONS, AND THE CHESAPEAKE AND SHANNON.

IN the year 1796, about five hundred Maroons arrived in Halifax. They had been slaves in the island of Jamaica, and, on the Spanish inhabitants removing to Cuba, they had fled to the woods and lived on plunder, being called Maroons, or hog hunters. The different bands united under a leader called Cudjoe, a man of great courage and sagacity. The island of Jamaica belonging now to Britain, determined efforts were made to conquer the Maroons. The glens or recesses to which the Maroons had retired were called cockpits. The passages into these glens were extremely narrow. Ledges of rock, in which were numerous crevices, lined the depths which afforded protection to the Maroons, and completely screened them from the observation and fire of an attacking force. These glens or cockpits extended in a line, which enabled the negroes, when driven from one, to betake themselves to another, possibly more difficult of access. Colonel Guthrie of the Militia and Captain Sadler of the Regulars were deputed to open a communication with Cudjoe, which was effected. Cudjoe was found to be a man of low stature, uncommonly stout,

with strong African features, and a peculiar wildness in his manner. He had a hump on his back, which was partly covered with the tattered remains of a blue coat, of which the skirts and the sleeves below the elbow were wanting. He wore a pair of loose drawers that did not reach his knees, and a small round hat without a rim. On his right side hung a cow's horn with powder, and a bag of cut slugs. He wore no shirt, and his clothes, as well as that part of his skin that was exposed, were covered with the red dirt of the cockpits. His men were as dirty as himself—all having guns and cutlasses.

A treaty was entered into, and for fifty years the Maroons continued to live peaceably, but in the year 1795 they broke out into open rebellion. In order to reach them in their fastnesses, bloodhounds were used. The dogs were so broken in by their trainers that they did not kill the object of their pursuit till resisted. On coming up to him they barked furiously till he halted, and then crouched near him, barking till their keepers came up and secured their prisoner. It is difficult to say how long the Maroons might have been able to continue in open rebellion were it not for these dogs, which they dreaded to such a degree that they surrendered.

The Maroons, having remained in Halifax for some years, were removed by the British Government to Sierra Leone, where they proved useful as soldiers; but they subsequently returned to Jamaica.

In the year 1812 war was declared by the United States against Great Britain. The news soon reached Halifax, and the Assembly adopted measures for general defence. Letters of marque and commissions to privateers were granted by the Governor. Numerous captures were made at sea by the British and American privateers, not a few of the prizes of the former having been brought to Halifax, where trade was temporarily increased by the war. In the contests that took place between individual ships, the Americans, as a rule, had the advantage, as their vessels generally carried heavier metal, and were more numerously manned. Captain Broke had been appointed to the frigate *Shannon*, of 38 guns, which sailed from Halifax in March, 1813, on a cruise to Boston Bay. Understanding that the *Chesapeake*, an American frigate similar in size and power to the *Shannon*, was ready to put to sea, he sent a challenge to her commander, Captain Lawrence, which was accepted, and the *Chesapeake* was soon under sail to meet her antagonist. The stately frigate was accompanied by a number of pleasure boats, filled by Americans who were desirous of seeing the combat. The two ships continued their course to sea till forty minutes past five o'clock, when the *Chesapeake* bore down on the *Shannon*, luffing up within fifty yards of her, when the American crew gave three cheers. At fifty minutes past five the first shot was fired by the *Shannon*, and then the exchange of broadsides became as

rapid as the men could fire. Owing to the men at the helm of the *Chesapeake* having been killed, she had for a moment become unmanageable, and her stern and quarter were exposed to her opponent's broadside. The stern ports were thus bent in, and the men driven from their quarters. Presently the ships neared each other, the quarter of the *Chesapeake* pressing on the *Shannon's* side. Captain Broke, observing that the Americans were deserting their quarter-deck guns, ordered the great guns to cease firing, and the main-deck boarders to advance. He himself then leaped on the quarter-deck, the boarders following. There was not an officer or a man for the moment to oppose him. His boarders then advanced towards the fore-castle, driving twenty or thirty of the crew before them, who endeavored to get down the hatchway, but in their eagerness prevented each other. Several went overboard, and others reached the main deck through the bridle-ports, while the rest laid down their arms and surrendered.

Captain Lawrence fell mortally wounded a few minutes after the battle began. Of a crew of 381 men and boys, the *Chesapeake* lost 47 killed and 99 wounded. Of a crew of 306 men and 25 boys, the *Shannon* lost 24 killed and 59 wounded. The *Chesapeake* had not only the misfortune to lose her commander, but also her first, second, and third lieutenants. This calamity left the ship, at a most critical moment, without proper command.

The call of Captain Broke for boarders was responded to with the utmost celerity and precision, and four minutes after he had gained the quarter-deck of the *Chesapeake* he was master of her, the action having lasted for only fifteen minutes. After the damage done to the rigging of both frigates had been repaired, they sailed for Halifax, where they arrived on Sunday the sixth of June, passing along the wharves at half-past three o'clock in the afternoon. Citizens are now living who remember the occasion. The ships were received with much cheering from the inhabitants, and the crews of the men of war lying in the harbor. Captain Lawrence died on the passage, and was buried in the ground opposite Government House, with military honors. In August following, the remains of Captain Lawrence were removed to Boston, and there deposited with suitable ceremony.

Captain Broke was made a baronet, and lived to enjoy his well-earned reputation till the year 1841, when he died in a hotel in London, whither he had gone for medical advice.

The year 1815 was memorable as that in which the great war with France was concluded by the defeat of Napoleon at Waterloo, and the most unnatural contest between Great Britain and the United States was terminated by a treaty of peace executed at Ghent on the twenty-fourth of December, 1815. The news of the defeat of Napoleon arrived in Halifax in July—full details

being received on the third of August. The event was celebrated by a public dinner in the Mason Hall. A subscription list in aid of the families of those who had fallen in battle was opened, which amounted to the sum of three thousand eight hundred pounds, besides what was contributed by the other counties. The Assembly testified their appreciation of the labors of Sir John C. Sherbrooke, the Lieutenant-Governor, during the war, by voting one thousand pounds for a piece of plate, with which His Excellency was presented. In the year 1816, Sir John was appointed Governor-in-Chief of all the British American Provinces, and was entertained at a dinner by the magistrates and principal inhabitants in Mason Hall before he departed. He remained in his new position for two years, and then went to England, where he died on the fourteenth of February, 1830.

CHAPTER X.—In what year did the Maroons arrive in Halifax? Who were they, and whence did they come? What was the name of their chief? How were they at last conquered? What great naval combat took place in 1812? Which was the victor? Who commanded the ships respectively? How was the captain of the victorious ship rewarded? For what is the year 1815 celebrated? When did the news of the defeat of Napoleon reach Halifax?

CHAPTER XI.

AGRICOLA.—WINDSOR AND DALHOUSIE COLLEGES.

THE Earl of Dalhousie was Governor of Nova Scotia in 1818, and in that year Mr. John Young came promptly before the public under the signature of "Agricola." He was born at Falkirk, Stirlingshire, in September, 1773. Displaying as a lad great aptitude for learning, his father sent him to Glasgow College, where he distinguished himself, not only as a classical scholar, but as an adept in most of the sciences, particularly in chemistry. He was destined for the church, his parents, with characteristic ambition, desiring to see their only child "wagging his paw in a pulpit." His own inclination, however, led him to prefer the medical profession; but his father having refused to sanction the change, he turned his attention to mercantile affairs in the city of Glasgow. During his residence there the working classes became greatly disturbed by the passage of some laws in parliament affecting their industries. Mr. Young, who had devoted particular attention to political science, and was then one of the magistrates of the city, wrote and published a pamphlet upon the rights of industry, the wide circulation of which had a marked tendency to tranquilize the public mind.

At the age of twenty-five he married a daughter of George Rennie, Esq., a woman of remarkable talent, by whom he had nine children, all born in Scotland, two of whom only survived, the eldest and the youngest—Sir William, the Chief Justice of Nova Scotia, and the Hon. Charles Young, a Judge of Prince Edward Island. Mr. Young's widow died in Halifax in July, 1863, having attained the ripe age of eighty-four.

In 1814 Mr. Young came out to Nova Scotia, and did a prosperous business as a merchant for four or five years. While travelling through various parts of the Province he observed the dismal state of the Provincial husbandry, the low condition of the farmers generally, and the absence of all system in agricultural operations. He then conceived the idea of arousing the attention of the community and Government to the possibility of effecting a change for the better, and of raising the farmer to a position alike honorable and useful. He then wrote and published in the *Acadian Recorder* newspaper a series of letters on various departments of rural economy. Most of these letters were afterwards collected, and inserted in a book containing the transactions of the Central Board of Agriculture, and of the various branches. These were written with classic taste, and distinguished by eloquence that had a tendency to attract universal attention, and to arouse popular enthusiasm. Their publication accomplished more than their author had ever imagined in his fondest dreams, and were

the means of effecting a complete and radical change in the agriculture of the country, the benefits of which Nova Scotia still feels, and will continue to feel for years to come.

In order to carry out and prove his theories by practical farming, Mr. Young, in the year 1819, purchased an estate about two miles from the centre of Halifax, which he named Willow Park, and where he resided until he died in October, 1837. He imported stock of various kinds, and farming implements of the then latest improvements from the old country, and carried on farming on a considerable scale. The farm was visited daily by gentlemen from the country to learn its practical working, and the hospitality of Willow Park for many years was extensive.

Mr. Young entered the Legislature in the year 1825, and occupied at once a commanding position. He continued a member of Assembly until his death, and made many eloquent speeches, being a ready and logical debater.

In private life his manners were most genial and his conversational powers remarkable. With a mind well-stored by extensive reading and meditation he was ever ready to impart useful instruction to his associates, and by his family and his intimate friends he was much beloved.*

In the year 1787, the legislature took up the matter of

*This sketch of "Agricola" has been kindly furnished by the Honorable Judge Young, of Charlottetown.

a collegiate school, and passed a series of resolutions based on a report of a Committee of the House, by which it was determined to establish a seminary at Windsor. The academy was opened in 1788, and in the following year a proposition for the erection of a college was submitted to the Assembly, who voted money for the purchase of a site, which was supplemented by a vote of £3,000 by the British House of Commons.

The Earl of Dalhousie also founded the college called after him, mainly from a fund obtained by the capture of Castine, in the State of Maine, during the American War, and by sums voted by the House of Assembly.

Mr. Walter Bromley established a school in Halifax in 1813, on Lancaster's system, in which reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar and geography were efficiently taught. He was also the first to begin Sabbath schools in the province. Mr. Bromley was an able and energetic teacher.

To the Society for Propagating the Gospel in Foreign parts—connected with the Church of England—belongs the honor of making the first effort to educate the people. Shortly after the settlement of Halifax, schools were established in various sections of the Province, under the auspices of the Society. As early as 1768 the Governor and Council submitted a plan for a collegiate school to the Board of Trade and Plantations with a view of procuring aid, and, who, while declining to take the initiative in the

establishment of the proposed institution, promised liberal aid when it should be set on foot. In the following year a committee was formed in Halifax for the purpose of corresponding with the Society for Propagating the Gospel, consisting of the Governor, the Chief Justice, and the Secretary of the Province, who proposed that the allowance made to the Society's schoolmasters should be withdrawn, and devoted to the support of a public Seminary, believing that the funds could be so enlarged by liberal contributions from the principal inhabitants of the Province, as to become an ample support for a gentleman of learning and respectability to engage in the work. The town of Windsor was considered the most suitable place for the Seminary, where it was supposed the pupils would be exposed to fewer temptations than in Halifax. The Society, for various reasons, declined to alter their plans, and the project was therefore held in abeyance.

In the year 1787 the scheme for a Collegiate School was reviewed, when the Legislature took up the matter and passed a series of resolutions based on a report of a Committee of the House, by which it was determined to establish a Seminary at Windsor, for instructing the rising generation in the principles of sound literature, and the Christian religion, and giving it a liberal education. Provision was accordingly made to the amount of two hundred pounds a year, for an exemplary clergyman of the

Established Church, well skilled in chemical learning, divinity, moral philosophy, and the *belles lettres*, as Principal, and a sum of one hundred pounds a year was voted for a Professor of Mathematics. This academy was accordingly opened on the first of November, 1788. In the following year a proposition for the erection of a College was submitted to the Assembly, who voted four hundred pounds sterling a year in perpetuity, besides five hundred pounds for the purchase of a site for the College. To these were added three thousand pounds voted by the British House of Commons at different times. Mr. Granville intimated His Majesty's intention of granting a Royal Charter to the College. John Inglis, son of Dr. Charles Inglis, the first Bishop appointed to Nova Scotia, when a young man went to England in the year 1800, and was entrusted with the advocacy of the interests of the College, and discharged the duty zealously and ably. A charter was accordingly obtained in May, 1802, with an additional grant of one thousand pounds, which was continued annually till the year 1834.

In 1820, died, at his Episcopal residence in Halifax, an eminent ecclesiastic of the Roman Catholic Church, the Right Rev. Edmund Burke. The writings of Dr. Burke, which are now nearly out of print, were published in three large volumes, and bear ample evidence of his thorough knowledge of the Hebrew, Greek, and Latin languages. That he was a prelate of vast erudition, a powerful

reasoner, and able exponent of his own church, will be admitted by all who have examined his works.

The year 1825 will be ever memorable in the history of the Lower Provinces as that in which a destructive fire occurred at Miramichi. For the information of the more youthful readers of this book it may be necessary to state that Miramichi includes a port, bay and river on the north-east coast of Northumberland. The river is second in importance in the Province, rises in Carleton County, and communicates by easy portage with the Saint John. About fifty miles from the ocean the two head streams unite in forming its main body, which is navigable for fifty miles.

The summer had been so very hot, and so little rain had fallen, that serious apprehensions were entertained for the crops. At the beginning of October, when the weather is generally cool and bracing, a most unnatural heat was felt. Distant flashes were seen in the woods, and the heat became more oppressive and enervating. On the sixth the atmosphere was charged with hot vapor, and a pale mist was seen to settle over the forest. The mist gave place gradually to a dark cloud like that which portends a thunder storm. About four o'clock in the afternoon an immense pillar of smoke was seen to rise north-west of Newcastle. As it became dark the sky was illumined by the yet distant blaze. About nine o'clock a roar was heard from the woods, followed with loud

thunder. The lightning flashed, and the wind blew with the utmost fury, lashing the river into foam. These were but the harbingers of approaching destruction. There was a moment of awful silence; then rose a hissing noise from the forest, accompanied with a living stream of fire, which, in a few moments, enveloped the settlements, reducing houses, stores and barns to ashes. Many lives were lost, and much property destroyed.

The news reached Halifax on the afternoon of Saturday, the fifteenth of October, and on the following day—Sunday—a public meeting was held, and £1200 subscribed for the relief of the sufferers. The noble example of Halifax was followed in other parts of the Province, and Nova Scotia contributed altogether £4500 to mitigate the sufferings of the unfortunate people of Miramichi.

CHAPTER XI.—Who first gave an impetus to agricultural improvement in Nova Scotia? Of what country was he a native? When and where did he die? When was a collegiate school established in Windsor? Who founded Dalhousie College? Who was the most prominent teacher in Halifax in 1818? What eminent prelate of the Roman Catholic Church died in 1820? When did the great fire at Miramichi take place?

CHAPTER XII.

THE BRANDY DISPUTE.—MR. HOWE AND THE
MAGISTRACY.

TOWARDS the close of the Session of 1830, the House and the Council came into violent collision. In the year 1826, the revenue laws had undergone careful revision. At that time a duty of one shilling and fourpence was imposed on brandy, but in consequence of a misconstruction of the law, the duty collected from 1826 to 1830 was only one shilling. The Committee appointed to examine the accounts discovered that the intentions of the legislature had been defeated by the construction put upon the act, and the House resolved to make the duty what was intended by the act of 1826. There was no intention on the part of the Assembly to alter the general scale of duties in 1830, and when the bill imposing an additional duty on brandy was sent to the Council, they objected to the alteration, refused to pass the bill, and requested a conference. A Committee of the House accordingly met with a Committee of the Council, and during the conference the gentlemen representing the House were told that the Council thought the duties imposed on a variety of articles too high, and proposed certain specified reductions. The Assembly were justly offended at this unprecedented

interference with their constitutional functions, and positively refused to make any alterations to please the Council. The Council did not in consequence pass the appropriation bill, and thus a revenue of £25,000 was lost to the Province. The Session was then closed, but when the House next met the Council wisely adopted the measure, and the dispute came to an end.

In the year 1830, the Rev. Dr. McGregor died at Pictou. He was a native of Perthshire, having been born in the parish of Comrie, in the year 1759. He was a man of masculine intellect, and of respectable scholarly attainments, and an earnest preacher. His grandson, the Rev. Mr. Patterson, of Greenhill, has written his life, to which we refer the reader for full and interesting information regarding the Doctor's labors.

During the Session of 1834, Mr. Alexander Stewart made a vigorous attack on the constitution of His Majesty's Council, moving three resolutions which had for their object to open the doors of the Council to the public during its deliberations, to reform that body by an increase of its members by additions chosen from the country, and to divest it of executive powers. Though the discussion did not lead to an immediate practical result, yet it prepared the public mind for important changes in the constitution of the Council, which were subsequently effected.

On the first of January, 1835, appeared in the *Nova*

Scotian, of which Mr. Joseph Howe was proprietor and editor, a letter signed "The People," in which the magistrates and police of Halifax were accused of having, during the lapse of thirty years, taken from the pockets of the people, by means of various exactions and fines, the sum of £30,000. On account of this charge, an action was brought against Mr. Howe, when he undertook his own defence.— He delivered a long and able speech on the occasion, and obtained a verdict of *not guilty*, which was received with unbounded popular satisfaction.

An education committee of which Mr. John Young was chairman, and consisting of a member from each county, presented an interesting report to the Assembly during the session of 1836, in which we have a glimpse of the condition of the Province at that period as to educational advantages. In 1832 an Act was passed for the encouragement of common and grammar schools, conducted on the precarious principle of voluntary subscriptions by the inhabitants, within the different school districts—the Province not being yet deemed in a condition to assume the burden of maintaining a system of elementary instruction by an equitable assessment on the population. To the honor of the inhabitants of Middle Musquodoboit they were the first in the Province to appreciate the advantages of a general assessment for the support of schools, for they sent a petition which was referred to the committee, urging the House to impose an

educational tax on means and property. The number of schools in the province in 1835 was five hundred and thirty, and the aggregate number of scholars attending, fifteen thousand. The amount raised for educational purposes in Halifax county was in 1835 one thousand pounds. Colchester gave fifteen hundred. Annapolis, east and west, two thousand pounds; Yarmouth and Argyle twelve hundred pounds; Lunenburg and Cumberland one thousand pounds each. The sum collected by the people of Pictou county is not stated, but it furnished the largest number of scholars of any county except that of Annapolis, being upwards of two thousand; Colchester sent eleven hundred; Kings one thousand; Annapolis two thousand; Yarmouth and Argyle sixteen hundred, and Lunenburg twelve hundred. The entire amount raised by the people in 1835, for educational purposes, by voluntary contributions was twelve thousand five hundred pounds; and the sum paid from the Provincial treasury, for the same object was six thousand eight hundred pounds. These figures present a record highly creditable to the Province, showing that the people were beginning to appreciate the advantages of early educational training, and anxious to prepare the way for the introduction of the comprehensive system which, at a later period was introduced, and which it is hoped will be maintained with ever increasing efficiency. Parents are becoming impressed with the inestimable value of our

public schools, which have already borne good fruit, and it is to be hoped that the time may speedily arrive when such of them as seem insensible to the educational advantages placed within their reach, shall regard it as a sacred duty not only to send their children to school but to assure their punctual attendance.

CHAPTER XII.—What dispute took place in the House of Assembly in 1830? How was the Province affected by it? Who was the Rev. Dr. McGregor? Who attacked the Council? When did Joseph Howe first appear as a public speaker? Explain the circumstances. How many schools were in the Province in 1835? How many scholars were attending school?

CHAPTER XIII.

STEAM COMMUNICATION.—RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT.

THE House of Assembly having been dissolved, in 1836 in virtue of its term having expired, the election took place in November of the same year. Mr. Howe and Mr. William Annand were returned for Halifax county. The following prominent gentlemen connected with the previous House were also returned: Messrs. Herbert Huntington, S. G. W. Archibald, W. Young, Alexander Stewart, John Young, James B. Uniacke, and Mr. Wilkins.

So early as 1830, the establishment of steam communication between Britain and North America was projected by Mr. Cunard, who, in the prosecution of the undertaking had a conference with Mr. George Burns and Mr. David McIver of Glasgow, which led to the establishment of the Cunard Line. A contract for the conveyance of the North American mails was entered into by the Admiralty and these gentlemen. The first steamer of the line was the *Britannia*, which sailed from Liverpool for Halifax and Boston on the fourth of July, 1840.

The year 1840 was one of intense political agitation

in Nova Scotia. The subject of responsible government was keenly discussed, and meetings were held in almost all the principal towns in the Province, at which resolutions expressive of the determinations of the people to secure such government were passed. In October, 1829, Lord John Russell, who was Colonial Secretary, addressed a despatch to Sir John Harvey, the Governor of New Brunswick, which was justly regarded by the leading reformers of Nova Scotia, as a practical concession of the principle of responsible government, but Sir Colin Campbell the Governor, and the Executive Council, ignored the instructions of the Colonial Secretary; but the House of Assembly was determined to effect the necessary reform in a thoroughly constitutional manner. Resolutions were accordingly submitted to the House by Mr. Howe, and an address to Her Majesty adopted praying for the removal of Sir Colin Campbell from the Governorship of the Province.

The representatives of the town and county of Halifax—Joseph Howe, William Annand, Thomas Forrester, and Hugh Bell—invited their constituents to meet them in Mason Hall on the 30th March, 1840, as a meeting had been called by their opponents to condemn the conduct of the Assembly in reference to the Governor and Executive Council, in terms which precluded their attendance, and which they thought intended to prevent fair and full discussion of a great public question. The Hall

was densely crowded. The principal speakers in defence of the Assembly, were Messrs. Howe, William Young, Forrester and Bell, the Government having been defended by J. W. Johnston, the Solicitor-General. There was great confusion and excitement, and both parties claimed the victory.

Sir Colin Campbell was recalled, and the necessary reform effected. Previously a council of twelve persons chosen from the capital, with one exception, formed the second branch of the legislature, the Governor having no power to increase the number. The whole executive power of the government was vested in these men, who were never required to appeal to the people, holding as they did their office for life, as the advisers of the Governor, and the rulers of the Province. Under Lord Falkland, who had succeeded Sir Colin Campbell, of the ten men who composed the Executive Council six were members of the representative branch, and were consequently obliged, once in four years, to solicit the suffrages of the people—a wholesome constitutional check being thus vested in the constituencies.

The political opponents of Sir Colin and his administration cherished no vindictive feelings towards him. In their intercourse with him he had been always pleasant and courteous, but the old soldier belonged to an unbending school, and was utterly unfitted by habit and training for the position which he occupied. He deemed it a point-

of honor to defend the Executive Council, and well nigh sacrificed his honor in his infatuated resistance to the explicit instructions which emanated from the Colonial Office. Mr. Annand informs us that passing out from Lord Falkland's first levee, Mr. Howe bowed to Sir Colin, and was passing on when Sir Colin called to him, and extending his hand exclaimed—"we must not part in that way Mr. Howe—we fought out our differences of opinion honestly; you have acted like a man of honor. There is my hand." It was shaken in all sincerity. This interesting and touching incident, evincing as it did a manly heart, covers a multitude of sins, and effectually prevents severe strictures on a gubernatorial course which otherwise merited unqualified condemnation.

In Halifax the triumph of reform was celebrated by a public dinner to which Messrs. Hugh Bell, Joseph Howe, Wm. Annand, Hon. James McNab, and Thomas Forrester were invited as guests. The chair was occupied by the Hon. Michael Tobin, Mr. William Stairs being Vice President.

CHAPTER XIII.—When and by whom was steam communication first established between Britain and North America? Name the first Steamer of the Cunard Line? What was the year 1840 remarkable for in Nova Scotia? Who was Governor then? What became of him?

CHAPTER XIV.

THE HEROES OF SEBASTOPOL.—COAL MINES.

THERE was a general election in the Province in 1855. The county in which the keenest contest took place was Cumberland, where Dr. Tupper and Mr. A. McFarlane defeated the Hon. Joseph Howe and the Hon. Stephen Fulton. The result was regarded as a great victory by the Conservatives, and the defeat of their most prominent champion was felt keenly by the Reformers.

Early in September, Sebastopol fell, and the news arrived on Thursday on the 27th of that month. The intelligence caused great rejoicings. The Volunteer Artillery and the Union Engine Company turned out and joined in a torchlight procession. Some of the private buildings were illuminated, and there was a large bonfire on the Parade. The enthusiasm in Halifax was quite as intense on the occasion as in any city in England, and as the news reached the country unbounded satisfaction was expressed.

Two Nova Scotians fell in the Crimea—Capt. William B. C. A. Parker, and Major Augustus Frederick Welsford, to whom a monument was erected in the burying ground in Pleasant Street, Halifax, in 1860, at the public

inauguration of which an admirable oration was delivered by the Rev. George W. Hill of St. Paul's Church.

Early in 1856, intelligence of the fall of Kars had reached Halifax, of which General Williams, a native of the town of Annapolis, in Nova Scotia, was the hero. With courage and skill which excited the admiration of Europe, Williams defended Kars, and only surrendered with a few thousand men when pressed by absolute starvation, and successful resistance had become hopeless. It was meet that the services of so distinguished a Nova Scotian should be acknowledged by the House of Assembly. The Attorney-General—Mr. Young, now Sir William—accordingly moved, after an eloquent speech, that the Lieutenant-Governor should be respectfully requested to expend 150 guineas in the purchase of a sword, to be presented to General Williams as a mark of the high esteem in which his character as a man and a soldier, and more especially his heroic courage and constancy in the defence of Kars, were held by the Legislature of his native province. Hon. J. W. Johnston seconded the resolution, which passed unanimously.

The government was unseated by the passing of a vote of want of confidence in 1856, and Mr. Johnston was sent for by the Lieutenant-Governor, and requested to form a new Administration of which Mr. Johnston was Attorney-General; Dr. Tupper, Provincial Secretary; John J. Marshall, Financial Secretary; Staley Brown,

Receiver-General; and Martin I. Wilkins, Solicitor-General.

One of the first questions with respect to which the government was determined, if possible, to arrive at a satisfactory solution, related to the important subject of the coal mines of the Province. George the Fourth had granted to his brother, the Duke of York, a lease of the ungranted mines of Nova Scotia which had been transferred to a firm in London. Successive Provincial Governments had contended that the King had no right to lease the minerals without the consent of the people, through their representatives, and the consequence was a chronic state of agitation on the subject, which continued for years, but which failed to result in any satisfactory arrangement. In 1845 the Crown had entered into certain agreements with the Mining Association, the substance of which was embodied in a Treasury minute, and in conformity with which a contract was framed in 1849. Meanwhile the Civil List Act of 1849 had passed in the Provincial Legislature, by which the legal estate of the Crown was vested in that body. Any lease, therefore, which gave a legal title must emanate from the Assembly of Nova Scotia. Mr., now Sir William, Young, the late Attorney-General, had expressed a very decided opinion to that effect, which was subsequently corroborated by the Crown officers of England. Thus a dead lock was caused in the conduct of the mining business

of the country. The Government therefore resolved, if possible, to settle all existing disputes, and with that view proposed to the Assembly, in the session of 1857, a resolution to the effect that if the Provincial Government should find it necessary, for effecting a satisfactory compromise of this question to employ Commissioners, the House would authorize the selection by the Government of two members, prominently representing the different views held in the House on the subject, who should have power to effect a settlement of the controversy, provided both commissioners should agree thereto, subject, however, to the ratification of the Legislature—and the House would provide for the expense.

In accordance with this resolution Mr. Johnston, the Attorney-General, and Mr. A. G. Archibald, a prominent member of the Opposition, were deputed to proceed to England in the month of June, 1857. Having reported their arrival to the Secretary of State for the Colonies, they were put in communication, by Her Majesty's Government, with the Directors of the General Mining Association, the result being the consummation of an agreement by which the rights of the Association were effectually secured, and thus increased enterprise was stimulated, and the remaining mineral wealth of the Province permanently placed under the guardianship of the representatives of the people.

The debate in the Assembly on the arrangement entered into, and for the completion of which the formal sanction of the House was required, was conducted with much ability. On the vote being taken on the twenty-second of February, 1858, the action of the delegates was backed by thirty votes to nineteen. While a perusal of the speeches delivered in opposition leads to the conviction that not a few sound arguments were urged in favor of delay, yet when a student of the coal question thinks of the many years that had elapsed since the contest between the General Mining Association and the people had begun, that the delegates had combated ably for the interests of the country, with the sanguine expectation of being supported by the Assembly, and that no principle of an address to the Queen, which had passed in 1856 in the Assembly, and on which the agreement between the delegates and the Association was based, had been sacrificed, he will probably feel constrained to admit that the House, in ratifying an agreement which has proved of vast importance to the full development of the mineral resources of the Province, acted most wisely.

CHAPTER XIV.—When did Sebastopol fall? How was the news received? Name prominent Nova Scotians who fell honorably in battle? Who was the hero of Kars? How was he rewarded? Who was the great proprietor of the coal mines? Who were sent to London to recover them for the people?

CHAPTER XV.

THE INDIAN MUTINY. — TELEGRAPHIC COMMUNICATION, ETC.

THE Indian mutiny occurred in the year 1859, during which the courage and endurance of the British forces were put to the severest test. In the defence of Lucknow there was a Nova Scotian who so distinguished himself as to have received the thanks of the British Parliament, his services having been noticed in the most complimentary terms by leading statesmen of all parties. We refer to Major General Sir John Inglis, K. C. B., who was the son of the Right Rev. John Inglis, Lord Bishop of Nova Scotia. Young Inglis entered the army as ensign in a foot regiment in 1833, and served in Canada during the rebellion of 1837. He took part in the Punjab campaign of 1848. At Lucknow, General Inglis defended himself with a feeble band for eighty-seven days against the attacks of 50,000 rebels, till at length he was relieved after a resistance which has been pronounced without precedent in modern warfare. The Assembly of his native Province presented him with a sword—a mark of distinction which was never more gallantly won. The ladies of Halifax were not unmind-

ful of Lady Inglis, for in April, 1858, they presented her through a deputation of Nova Scotians, headed by Sir Samuel Cunard, with a splendid copy of the bible.

On the fifth of August, 1858, telegraphic communication between Europe and the Continent of America was completed. The telegraph fleet sailed from Queenstown, in Ireland, on Saturday, the 17th of July, and arrived at mid-ocean on Wednesday the 28th. Next day two of the ships, whose complement of the cable had been paid out, returned to England—other two leaving for Trinity Bay, Newfoundland, where the cable was landed. The intelligence was received with great joy in Halifax and elsewhere, and duly celebrated. The first message sent was one from the Queen of England to the President of the United States; the second was his reply.

In this year a general election took place, after which the party of which Mr., now Sir William, Young, was the leader, claimed a majority, and accordingly presented a memorial to the Governor, signed by that gentleman and twenty-eight other members elect of the House, praying for an early meeting of the House. To that memorial a reply was received intimating that His Excellency must be guided by his constitutional advisers in determining when the Assembly should meet. The Assembly met in January, 1860. The vote taken on the election of Speaker indicated that the Opposition had a majority of two in the new House, but the Government

contended that five or six of the members were disqualified from sitting there, as they held offices of emolument under the government at the time of their election. The Executive Council in these circumstances advised the Lieutenant Governor to dissolve the House, an advice which His Excellency did not deem it his duty to follow. The Government consequently resigned, and a new Government was formed consisting of William Young, President of the Council; Joseph Howe, Provincial Secretary; Adam G. Archibald, Attorney-General; Jonathan McCully, Solicitor-General; John H. Anderson, Receiver-General; William Annand, Financial Secretary; Benjamin Weir and John Locke being also members of the Executive Council.

In the month of June, 1860, the Lieutenant Governor was officially informed that the Prince of Wales proposed to land in Halifax on the 30th of July following. The intelligence having been published was hailed with demonstrations of the liveliest satisfaction by all classes, and preparations were made to accord to the eldest son of our beloved Queen, and the heir apparent to the British throne, a reception becoming his rank. A liberal sum had been placed at the disposal of the Governor by the Legislature to provide for the reception and entertainment of so august a visitor, and the inhabitants of Halifax resolved that no private expense should be spared to make the reception successful. The Prince left England on the

10th of July, arriving in St. John's, Newfoundland, on the 23rd. He left St. John's on the 26th, and proceeded to Sydney—the ships anchoring near the mines on the morning of the 28th.

True to the appointed time the ships were signalled in Halifax on Monday morning, the 30th July. On entering the harbor the Royal Squadron was saluted by all the forts in succession, and by all the ships of war. At twelve o'clock his Royal Highness left the *Hero* and proceeded to land at the Dock Yard, where he was received by Rear Admiral Sir Alexander Milne, the Earl of Mulgrave, Major General Trollope, the judges of the Supreme Court, the Lord Bishop of Nova Scotia, the members of the Executive Council, and the House of Assembly, the Mayor and Corporation of Halifax, and other dignitaries. To an address from the Mayor and members of the City Council, read by Mr. Sutherland, the Recorder, the Prince replied in suitable terms. There was a brilliant procession—the whole city and the inhabitants of the surrounding country turning out to greet His Royal Highness, and during his progress to Government House he was received with a degree of enthusiasm that could not be surpassed. The most pleasing feature of the day's proceedings, and the one with which the Prince was most delighted, was the scene presented in Barrington Street, where on a raised platform were present four thousand neatly dressed children, fluttering with delight as the procession passed.

When his Royal Highness appeared they arose simultaneously, and sung an anthem. At its close three hearty cheers were given by the children, and myriads of little handkerchiefs fluttered in the air.

CHAPTER XV.—When did the great Indian mutiny take place? Name a Nova Scotian who distinguished himself? When was telegraphic communication established between Europe and America? When did the Prince of Wales visit Nova Scotia?

CHAPTER XVI.

INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION.—EDUCATION BILL.

THE Imperial Commissioners of the International Exhibition, held in London in 1862, having sent to the Colonial Governments an invitation to have their respective Provinces represented, it was resolved by the Government of Nova Scotia to respond to the invitation, and with that view they constituted a Board of Commissioners, consisting of gentlemen acquainted with the resources of the Province. The committee appointed worked with vigour and determination, and with remarkable success. That Nova Scotia commanded a high position at the Exhibition is proved by the fact that she was awarded either medals or "honorable mention" in fourteen classes or sections, being only surpassed in this respect by Victoria and New South Wales—a most wonderful result considering the very limited extent of the Province as compared with the great majority of the other competing colonies, and proving that Nova Scotia stands unsurpassed in variety and extent of resources by any other country of equal extent in the world. Specimens of fruit had been sent of which the Gardener's Chronicle said—

“Certainly nothing like them had been previously seen at any public exhibition in this country.”

A general election took place in 1863, when the Government of which Mr. Howe was the leader, was defeated at the polls. Their resignation was consequently tendered, and Hon. J. W. Johnston entrusted with the construction of a new administration, of which J. W. Johnston was Attorney-General; Dr. Tupper, Provincial Secretary; W. A. Henry, Solicitor-General; James McNab, Receiver-General; Isaac Le Vesconte, Financial Secretary; James McDonald being Commissioner of Railways.

The education bill was introduced by the Provincial Secretary on the fifteenth of February. The inefficiency of the educational system that previously existed in the Province was proved by the census of 1861—the facts brought to light producing a profound impression on the thinking portion of the community. Of a population of 300,000 over the age of five years, there were 81,000 who could not read, being more than one-fourth of the entire population of the Province. Of 83,000 children between the ages of five and fifteen, there were 36,000 who could not read. The number of children attending school in 1863 was only 31,000, so that there were in the Province in that year 52,000 children growing up without any educational training whatever.

M. Le Vesconte having towards the close of 1864, retired from the office of Financial Secretary, was suc-

ceeded by Mr. James McDonald, member for Pictou county—an appointment which proved an important accession to the administrative capacity and strength of the Government.

The first thing proposed in the Education Bill was the establishment of a Council of Public Instruction. Difficulty was experienced in determining who should be the Council, but after anxious deliberation it was thought that the Executive Council could perform the functions of the position more efficiently than any other body that could be selected. The services of a superintendent were also needed who should discharge the duty of examining and reporting on the educational state of every locality in the Province. It was also proposed to appoint a Board, with the view of surveying and arranging all the school districts, adapting the subdivision of them to the present condition of the country. Examiners were also to be provided for each district, one of whom should be the Inspector—their duty being to ascertain the qualifications of applicants for license to teach.

The Educational Act of 1864 was unquestionably one of the most important measures, bearing on the moral and material interests of the Province that was ever introduced. It struck at the very root of most of the evils which tend to depress the intellectual energies and moral status of the people. It introduced the genial light of knowledge into the dark recesses of ignorance, opened the minds of

thousands of little ones—the fathers and mothers of coming generations—to a perception of the true and the beautiful, and placed Nova Scotia in the front rank of countries renowned for common school educational advantages.

On the 20th of April, 1869, Alex. Forrester, D. D., Superintendent of Education for Nova Scotia, from 1855 to 1864, and Principal of the Provincial Normal College, died at New York, whither he had gone for medical advice. He was a native of Scotland, and was born in the year 1805, receiving his education at the University of Edinburgh. He was licensed in 1831, and ordained in 1835. He was first settled as a pastor in Scotland, where he remained till the disruption of the Free Church from the Establishment in 1843. Soon after the disruption he was called to the charge of the Free Middle Church, Paisley, where he remained four years, until 1848, when he visited Nova Scotia as the deputy of the Free Church. Here he remained, and supplied St. John's Church, Halifax, for three months, during which time he organized classes which became the nucleus of the Free Church College. From the time of Dr. Forrester's arrival in the Province till his death, he labored most assiduously in elevating the educational status of the Province, and in diffusing the religion of Christ. "The Teacher's Text Book" remains as a durable monument to his masculine intellect, and devotion to the cause of popular education.

On the introduction of the Educational Act, Mr. T. H. Rand became superintendent, holding that office till 1870 when he was succeeded by the present superintendent, the Rev. Mr. Hunt. These gentlemen have done much to render the working of the measure practically efficient, under the able direction of the Council of Public Instruction.

CHAPTER XVI.—What figure did Nova Scotia make at the International Exhibition of 1862? When and by whom was the Education bill introduced? How many children could not read? Who are the Council of Public Instruction? Who was Dr. Forrester?

CHAPTER XVII.

UNION OF THE PROVINCES.

It is, perhaps, impossible to determine the exact period when the subject of a union of the Provinces of British North America was first publicly mooted. Francis Nicholson, who was appointed Governor of New England in 1688, was an advocate for the Union of the British North American Provinces for purposes of defence. Chief Justice Sewell of Quebec, addressed a letter in 1814 to the Duke of Kent, in which he proposed a Federal Union of British North America. The subject, however, did not become a public question until the publication of Lord Durham's Report which was submitted to the House of Commons in 1839. When he arrived in Canada he was in favor of a Federal Union—that is, a union in which the separate Legislature of each province would be preserved in the form in which it then existed, and retain all its attributes of internal legislation, in contradistinction to a legislative union, which would imply a complete incorporation of the Provinces included in it under one Legislature, exercising universal and sole legislative authority over all of them, in exactly the same manner as the

British Parliament legislates for the whole of the British Isles. Lord Durham based his advocacy of a legislative union, which, after due deliberation, he preferred, on the following considerations—that it would enable the Provinces to co-operate for all common purposes, that it would tend to form a great and powerful people, possessing the means of securing pure and responsible government for themselves, and which under the protection of the British Empire, might in some measure counterbalance the preponderant and increasing influence of the United States on the American Continent. He did not anticipate that a Colonial Legislature thus strong and self-governing would desire to abandon the connection with Great Britain. On the contrary he believed that the practical relief from undue interference which would be the result of such a change, would strengthen the present bond of feeling and interest, and that the connection would only become more durable and advantageous, by having more of equality, of freedom, and of local independence. He also believed that the increased power and weight that would be given to the Colonies, so far from endangering their connection with the Empire, would be the means of fostering such a national feeling as would effectually counterbalance whatever tendencies might exist towards separation. On the ground of the common foreign relations of the Provinces, as well as their existing internal relations, he advocated a legislative union.

Though the subject of a union of the American Provinces was discussed by the British American League, in Toronto, in 1849, yet the first legislative discussion on the subject took place in the Assembly of Nova Scotia in the year 1854, when Mr. Johnston moved that the union of the British Provinces on just principles, while calculated to perpetuate their connection with the Parent State, would promote their advancement and prosperity, increase their strength and influence, and elevate their position. Mr. Howe on this occasion spoke at great length on the subject of the resolution, advocating Colonial representation in the Imperial House of Commons in preference to any other remedy for existing evils.

In 1857 the Government of Nova Scotia charged two delegates, Mr. Johnston and Mr. A. G. Archibald, to confer with Mr. Labouchere, the Secretary of State for the Colonies, on the subject of union, when they were informed that the decision of the question must rest mainly with the Colonies themselves immediately interested, the delegates being given at the same time to understand that in the event of harmonious action, no obstacle to the consummation of a union would be thrown in the way by the Imperial Government.

In 1858, Mr. Galt became a member of the Canadian Administration, and urged that the question should be taken up in earnest. It was consequently intimated in the speech which closed the session, that during the

recess, the Home Government would be approached on the subject. Messrs. Cartier, Galt and Rose, were accordingly deputed to confer with the Imperial Government, and requested authority for a meeting of delegates from each of the Colonies to deliberate on the subject. Sir Edward Bulwer Lytton, who was then Secretary, replied that whilst the government would be glad to authorize such a conference, it was necessary that a desire to that effect should be expressed by all the Colonies. Delegates were accordingly appointed by each of the Maritime Provinces, and a Conference appointed to be held in Charlottetown, where the whole of the delegates met on the first of September. The Lieutenant-Governors of the Maritime Provinces having received a dispatch from the Governor-General asking whether the Conference at Charlottetown would be willing to receive a deputation from the Canadian Government, in order to give it an opportunity of expressing its sentiments regarding the proposed union, the respective Governments addressed agreed to the proposal. A deputation accordingly proceeded to Charlottetown, and having been introduced to the Convention, addressed it at great length on the advantages that would, in their opinion, result from a more comprehensive union than that which the delegates of the Maritime Provinces were assembled to consider. Having heard the deputation, it was determined to meet again at Quebec, and with the view of giving effect to that resolu-



tion, the Governor-General of Canada invited representatives from the Governments of the various Provinces to meet there in October.

CHAPTER XVII.—Who was among the first advocates of a union of the Provinces? When did the first Legislative discussion of the subject take place? Where was the first conference of Delegates held? Which Provinces were represented at the conference.

CHAPTER XVIII.

UNION OF THE PROVINCES—CONTINUED.

THE convention met at Quebec on the 10th of October, 1864, in the Parliament House of Old Canada. On the second day, John A. Macdonald—now Sir John—submitted a series of resolutions in which the basis of the constitution of the proposed confederation was enunciated. The representation of the Provinces in the House of Commons was to rest on population, as determined by the official census every ten years—the number of members consisting at first of 194, distributed as follows:—Upper Canada 82, Lower Canada 65, Nova Scotia 19, New Brunswick 15, Newfoundland 8, and Prince Edward Island 5.

The Convention closed its sittings at Quebec on the 28th of October. On the return of the delegates to Halifax, a public meeting was called by the Mayor, in accordance with a requisition from a number of citizens, in order to give the delegates an opportunity of presenting an exposition of the proceedings of the Convention at Quebec, when speeches were made by Dr. Tupper, Jonathan McCully, and A. G. Archibald, which were fully reported in the newspapers.

A large and influential meeting was also held in opposition to the scheme propounded at Quebec, at which the question was discussed with much ability by Wm. J. Stairs, Alfred G. Jones, William Annand, W. Miller and P. Power. Some of the financial arguments of these gentlemen were unanswerable, and led in no small degree to subsequent improvements in the scheme.

The Governor-General, Lord Monck, lost no time in transmitting the resolutions adopted at Quebec, to the Imperial Government. On the resolutions being considered by the Government, Mr. Cardwell, the Secretary of State for the Colonies, addressed a dispatch on the third of December, 1864, to the Governor-General, in which he stated that Her Majesty's Government had given to the resolutions of the Convention their most deliberate consideration, and accepted them as being the best framework of a measure to be passed by the Imperial Parliament to establish a union of the whole Provinces in one Government.

The Canadian Legislature met in February, 1865, when the report of the Convention was discussed in both branches of the Legislature, and a resolution submitted to them respectively, to the effect that an address should be presented to Her Majesty, praying that she might be pleased to cause a measure to be submitted to the Imperial Parliament, for the purpose of uniting the Colonies of Canada, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Newfoundland,

and Prince Edward Island in one Government, with provisions based on the resolutions passed at Quebec. After a protracted discussion, the resolution was passed by a large majority.

The scheme did not meet with the same degree of favor in New Brunswick, for an election having taken place before the question was discussed in the House, a large majority was returned opposed to union. The opposition of the people of New Brunswick was regarded as a serious obstacle to the scheme, and the prominent promoters of it in Nova Scotia deemed it prudent, in consequence, to delay the Legislative consideration of the question. But the Government of New Brunswick having committed itself to union in the speech with which the legislature was opened in 1866, and the Legislative Council of that Province having passed a resolution approving of confederation, the Government of Nova Scotia submitted a resolution to the House of Assembly to the effect that the Lieutenant-Governor should be authorized to appoint delegates to arrange with the Imperial Government a scheme of union. After a week's discussion the resolution was carried by thirty-one to nineteen votes—a similar one having been passed in the Legislative Council by thirty to five votes.

CHAPTER XVIII.—When and where did the Union Convention meet? How was the proposal for union received by the Canadian Legislature? How by the New Brunswick?

CHAPTER XIX.

OPPOSITION TO CONFEDERATION.—LOSS OF THE CITY
OF BOSTON.—DEATH OF JOSEPH HOWE.

IN order to prevent the consummation of the union to which the Legislature had become thus committed, but to which the great body of the people was opposed, Mr. Howe, Mr. Annand, and Mr. Hugh McDonald were sent as delegates to London, where Mr. Howe wrote a pamphlet entitled "Confederation considered in relation to the interests of the Empire." The pamphlet was extensively circulated, and the sentiments which it embodied were regarded with considerable favor by a portion of the influential press of Britain. Dr. Tupper, who in conjunction with J. W. Ritchie, Jonathan McCully, and A. G. Archibald, had also gone to London, lost no time in preparing an able reply, in which he proved from Mr. Howe's speeches that he had been a strong advocate for confederation—thus successfully depriving Mr. Howe's present opposition to the proposed measure of moral weight.

To the pamphlet of Dr. Tupper, Mr. Annand wrote a very able answer in the form of an elaborate letter to the Earl of Carnarvon, and if he failed in successfully vin-

dicating the consistency of his friend he presented an array of facts and arguments in supporting the right of the people to be consulted at the polls before the Provincial constitution could be changed, which were difficult, if not impossible, satisfactorily to answer.

On the one hand it was contended that almost all the leading politicians of the Province had at one time or another expressed themselves favorable to a union of the Provinces, that Parliament was omnipotent, and that the union between England and Scotland, and Great Britain and Ireland having been effected by Parliament without an appeal to the people, there could be no well grounded objection to the union of the British American Provinces being consummated in the same way. On the other hand, it was urged by Mr. Annand "that while nobody denied the power of the Imperial Parliament to sweep away the constitution of a colony, should the preservation of the national life or the great interests of the empire demand the sacrifice, yet in such a case flagrant abuse, corruption or insubordination, must be shown, or the existence of a high State necessity, in presence of which all ordinary safeguards of existing institutions should give way." He contended that no such abuse or State necessity existed to warrant what he termed "an act of confiscation and coercion of the most arbitrary kind;" and he did not certainly exaggerate the intensity of popular feeling at the time against the proposed union when he expressed to

Lord Carnarvon his conviction that in the election to take place in May next not three counties of the eighteen of which the Province consisted would return members favorable to Confederation.

Delegates from the Government of New Brunswick had joined those from Nova Scotia in Halifax, and accompanied them to London in July. The Canadian delegates having joined them in London, a conference of the three Provinces was organized on the 4th of December at the Westminster Palace Hotel, the Hon. John A. Macdonald being president. The conference continued its sittings till the 24th, when amended resolutions, but substantially the same as those agreed to at Quebec, were adopted, and sent to the Secretary of State for the Colonies.

A bill based on the resolutions was prepared, and submitted to the Imperial Parliament by Her Majesty's Ministers, and was finally passed on the 29th of March, 1867, becoming on the 1st of July, 1867, the Constitution of the Dominion of Canada.

The delegates returned to their respective homes, and the Nova Scotia Assembly met in March, 1867, when, on a reply to the address of the Lieutenant-Governor being moved, a long and spirited discussion took place, in which the leading men of both parties took a part.

In July, 1867, the Government of the Province was assumed by Hiram Blanchard, Attorney-General; Philip Cartret Hill, Provincial Secretary; James McNab,

Treasurer ; Charles Allison, Commissioner of Mines and Public Works ; John McKinnon and Samuel Creelman. The Governmental business of the Province was efficiently discharged by these gentlemen till the result of the election was known.

The month of September, 1867, found the country in the bustle and fermentation of a general election. The scheme of union, consummated without an appeal to the people, was extremely unpopular ; and the leading politicians opposed to it had, by holding meetings in every county, and through the newspapers which advocated their views, made the current of opposition so strong that little doubt existed as to the general result of the election ; but that the anti-confederates should carry, as they actually did, thirty-six of the thirty-eight seats in the Local House, and eighteen of the nineteen in the House of Commons, was not expected by the advocates of union. Dr. Tupper, representing Cumberland County, was the only unionist returned to the House of Commons, and Mr. Blanchard, for Inverness, and Mr. Pineo, for Cumberland, the only ones returned to the Local Assembly.

On the result of the election becoming known, Mr. Blanchard, Mr. Hill, and their colleagues in the administration tendered their resignations, when a new and strong government was formed which consisted of the following gentlemen :—Mr. Annand, Provincial Treasurer ; W. B.

Vail, Provincial Secretary; M. I. Wilkins, Attorney-General; Robert Robertson, Commissioner of Mines; J. C. Troop, R. A. McHeffy, E. P. Flynn, John Ferguson, and James Cochran.

The new House met on the 30th of January, 1868, when Mr. Marshall, the member for Guysboro', was appointed Speaker. The Attorney-General, a few days after the House met, moved a series of resolutions condemnatory of the manner in which Confederation was carried, and proposing an address praying Her Majesty to revoke her proclamation and to cause the British North American Act to be repealed, as far as it regarded the Province of Nova Scotia. These resolutions were seconded by Mr. Troop, who subsequently succeeded Mr. Marshall in the Speakership, and who now holds that honorable position. The debate lasted for twelve days, and the resolutions were carried, Mr. Blanchard and Mr. Pineo dissenting. An address to Her Majesty based on the resolutions was adopted and forwarded to Viscount Monck for transmission to the Queen, and the following gentlemen were appointed as delegates by the Executive Council to visit England in order to explain and support the representations against Confederation:—Joseph Howe, William Annand, Jared C. Troop, and W. H. Smith, the latter gentleman being now Attorney-General. Dr. Tupper proceeded to London in order to vindicate the previous proceedings of the House of Assembly in regard to

Confederation, and, if possible, to frustrate the object of the deputation.

The case of Nova Scotia was brought under the notice of the House of Commons on the 16th of June, by John Bright, with his usual ability, when he moved for a commission to inquire into the causes of discontent in Nova Scotia. On a division there were 87 for the motion, and 183 against it.

The delegates opposed to union on the basis on which it was consummated prepared an able protest, which was published. They complained that at no time while the Confederation Bill was under discussion were there fifty Peers in their seats, and on the only occasion when an appearance of controversy was vainly attempted to be provoked by one or two noble Lords who volunteered some sort of remonstrance, the number gradually thinned, till there were but ten present, when the bill finally passed.

The delegates and Dr. Tupper returned in July, 1868, to Nova Scotia, and in August a Provincial Convention was held, at which the delegates reported their course of procedure in London in order to obtain a repeal of the Confederation Act, so far as Nova Scotia was concerned.

Mr. Howe seems to have given up all hope, shortly after his return from England, of further agitation resulting in any practical benefit to the Province; for he had evidently set his mind on a compromise, by negotiating

with the Dominion Government for more favorable pecuniary terms. This was being done without the knowledge or concurrence of the party of which he was the leader. In his intercourse with the Dominion Parliament he was joined by Mr. A. W. McLelan, the representative of Colchester County in the Dominion Parliament, previously one of the most determined opponents of Confederation. Their deliberations—carried on without the sanction or concurrence of the party with which they had previously acted—resulted in a preliminary arrangement by which the Dominion Government promised to propose to Parliament certain monetary concessions to Nova Scotia, which were subsequently secured by statute.

Mr. Howe accepted office in the Dominion Government, and, in consequence, gave just offence to the party of which he was the acknowledged leader.

The steamship *City of Boston* left Liverpool, on the outward voyage to Halifax, Boston and New York, on the first of January, 1870. She carried a crew of eighty-six hands, all told, and was in charge of Captain Joseph J. Halcrow, who had been nine years a master in the company's service. On the outward passage the steamer lost one blade of her propeller two days before reaching Halifax. She proceeded with the remaining two blades. At New York a spare propeller was fitted to the vessel, and she sailed from New York on the twenty-fifth of January.

She had then on board a general cargo consisting of cotton, oil cake, flour, beef, bacon, lard, hops, tallow, wheat, and copper ore, and weighing altogether eight hundred and ninety tons. She had also on board, for her own consumption, nine hundred and thirty-seven tons of coal, and arrived in Halifax on the twenty-seventh of January. She took there on board the mail, and a quantity of cargo, consisting chiefly of the extra baggage of passengers, and packages shipped by the naval storckeeper, amounting to fifty-seven tons measurement, or about twenty tons weight.

The total cargo in the vessel when she left Halifax, which she did at noon on the twenty-eighth of January, amounted to about nine hundred and ten tons—the total weight that the ship had on board on leaving Halifax being, including machinery, cargo and coal, two thousand and eighty-seven tons. The draft of water, on her arrival at Halifax, as reported in a letter to her owners from the Captain, was twenty-seven feet seven inches forward, and twenty-one feet eight inches aft; so that after allowing one inch for depression for the Halifax cargo, the vessel was six inches higher out of water when she left Halifax, than when she sailed from New York.

The *City of Boston* was never heard of after leaving Halifax, but repeated reports of her arrival had reached the city, exciting expectations which unfortunately were not realized. On Wednesday, the sixteenth of March, Mr. McDonald, of the telegraph office, received a telegram

from New York intimating that a message had been received in the city to the effect that the steamer had arrived at Queenstown at one o'clock A. M. As several unreliable telegrams had been previously sent, that gentleman decided not to make the report public until it was confirmed. At eleven o'clock Mr. Thomas Kenny, whose brother was a passenger on the missing steamer, received a telegram from a friend in Manchester, congratulating him on the safe arrival of the vessel at Queenstown. This was confirmed by another telegram from Plaster Cove, C. B., to Mr. Patrick Power, M. P., whose son and partner were on the steamer. Sir Edward Kenny also received a telegram from Sir John Rose, London, announcing the arrival of the steamer. The news, respecting the truth of which there seemed no doubt, created intense pleasurable excitement throughout the city, but was contradicted in the course of the day, and again the city was shrouded in gloom, intensified by bitter disappointment. With the *City of Boston* were lost some of the best men in Halifax—some of them, young men of sterling character, ability and enterprise. The human freight of the steamer numbered altogether over two hundred souls.

On the 1st of June, 1873, died Joseph Howe, in Government House, which he occupied as the Lieutenant-Governor of his native Province. When he received the appointment his health was shattered, and it appeared too evident to his friends that he could not long occupy the

honorable post to which he had attained. Though his conduct towards the powerful party of which he was leader alienated many friends, yet his career, on the whole, was honorable in a high degree, and many of his services to his country will long be remembered with gratitude by his fellow-countrymen.

CHAPTER XIX.—Who were sent as delegates to London to oppose union? Who wrote pamphlets on the subject? What Provinces were represented at the Conference in London? What was the popular sentiment in Nova Scotia in reference to union? What was Mr. Howe's course of action? When and where did Mr. Howe die? What was his character?

CHAPTER XX.

SKETCH OF THE LIFE OF S. G. W. ARCHIBALD.

AMONG the able men to whom Nova Scotia has given birth, Samuel G. W. Archibald distinguished himself. He was born at Truro on the 5th of February, 1777, and was the fifth child of Samuel Archibald, son of Major David Archibald. Whilst yet a lad, S. G. W. Archibald lost his father on the island of Neves, whither he had gone as supercargo or owner of a freight; and his mother was thus left a widow, in comparatively poor circumstances, to rear a family of six children. Many years afterwards, in addressing his constituents at Truro, at a time when his official position required residence in Halifax, he did not deem it beneath his dignity to refer to this period of his life. "I look forward," he said, "to that time as the greatest pleasure of my life when I can come and live with you again, where my mother nursed me in her adversity." While still young his grandfather, Major David, took him to bring him up, and found him a troublesome youth to train. Little "Sammy" was much given to play and jokes. His jokes not unfrequently evinced remarkable cleverness, but were sometimes of

such a practical nature as to bring him in contact with his grandfather's cane. On one occasion his love of mischief caused a more severe punishment. One morning he espied a litter of pigs by Archibald's mill, near where a Baptist chapel has since been built. To humor a sudden thought, he set the mill in motion, caught one of the pigs and put it over the water wheel, and, in so doing, was taken over himself, by which operation he had two or three limbs broken. He often referred to the circumstance in after life, and spoke of himself as "having gone through the mill." On one occasion an old Scotchman replied, "Ye're nane the waur for that, Sammy—there's bran in ye yet." When he had grown towards manhood, he left his grandfather, and went with some others to Upper Stewiacke to commence a farm on his own account. He soon found that making a farm out of green wood was for him no congenial pursuit, and threw down the hand-spike with the determination to follow some calling more in accordance with his taste. Shortly after we find him a student in Andover; then for a time at Harvard University, where he laid the foundation of a store of useful knowledge, which, with his natural genius, brought him rapidly into notice in another calling.

On returning to Nova Scotia, Mr. Archibald studied law in the office of the late Mr. Robie; and on the 16th of April, 1805, was admitted an attorney and barrister of

the Supreme Court. In 1806 he was returned to the House of Assembly as one of the members for Halifax county, and continued to represent it till 1835, when the county was divided into Halifax, Colchester, and Pictou counties, from which time till his appointment as Master of the Rolls and Judge of the Court of Vice-Admiralty, on the 29th of April, 1844, he was returned as county member for Colchester.

In 1824, Mr. Archibald visited England, where he was well received. The Marquis of Lansdowne was so much taken with his masterly address and brilliant wit, that he offered him a seat in Parliament for the borough of Calne, and was desirous that he should accept it, if only for three months, to let the people of England see how polished an orator Nova Scotia could produce. Mr. Archibald's reply was characteristic, and showed his good sense: "No, your Lordship; I am head of one House of Commons, and never will become the tail of another." While in England he was appointed to the office of Chief Justice of Prince Edward Island, and received the honorary degree of LL.D from the University of Glasgow.

In the year 1841, Mr. Archibald received the appointment of Master of the Rolls for the Province of Nova Scotia. From this time till his death he resided in Halifax. He performed the duties of his last office, associated with the position of Judge of the Court of Vice-Admiralty

for more than four years with much ability, his decisions giving general satisfaction. He died in Halifax on the 28th of January, 1846, in his sixty-ninth year.

CHAPTER XX.—When and where was S. G. W. Archibald born? What was his first occupation? What was his profession afterwards? What were the public offices he held? When and where did he die?

CHAPTER XXI.

SKETCH OF THE LIFE OF THOMAS C. HALIBURTON, M.P.

ONE of the most eminent literary men British North America ever produced was Thomas Chandler Haliburton. He was born at Windsor, N. S., in December, 1796. He was descended from an ancient Scottish family of the same name. In the reign of Queen Anne, a branch of the same family emigrated to Boston, whence the grandfather of Mr. Haliburton removed to Windsor at the time of the revolution. The subject of this notice was the only child of the late Hon. William Otis Haliburton, a justice of the Court of Common Pleas, N. S. Mr. Haliburton commenced his education at the grammar school of his native town, and completed it at the University of King's College, in Nova Scotia. The hero of Lucknow, Sir John Inglis, was one of his fellow-students. Mr. Haliburton was a distinguished student; he excelled in composition, and carried off a number of prizes. After leaving college he devoted himself to the study of the law, and in due time became a barrister. After a visit to England he practised at Annapolis Royal, the former capital of his native Province, and commanded a good

practice. He represented the county of Annapolis in the Legislative Assembly, of which he became a useful and prominent member. The late Mr. Howe spoke of him to the writer as a polished and effective speaker. On some passages of his more elaborate speeches he bestowed great pains, and in the delivery of them Mr. Howe, as a reporter, was so captivated and entertained, that he had to put down his pen and listen to his sparkling oratory.

It was in the year 1829 that Mr. Haliburton first appeared as an author, when his history of Nova Scotia was published by Mr. Howe. For this excellent work he received the thanks of the House of Assembly. Though the volumes do not contain any indications of the genius of the author, yet they are written with ease and elegance, and constitute a most valuable contribution to the history of the Province.

In 1835 Mr. Haliburton began a series of papers which appeared in the *Nova Scotian*, of which Mr. Howe was editor and proprietor. "Sam Slick, the Clockmaker," immediately attracted attention. The character proved as original and amusing as Sam Weller in more modern times. Sam amuses only; Slick both amuses and instructs. Rarely do we find in any character, not excepting the best of Scott's, the same degree of originality and force, combined with humor, sagacity, and sound sense, as we find in the Clockmaker. Industry and perseverance are inculcated in comic story and racy narrative. In the

department of instructive humor Haliburton, perhaps, stands unrivalled in English literature.

In 1859 Mr. Haliburton entered the Imperial Parliament as the Conservative member for the borough of Launceston. At Isleworth, near London, where he resided till his death, which occurred on the 27th of August, 1865, he was popular, making himself useful by lectures in behalf of public institutions, and by the substantial aid rendered to charitable objects. His remains lie in the churchyard of Isleworth.

CHAPTER XXI.—Where was Thomas C. Haliburton born? By what other name is he known? Where was he educated? Mention some of his works. Name the work by which he is best known. Where and when did he die?

CHAPTER XXII.

SKETCH OF THE LIFE OF DR. GESNER.

IN the year 1864, Abraham Gesner, M.D., well known in the British North American Provinces and the neighboring Republic for his scientific attainments, died in Halifax.

Dr. Gesner was the son of Colonel Gesner, a native of Rockland county, N. J., and was born towards the close of last century in Cornwallis. At the close of the American war, Dr. Gesner's father, who had been an enthusiastic loyalist, and who had lost all his property in consequence of his attachment to the British throne, had settled with a twin brother in Nova Scotia. In early life young Gesner visited South America, and the West Indies, and was twice shipwrecked in making voyages to parts of the world where he could gratify his propensity for natural history, and increase his store of general knowledge. He afterwards went to Britain and studied medicine under Sir Astley Cooper, and the celebrated Abernethy. In 1835 he was employed in a Geological Survey of the Province of New Brunswick, which was discontinued in 1842 somewhat abruptly,

in consequence of disputes between the Executive Government and the Legislature. He had collected a museum of natural history, which is now the property of the Mechanics' Institute.

The Doctor accompanied Sir Charles Lyell in his Geological tour through Nova Scotia. He will continue to be celebrated as the first discoverer of Kerosene oil, and the modes of extracting oil from coal and other bituminous substances. He established in New York two exclusive manufactories of oil, and was the means of promoting traffic in that article in many parts of the world.

The Doctor's brain was ever active, and his pen constantly employed in giving the world the benefit of its products. His scientific works are clear and solid, and many of them highly appreciated by men competent to form a correct opinion as to their character. Gesner, though he had not the advantages of early scholastic training, yet by application conquered the difficulties incident to the deficiency, and attained to honor, usefulness and eminence.

CHAPTER XXII.—Where was Dr. Gesner born? For what is he honorably noted? What useful discovery did he make?

CHAPTER XXIII.

SKETCH OF THE LIFE OF JUDGE BLOWERS.

IN 1842 died Judge Sampson Salter Blowers. He was born in Boston in March, 1743. He was the only son of John Blowers, the second son of the Rev. Thomas Blowers, Minister of Beverley. His father John Blowers served as a Lieutenant in the Provincial forces which were raised for the siege of Louisbourg, and being seized with what was called the camp fever, was invalided, and returned to Boston, and died soon after, leaving his son an orphan at a very early age. His maternal grandmother took charge of him and placed him at the grammar school at Boston, under Mr. Lovell, where he continued six years, and then proceeded to Harvard College, Cambridge. In 1763 he graduated, and soon after commenced the study of the law in the office of Thomas Otis, then an eminent barrister, and warmly engaged in the political wrangles which ended in the revolution and independence of the British Colonies. In 1767 Mr. Blowers was admitted an attorney and barrister of the Supreme Court at Boston, and continued in the practice of his profession until the autumn of 1774, when,

to avoid the political contentions which became daily more violent, he sailed with his wife, whom he had recently married, for England, and arrived there at the commencement of the year 1775. In 1778, he sailed for New York, then occupied by British forces. In 1779 he received a commission to be Judge of the Vice Admiralty Court, appointed to be held at Rhode Island, and proceeded to that place, which was then occupied by a detachment of British troops, and as a station for the fleet under Lord Howe. In the spring following the French fleet under the command of Count D'Estaing arrived at the coast of North America, and entered the harbor of Newport, and a large detachment of the American forces crossed from the main to the Island, and commenced the siege of Newport, which they continued for some weeks, until the appearance of the British fleet off the island. The fleet of France having embarked the French troops which had been landed from the ships, the latter sailed in pursuit of the British fleet, and left the American troops, which were commanding the town, to take care of themselves. The siege was therefore raised, and soon after Mr. Blowers returned to New York where he embarked again for England. He remained in England only a few months, and having been appointed Solicitor General for New York, he returned thither, and no civil Government having been established, he employed himself in the Vice Admiralty Court until the evacuation

of that city, part of the time as an advocate, and the latter part a Judge of the Vice Admiralty Court there.

On the evacuation of New York, Mr. Blowers removed with his family to Halifax, and in the year 1785, he was appointed Attorney General of the Province of Nova Scotia, and in the same year he was appointed speaker of the House of Assembly. In 1788 he was appointed a member of His Majesty's Council, and in 1797 Chief Justice of the Province and President of the Council. He retired from public life in 1833. When ex-President Adams was in Nova Scotia in 1840 he paid Judge Blowers a visit. The Judge never set foot in the land of his nativity after he was driven from it. "He never wore an overcoat in his life," said the Hon. Joseph Howe in one of his speeches. He died in the 99th year of his age. His widow survived him three years, and died in Halifax in the 88th year of her age.

CHAPTER XXIII.—When and where was Judge Blowers born? What was his father's profession? When did he arrive in Halifax? • When did he die?

CHAPTER XXIV.

SKETCH OF THE LIFE OF MR. JUSTICE JAMES W.
JOHNSTON.

JAMES W. JOHNSTON, Judge in equity of the Supreme Court of Nova Scotia, was born at Kingston, Jamaica, in the year 1792. His grandfather was a Scotchman, and had been Governor of the Province of Georgia, while the United States were still a colony of Great Britain. When the revolutionary war broke out his sons entered the British army to aid in the suppression of the rebellion. One of them raised a troop of horse, known as Johnston's horse, and was killed in a skirmish against the colonists. On the declaration of Independence, Governor Johnston with his family left the Southern States and returned to Scotland, having in common with all the loyalists lost his fortune. The father of the subject of this sketch, who had been a captain in the New York volunteers during the war, at its close studied medicine at the Edinburgh University, where he obtained his degree. He afterwards removed to Jamaica. His children were all sent to Scotland for their education, James being placed with a private tutor, the late Rev. Dr. Duncan of Ruthwell, the originator of Savings Banks in Scotland.

Mr. Johnston visited Nova Scotia, with his mother whose health required change to a Northern climate. He then studied for the Bar, to which he was admitted in the year 1814. He opened his first office in Kentville, where he practiced with success, and afterwards returned to Halifax. Possessed of fine talents he rose speedily in his profession.

It was not till Mr. Johnston had attained to the age of forty-five that he entered the arena of politics. At an early period a strong party was anxious to introduce him into the Legislature of the province, and offered tempting inducements, but in vain — Mr. Johnston saying at the time to a friend that mere party politics were his abhorrence, and that he never could mix in that form of public life unless the party he joined were drawn together by great principles deserving support; and true to his determination he remained in the prosecution of his work as a Barrister and Advocate until the year 1838, when at the solicitation of the Lieutenant Governor, being already Solicitor General, he accepted also a seat in the Legislative Council, with the object of watching the progress of that change in the constitution of the Colonies which was termed Responsible Government, and applying his legal skill to the introduction of such guards and modifications as might be deemed necessary in so radical a change of the political constitution of the Province.

Resigning his seat in the Legislative Council, Mr.

Johnson was repeatedly elected as a representative of the County of Annapolis. As Attorney General he was leader of the Government, on its responsible basis, on three several occasions, covering a period of about nine years. He was one of the delegates appointed to confer with Lord Durham on contemplated changes in Colonial Government, took a prominent part in the settlement of long standing disputes between the Imperial Government and the Province as to the coal question, and in 1864, after an honorable and laborious public life, accepted the office of Judge in Equity. On the death of Mr. Howe he was offered the Governorship of the Province, which on account of failing health he declined. For a short time before his death Mr. Johnston resided in England, and died at Cheltenham on the 21st of November, 1878, at the advanced age of eighty-one:—

“Like a weary child he lay,
Waiting for the close of day,
With the faith he held so dear,
Brightening, as the end drew near.”

CHAPTER XXIV.—When and where was Judge Johnston born? When was he admitted to the Bar? How old was he when he became a politician? What offices did he fill? When did he die and what was his character?

CHAPTER XXV.

THE STEAMSHIP "ENGLAND."

IN the month of April, 1866, the steamship "England," belonging to the International Steamship Company's Line, arrived in Halifax with a great number of cholera cases on board. She had sailed from Liverpool, England, for New York, on the 25th of March, having on her departure from Queenstown twelve hundred and two passengers besides the crew. When four days out from England a death occurred from a disease which was pronounced to be Asiatic cholera. This was kept as quiet as possible, and occasioned but little alarm. Severe weather was experienced on the seventh day out, and the hatches remained battened down for two nights, when another case of cholera occurred, which proved fatal in four hours. The disease now began to spread, and the crew as well as the passengers were affected. When the ship arrived in Halifax harbor, one hundred and sixty cases were reported and fifty-six deaths, thirty cases being under treatment, and fresh cases appearing. Dr. John H. Slayter, the health officer of the port, went on board on the tenth of April,

and perceiving the desperate condition of the ship, volunteered to place himself in quarantine. A boat laden with dead bodies was afloat at the stern of the ship, for which graves were dug at Thrum Cap—the extreme southern point of McNab's Island.

On the evening of the tenth, Doctors Gossip and Garvie, who had previously volunteered their services, should medical assistance be required, on being requested proceeded to the ship, accompanied by Dr. Garvie's brother—Frank Forbes Garvie, medical student,—and joined Dr. Slayter on board the *England* at ten o'clock. On that day a few of the sick passengers had been removed to the *Pyramus*, receiving ship, which on application to the Admiral had been placed at the disposal of the authorities, and was then at the quarantine ground. When the medical men met in consultation, the circumstances were sufficiently appalling. Deaths were taking place hourly, and new cases appearing. Two doctors connected with the ship had done all in their power to alleviate suffering, and mitigate the disease, which was of the most malignant type, and being exhausted with their labors were released by their brave professional brethren from the city. Steps were taken by the instructions of the Government to land many of the passengers on the island, and to separate those attacked from the rest. Nobly and courageously did Doctors Slayter, Gossip, and Garvie and Frank Garvie devote themselves to the arduous duty they had undertaken. On the

morning of the eleventh they conveyed the dead bodies to Thrum Cap, and interred them themselves, as no assistance could be obtained. Dr. Slayter, in his report, spoke in terms of admiration of the cheerfulness and courage with which two Roman Catholic priests, who were passengers, attended to the dying and bereaved—the Rev. Mr. McIsaac, of St. Mary's, being also conspicuous for his devotion to duty. The precautionary and remedial measures adopted were successful, and the disease began to abate both in violence and the number of cases. Not one of the saloon passengers was attacked—striking evidence of the importance of thorough ventilation and cleanliness as protection against disease.

Dr. Slayter, who was ashore and felt unwell, went off to the ship, and was there seized with unmistakable symptoms of cholera. He experienced much pain at first, never rallied, was perfectly sensible, but soon his speech became unintelligible, and he expired in the presence of Dr. Gossip, and one of the medical officers of the "England," on the morning of the seventeenth—a martyr to professional duty. Dr. Tupper, in proposing to the Legislature to vote five hundred pounds to the widow of Dr. Slayter, paid to the deceased a well-merited tribute of respect, in which the House thoroughly sympathized. Dr. J. B. Garvie and his brother have since died, cut down before they had scarcely attained to the bloom of manhood, but their names will be long honorably remembered in connection with professional

services so chivalrously tendered, and so zealously performed.

CHAPTER XXV.—In what year did the steamship *England* arrive in Halifax? From what port and what country did she come? What occurred on board after having left port? How many cases of death occurred during the voyage, and from what cause? What were the names of the several medical gentlemen who attended on the sick? What was the name of the one that died through contagion on the occasion?

CHAPTER XXVI.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF NOVA SCOTIA, ETC.

NOVA SCOTIA consists of a Peninsula and the Island of Cape Breton—the peninsular portion of it being 250 miles in length, and its extreme breadth being about 100 miles. It is connected with the main land of the American Continent by an Isthmus eighteen miles in width, Cape Breton being separated from Nova Scotia proper by the narrow strait of Canso. The island is about 100 miles in length, and eighty in breadth. A considerable portion of the superficies of the Province is occupied by lakes of various sizes, of which Lake Rosignol, in Queens County is said to be the largest. But a very small portion of the county is, strictly speaking, mountainous. Its surface is generally undulating, and its aspect pleasing. That portion of the province which faces the Atlantic to the south is bold and rugged, with deep indentations, but relieved in summer by spots of fresh verdure, and the variegated colors of the distant forest, while the land that fronts the Bay of Fundy is of comparatively even surface, forming a striking contrast to the southern coast line of the Peninsula.

Few countries have been, in their general geographical features, better described, the greater portion of the work having been done without any pecuniary remuneration whatever. In every house in the Province there ought to be a copy of Dr. Dawson's work, which combines scientific accuracy, and extensive original research, with a pleasing narrative, encumbered with comparatively little technical phraseology. Gesner, Honeyman, Brown, Hind and Howe have also contributed not a few valuable papers on the geology of the country.

Till a comparatively recent period the most erroneous notions were entertained in Europe as to the soil and climate of Nova Scotia. In an anonymous description of it published in Edinburgh in 1787, the soil was represented to be so spongy as not to bear the foot of man, unless congealed with frost. Whether the writer had landed on some boggy part of the coast and drew a sweeping conclusion based on his limited experience as to the general character of the country, or trusted entirely to his fertile imagination in his description, it is impossible to determine. Even on the part of some Nova Scotians there is a tendency to speak of their country as not adapted for farming operations, and to point to the west as the proper region for agricultural settlement. Hear one whose writings are distinguished by sobriety of statement, and whose opinion ought to carry weight. Dr. Dawson says it is scarcely fair to compare our country with those parts

of America which present vast tracts of forest, and which are yearly receiving swarms of emigrants, who are cutting down the wood and exporting a great surplus of grain from the first fertility of the virgin soil. Such countries are now yielding large supplies of produce, but their fertility is rapidly being exhausted, and we have no evidence that when the land becomes cleared, and the influx of new population ceases, they will be even as productive as the average districts of our province. Nor is it safe to speak in general terms, either of praise or condemnation, of a country so various in the qualities of its soil as our province. We have some land as bad as any can be; we have in other districts soils not surpassed by any in the world. We have also extensive tracts of soil which require, in order to productiveness, a larger amount of skilful husbandry than they have yet received. Such is the testimony of Dr. Dawson.

Scientific agriculture is carried on to as great perfection in Scotland as in any country in the world, yet the soil of Scotland is not naturally more fertile than that of Nova Scotia, and there is a greater cultivable area here in proportion to the extent of country; and Nova Scotia enjoys the additional advantage of a large tract of marine alluvial soil, produced by the tide wave that sweeps up the Bay of Fundy, and which continues to retain its fertility undiminished for generations.

Nor can Nova Scotia complain of its climate. It can

be fairly placed in competition with that of Great Britain even for agricultural purposes, and so far as personal comfort is concerned, that of Nova Scotia will be preferred by the majority of persons who have had experience of both climates. The mildness of the winter in Britain is considerably marred by remarkable humidity, which naturally diminishes the number of days suitable for outdoor labor, whilst the advantages of early spring are counterbalanced by the rapidity of growth in Nova Scotia, and the splendor of the protracted autumns. The large quantity of flour which is landed weekly at the wharves in Halifax, to be afterwards sent to all parts of the Province, shows the extent to which we are dependent for the staff of life on Canada and the United States. Whilst the greater rain-fall in Nova Scotia renders the successful culture of wheat more precarious than in many parts of the States and Ontario, yet a large portion, at least, of the wheat which is required for the Province, might be grown on our own soil. In travelling through the country in autumn, when the golden color of the grain fields renders them peculiarly conspicuous, one who has travelled in other regions is struck with the very limited extent to which cereals are cultivated in the Province, even in districts whose native fertility is equal to that of the richest soil of any other land.

Connected with the Dominion department of Marine and Fisheries there is a meteorological office, under the

management of Mr. Kingston, whose objects are the collection of meteorological statistics, and their arrangement in forms suitable for the discussion of various physical questions—the combination of the information collected from numerous places, in a series of years, and the deduction therefrom of the climatic character of each district and locality, and the laws of geographical distribution, and the prognostication of weather. The report of the superintendent, presented in January, 1873, is equally interesting and valuable. We have referred to Ontario as being better adapted for the culture of wheat on account of the comparative dryness of its climate. By reference to the table where the depth and number of days of rain—exclusive of snow—in the several Provinces, for each quarter and year from September, 1859, to August 1872, are shown, it is found that the fall of rain in the summer quarter of 1872 in Ontario was 7.49 inches, in Quebec 10.92, New Brunswick 12.99, and Nova Scotia 12.26,—the yearly rain-fall from 1871–1872 being in Ontario 18.34 inches, Quebec 21.96, New Brunswick 37.32, and Nova Scotia 39.31. Thus we find that the quantity of rain which falls annually in Nova Scotia is more than double that which falls in Ontario. The number of days in the same year in which rain fell in the respective Provinces was—Ontario 77.9 days, Quebec 79, New Brunswick 105, and Nova Scotia 118.1. But the superabundance of moisture in Nova Scotia might be, to

a great extent, counteracted by a system of thorough drainage. If the climate is deficient as compared to some of the other Provinces for the growth of wheat, it is most favorable for green crops, turnips, carrots, mangel wurzel, which, in Nova Scotia, are cultivated to a very limited extent.

CHAPTER XXVI.—Of what does Nova Scotia geographically consist? What is its length and breadth? How broad is the Isthmus which connects it with the Continent? What notions did Europeans long entertain regarding the Province?

CHAPTER XXVII.

A TRIP TO THE FRUIT SHOW AT SOMERSET.

WE offer no apology to our youthful readers for deviating so far from the gravity of ordinary history as to give an account of a journey taken from Halifax to one of the fruit shows of the Nova Scotia Fruit Growers' Association, held at Somerset, King's County.

Wednesday morning the seventeenth of October found us on our way to the Richmond Station. The morning was cloudy, threatening rain, which all travellers dread, except in circumstances where long-continued drought renders it particularly acceptable to the soil; but the weather on the assumption of no change either in increased sunshine or gloom taking place, was, in the circumstances, quite up to our ideal. The passengers on leaving Halifax were to travel a district of country where the charms presented were to be reflected from hill, dale, wood and water. Hence the alternations of sunshine and cloud incident to the existing state of the atmosphere, were particularly favorable to the production of at once a striking and pleasing effect. Except under the conditions indicated, we do not believe that natural scenery

in cases where extensive range of vision and sublimity of effect are obtained, can be viewed to advantage.

On arriving at the Richmond Station the first thing that strikes one who has just come from the old country, but who has never seen an American railway car, is its peculiar construction as compared with its British brother. In the latter the passengers face each other exactly as they do in an ordinary coach, each compartment being distinct and separate from the rest. The privacy thus secured is not unfrequently dearly paid for by murderous attacks being made on unoffending passengers. In point of comfort, and in other respects, the American system of railway accommodation is decidedly superior to the British.

In the train we have a goodly company, many of the passengers being like ourselves bound for the fruit show. We find ourselves in agreeable and intelligent society. On passing Bedford Basin the country presents a sterile appearance, the surface being generally uneven and rocky. A series of small lakes relieves the monotony of the scene, and in conjunction with the spruce fir, and dwarf birch and maple that abound in the district, constitute not a few splendid pictures. At this season of the year the partially decayed foliage assumes all the hues of the rainbow, and in many cases the colors are so charmingly blended as to present scenes inexpressibly beautiful. It is one of the characteristics of Nova Scotian scenery that

wood grows everywhere on the margin of the water—whether salt or fresh. As the morning is calm the trees are vividly reflected on the surface; the brilliant colors brought out by clear sunshine, being toned in the reflection—the trembling undulations of the water, in which they delight to glass themselves, imparting a truly ethereal aspect to the pleasing scene.

Passing the limits of Halifax County in the direction of Windsor, the scene changes. Instead of the profusion of spruce, fir, and dwarf birch which prevails for twenty miles after leaving Halifax, a goodly quantity of hemlock, birch and maple clothes the country, and its aspect becomes in an agricultural point of view greatly improved. Smiling fields and neat cottages enliven the scene, and the general appearance of the country presents evidence of comparatively ancient settlement.

Proceeding by coach we have now crossed the Avon, and behold a portion of that process by which the fertile dyke lands are produced. The sea has for a season receded to a great distance, and has left in its rear a plain of many hundred acres in which the deposits necessary to constitute arable land are being gradually made. The tide, as if inspired with intelligence, collects mud mixed with very fine sand, and bearing the treasure in its bosom, carefully deposits it in thin layers on the surface of the flats, and having thus like a bee left its treasure, returns to collect more material to add to the general stock.

It is highly creditable to the French that they had succeeded in reclaiming by their ingenuity and labor such large tracts of country, and that at a period when scientific attainments in the accomplishment of such work were by no means common. For many years previous to the middle of last century they raised splendid crops of wheat as the reward of their industry, which they were able to export in considerable quantity to the Boston market. How much of that valuable cereal is growing in that fertile region now? The sea is performing its part of the work with gigantic power and undeviating regularity, and would seem alike by the terrible roar or gentle ripple of its waves to call upon man to reap the benefit of its beneficent industry. And here we cannot refrain from shedding a tear of sympathy for the unfortunate Acadians, who, in the full enjoyment of the fruit of their industry, were compelled by the consequences of war to bid adieu to those fertile fields which it had been their delight to cultivate.

CHAPTER XXVII.—Under what conditions can scenery be best viewed? What is the neighborhood of Windsor noted for? Who reclaimed the large tracts of country there? What office does the sea perform in the work?

CHAPTER XXVIII.

TRIP TO THE FRUIT SHOW—CONTINUED.

WE would fain dwell on the beauties of Wolfville and Kentville, but must hasten to the show. Having dined at the latter place, we drove in the evening to Somerset. It was a clear moonlight night. The stars shone with great brilliancy, and the air was balmy for the season. Venus sparkled in the west with a concentration of ray which seemed as if she was resolved to give to a scene so congenial to her aspirations as the fruit show, her special countenance. Old Sol, in going down robed in richly-colored cloudlets, seemed to have given her a hint as to how she was to deck herself, for soon after he disappeared she became visible in her purest and most brilliant vestal garments.

After breakfast we took a stroll through Somerset. It is quite a modern place. The village is pleasantly situated in a fertile plain, being within a short distance of the Blomidon hills, which we had resolved to visit.

before the exhibition opened at one o'clock. On attaining the summit we beheld a scene of pleasing grandeur, presenting as it did a more cultivated aspect than any portion of Nova Scotia we had previously beheld from an elevated position. The wood which originally abounded in the district has been to a great extent cut down, and the patches which remain are intersected by fertile fields—the open ground being dotted by snug dwelling-houses. Vehicles proceeded from all directions to the show, charged with men and matrons, country lads and blooming lasses—presenting a very animated picture—their extraordinary number proving how interested the people were in the exhibition.

Anxious to have a preliminary view we were soon at the door of the exhibition, to which we were at once admitted. The judges had met in the morning and had awarded the prizes—a task of considerable delicacy as well as difficulty. Along the interior walls of the building, which in form was an oblong square, ran a table on which were placed the apples, grapes, vegetables, &c., for exhibition. This table was subdivided into different compartments, each of which was devoted to the display of the property of an exhibitor. A ticket indicating the description of apple, was placed above the respective lots, so that persons ignorant of the varieties, which exceeded sixty in number, became by careful attention familiar with the names of the different kinds. The

whole of the table space on each side of the hall was devoted to the exhibition of apples,

“Blooming, ambrosial fruit
Of vegetable gold”

whilst the space at each end of the building groaned with the other exhibited varieties of the vegetable world. The sight was one of which Nova Scotia had reason to be proud, and which ought to put all the croakers, who prate about the poverty of the soil, and the severity of the climate, to shame and silence.

That must verily be a severe climate in which such grapes as are seen here exhibited have grown in the open air—a dreadful climate in which, in some cases, a double crop of strawberries can be had in one season—a fearful climate in which tender fruit, such as peaches, come to maturity. There is the sprout of a cherry tree which was grafted on a wild brother two years ago. In that period it has only attained the dwarfish height of eight feet; and if the grumblers about the severity of the weather and unsuitableness of the climate for human growth, require a natural specimen in confirmation of their opinion, we shall be happy to introduce them to Miss Swan, who has only grown seven feet four inches in eighteen years! As evidence of the productiveness of the soil in this region, we are assured by a gentleman in Kentville, that in the neighborhood a single acre of ground

produced by careful manuring, four hundred bushels of potatoes in one season; and it is well known the valley of Annapolis yields annually from forty to fifty thousand barrels of apples.

CHAPTER XXVIII.—What sort of fruit has Nova Scotia become noted for? Describe the climate of Nova Scotia. Give instances of the productiveness of the soil.

THE RESOURCES OF NOVA SCOTIA.

CHAPTER XXIX.

COAL AND IRON.

COAL and Iron lie at the foundation of the Commercial and Industrial prosperity of Great Britain, and perhaps it is not too much to say that in proportion to the extent of Nova Scotia it is not inferior to the mother country in the extent and quality of these valuable minerals. The Province has become famous for the extent of its coal fields, and the excellence of the quality of its coal. The entire quantity of the carboniferous area in the Maritime Provinces has been calculated at about 18,000 square miles, and it is supposed that at least the half of that area, or 9,000 square miles, are in Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island. The Albion mines beds are very extraordinary deposits—they form an exception to all the phenomena of coal in all the British Provincial coal regions. Nothing like them has been discovered in the Provinces. The thickest beds of Cape Breton, are never over twelve feet, and usually under nine, but here we have one bed—the main seam—of which

twenty-four feet are good coal. The Sydney coal field is the most extensive in the Province, extending from Mira Bay on the east to Cape Dauphin on the west, a distance of thirty one miles.

Twenty years ago there were no reliable mineral statistics published periodically in Britain, but in the year 1855, Robert Hunt published a work of that description, in which the quantity of coal raised in the United Kingdom, as ascertained by circulars addressed to the various owners or lessees of collieries, and by personal inquiries, was 64,661,401 tons. The development of the trade since that period has been astounding. In 1857, seventy-five millions of tons were extracted; in 1859, seventy-two millions of tons; in 1865, ninety-eight millions of tons, and in 1871—the latest authentic return—one hundred and seventeen millions of tons were raised. The extraction may therefore attain in five years hence, under present causes, to one hundred and thirty millions of tons for the year, in which case the entire coal production of Britain will have about doubled itself within twenty years. Mr. Jevons, in his work on the coal question, anticipated that in 1871 the consumption would amount to nearly one hundred and eighteen millions of tons, and a writer in the *Edinburgh Review* had, independently, made an estimate of a rather less quantity upon similar elements of computation. These gentlemen were considered alarmists in consequence, but the official return for 1871, proved that

they were approximately right. And the British Parliamentary Committee appointed to consider the question, say that the general conclusion to be drawn from the whole evidence produced during their deliberations is that, though the production of coal increased in 1872 in a smaller ratio than in the years immediately preceding, yet if an adequate supply of labor can be obtained, the increase of production will shortly keep pace with that of the last few years.

Comparatively large as is the quantity of coal in Nova Scotia, it is not for the permanent interest of the Province that the export trade should attain to gigantic proportions. It is desirable that it should be used, as it is to a large extent in Great Britain, in rendering the iron ores which abound in the Province into pig and malleable iron, thus employing labor on a large scale, without which no country can be commercially great. The benefit to the Province from the simple extraction and transportation of the coal would be trifling, as compared with the advantages that would be derived from its application to the production of iron, and in manufactures of various kinds.

The quantity of Coal raised in Nova Scotia in 1827 was only 11,491 tons. In the year 1873 it amounted to 1,051,467 tons, and may be expected to increase every successive year.

Greater attention is now being paid to the valuable

iron ores of the Province, with a view to the practical determination of their economic value. Nova Scotia is the only Province in the Dominion where iron and coal are in comparative close proximity, or in other words, where the conditions for the manufacture of cheap and good iron prevail. That the value of the iron deposits of the Province, which it is no exaggeration to say extend for miles in undiminished profusion, is being appreciated by men of skill and capital, is proved by the pleasing fact that English companies are in course of formation for the purpose of working these ores in Pictou County, on a scale commensurate with their value, so that probably in a few years Nova Scotia will require her large stock of coal for her own works.

It is well known that the main advantage possessed by Britain over other countries in the manufacture of iron is owing to the ores being found in inexhaustible abundance, usually interstratified with the coal for their reduction, and in proximity to the mountain limestone, which is used as a flux—the ores principally employed being clay ironstone, and carbonate of black bands. This kind of ore is not found in any large quantity with the coal deposits of the Province, except near Port Hood, where it has been discovered in large quantity interstratified with the coal. If limestone to be used as a flux is found in the vicinity of the coal and iron, then all the conditions which have rendered Great Britain so famous as an iron-producing

and iron ship-building country are to be found in this little Province; but, it is not perhaps too much to say that the superiority in the richness of the general ores in Pictou County and elsewhere, as compared with the quality of the British, does not more than compensate for the short distance they require to be conveyed for smelting.

Port Hood, near which ironstone has been found interstratified with coal, is a flourishing town in the County of Inverness. The county is in length, from the Strait of Canso to Cape North, upwards of one hundred miles, being in breadth from fifteen to twenty-five miles. Its area exceeds two hundred square miles, mostly fit, when cleared, for cultivation. A lofty ridge of high lands run through the middle of the county, from north to south—the water from these on the west side falling into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and those on the east side into the Bras d'Or Lake. The first settlers of this county were a few Acadian French families, who emigrated from Prince Edward Island in 1784 to Chetecamp, where the house of Robin & Co., of Jersey, erected a fishing establishment about that time. The next settler was a Captain Smith, who emigrated from New England, and erected the first house in Port Hood, and whose numerous descendants were farmers. In 1806 emigrants from North Britain began to flock into the country, and have continued to do

so ever since—the population of the county being now greatly increased.

CHAPTER XXIX.—What are the main elements of commercial prosperity? For what mineral has the Province of Nova Scotia become famous? What is the thickness of the main coal seam in connection with the Albion mine? What was the quantity of coal raised in 1873? How stands the Province for iron ore?

CHAPTER XXX.

THE GOLD MINES OF NOVA SCOTIA.

WHEN gold was first discovered in Nova Scotia it is impossible to determine. The names given by the French to such places as Bras d'Or, Cap d'Or, seem to indicate their belief in the presence, at an early period, of the precious metals. The discovery of golden quartz seems to have been first made by Lieutenant, now Captain, C. L'Estrange while moose hunting in the autumn of 1858. Mr. Campbell, of Dartmouth, had panned gold in 1859, and was the first to advocate the existence of gold in quantity in the Province.

The enthusiasm which was first inspired by the discovery gradually abated, and a corresponding depression occurred when it was found that skill, capital and patience were required to render the mines productive. A complete change has recently taken place in the working of the gold mines, and there has been a consequent falling off in the number of men engaged, as well as in the quantity of gold produced—the change referred to being the almost total discontinuance of work by companies, and the introduction of the system of working the mines by

tribute. Under this system a percentage on the gold extracted is allowed to the mine proprietors, by the parties who have undertaken to work them.

That gold mining might be prosecuted in the Province to greater advantage than has been yet experienced, is acknowledged by scientific men. Failures in gold mining in Nova Scotia have been attributed to the following amongst other causes—the rash expenditure of capital in the purchase of mining rights, respecting the actual value of which nothing is known with certainty—the hasty and inconsiderate erection of machinery for mining and treating the ores before the quantity or their probable value has been ascertained—the attempts frequently made to enhance the value of the stock by declaring dividends, sometimes paid out of capital, but often by means of a process of selecting all the rich material to secure a few high yields, which are far in excess of any thing likely to be the future average, and the almost unusual want of any appliances for saving pyrites and fine gold.

The quantity of gold produced in 1860, before the adoption of sworn returns, has been estimated at six thousand ounces. The total estimated and declared quantity of gold produced in the Province till the close of 1872, was 237,000 ounces, which, valued at four pounds sterling per ounce, was worth £948,000.

Silver ore has not been discovered in the Province in any considerable quantity. Mr. Campbell, of Dartmouth,

was the first to discover it in small quantity. He found it in the neighborhood of Grand Anse, where the Mackenzie river falls into the Gulf of St. Lawrence. It is disseminated through the drift of that stream in small grains and nuggets, and this appears to be the case all along the greater part of its course; for in many trials made inland, silver has been found as plentiful as near the Gulf coast. The sources from which the stream derives the silver embodied in its drift are veins of a beautiful variety of spar, closely resembling meerschaum, that abound in some parts of the district—some of the veins containing native silver, embedded in strings and nests of a softish grey substance of earthy texture, resembling the carbonate of that metal.

CHAPTER XXX.—When was gold first discovered in Nova Scotia? Who first found golden quartz? How much was produced in 1860? Who first discovered silver in the Province?

CHAPTER XXXI.

THE FISHERIES OF NOVA SCOTIA.

IN point of importance and value the fisheries of Nova Scotia take precedence of all other mercantile interests. With a coast line of upwards of nine hundred miles, possessing harbors which in number and excellence are unrivalled, and with a population of hardy, skilful, and stalwart men, the business is prosecuted with energy and success. The value of the fisheries of the Province was, in 1870, \$4,019,424; in 1871, \$6,570,739; and in 1872, \$6,016,835. Cod stands first in value, next mackerel, and then herring and lobsters.

The obstruction offered in our rivers to the ascent of salmon and other fish to the spawning ground has been a growing evil, which has much diminished the quantity of fish on our coast, but which is being now removed by means of a system of inspection which, it is to be hoped, will shortly become more thorough and rigid than it is at present. In New England the same causes operate to diminish the quantity of fish as exist in Nova Scotia. The United States Commissioner of Fish and Fisheries informs us that fifty years ago the streams and rivers of

New England were almost blockaded at certain seasons by salmon, shad and alewives, seeking to ascend to the spawning ground, but the erection of impassible dams had prevented their ascent, and the consequence has been a remarkable diminution in the quantity of fish. The Commissioner points to the fact that the quantity of deep sea fish is greatly dependent on the number of fish that ascends the rivers, and to the obstructions referred to he attributes in a great measure the failure of the New England fisheries.

Halifax County has the greatest number of fishermen. Lunenburg is next. Guysborough and Inverness are about equal; Yarmouth and Shelburne being very close on each other; Cape Breton and Victoria Counties being also very near as to numbers.

In the year 1851 there were employed in the fisheries of Nova Scotia 10,304 men. According to the census of 1861 the number was 14,322. It is impossible, however, to say whether these numbers represent *bona fide* fishermen, or include persons who were only occasionally engaged in the occupation. In any case the numbers show a large increase in the men employed now as compared with the periods specified.

CHAPTER XXXI.—Name the most valuable mercantile interest in the Province. What was the value of the fisheries in 1872? Which kind of fish is the most valuable? Which next? The next? And next? Which county has the largest number of fishermen?

CHAPTER XXXII.

POPULATION OF NOVA SCOTIA.—MANUFACTURES, ETC.

THE population of Nova Scotia at the taking of the Census in 1861 was 330,857; when taken in 1871 it was 387,800, showing an increase in ten years of 56,943. The sexes are well balanced in the Province, the number of males being in 1871, 193,792; and of females, 194,008, showing a balance of only 216 in the entire Province in favor of the ladies.

Considering the advantages which Nova Scotia offers for industrial enterprise, the manufactures of the Province are few, and on a limited scale. It has indeed been said that without a large Provincial population to consume what is produced, success cannot be expected. The history of the progress of manufactures in other countries seems to prove the contrary. We can point to a country in Europe having a comparatively small population, and which is surrounded by teeming populations of almost unrivalled skill and industry, but which succeeded, first on a small but subsequently on a more extensive scale, in competing with eminent success with the foremost of

its rivals. We refer to Belgium, which has only an area of 11,267 square miles, and a population of about five million souls, but the yearly commerce of this little kingdom is very large—the exports in 1871 to Great Britain alone being in value £13,573,274, whilst all she took in return from the manufacturing mistress of the world in the same year, amounted in value only to £6,217,000.

One of the most important natural productions of Belgium, and chief basis of its industry, is coal, which is raised in ever increasing quantities. In coal Nova Scotia is probably equal to Belgium, and surpasses it in the quality and extent of its iron ores; and if the manufacturing greatness of Great Britain is to a great extent dependent on these minerals, why should they not also prove the basis of industrial greatness in Nova Scotia?

Turning to Switzerland we have further evidence of successful industrial competition on the part of a comparatively insignificant people. It has a population of about one half of that of Belgium. Although according to the census of 1870, one half of its people are supported either wholly or in part by agriculture, yet the manufactures of the Republic employed at the time mentioned, 216,468 persons. The manufacture of cotton goods occupies upwards of a million spindles, four thousand looms, and 20,000 operatives, besides 38,000 handloom weavers. If Nova Scotia is to resemble these countries in manufacturing prosperity, and to attain to as

much eminence, in proportion to her population and material resources, in general manufactures as she has attained in ship-building, she must look beyond her own borders for a market, not being scared by obstacles which other states, with no greater advantages, have encountered and overcome. Let it, moreover, be borne in mind, that it is admitted in all the Provinces that Nova Scotia, with its unrivalled advantages, presents facilities for manufacturing enterprise which are not equalled in the sister Provinces.

If Nova Scotia can be charged with backwardness in some branches of manufacturing enterprise, it must not be forgotten that in one most important industry it excels in proportion to its population all the other Provinces of the Empire. The ship-building trade in all its branches is carried on to an extent, which, considering the limited area of the Province, is certainly extraordinary. During the year 1872 nearly 53,000 tons were built throughout the Province, being over 16,000 more than were built in New Brunswick, and nearly 28,000 more than were built in Quebec and Ontario put together. That a small Province with a population of less than 400,000 souls should be able successfully to compete with the other provinces and the United States in a craft requiring much constructive skill, and the application in practice of scientific principles, is matter for wonder, and is due to a variety of causes. Of these the most influential is the character of the

population, which is essentially aquatic. The Nova Scotian of the country districts, half fisherman and half farmer, is as much accustomed to draw his harvests from the sea as from the land, and is equally at home on either. In many cases the soil he cultivates is not exactly of that kind which "if tickled with a hoe will laugh with a harvest," and as he has generally little inclination to bestow that fostering care which it requires, he often prefers to do the greater part of his ploughing on salt water. Where there are fishermen there must be fishing boats, and where timber is abundant and labor and money scarce, these have to be constructed by the fisherman himself, who thus adds the trade of a carpenter to his other vocations. Adverse fortune had occasionally cast upon these shores excellent mechanics, who well understood the trade of practical ship-building, and while the hardy fishermen, instinctively wise in such matters, proved apt scholars, the abundance of suitable timber, and the number of suitable harbors so favored their plans that the trade in ship-building grew and flourished. As already hinted, another element of success is the excellent quality of timber for ship-building purposes which is found in the Maritime Provinces. With the exception of Pitch Pine and White Oak, every kind of wood is to be had in abundance, and of a quality which is not surpassed, if equalled, in any other country. Nova Scotia vessels are famous for their efficiency in carrying dead weight cargoes, such as

railway iron—the timber of which they are constructed seeming to possess a buoyancy and elasticity which are wanting in ships built elsewhere. When to these advantages are added the comparative low cost of imported material, and of labor, enabling the Nova Scotian to build his vessel cheaper, we have stated the chief grounds for the rapidity in ship-building and ship-owning of this Province over the other Provinces of the Dominion. Of late years capital has been put into the business, which has therefore been conducted more systematically, but still from many a scarce-heard-of harbor come scores of trim and finely modelled vessels, bearing after their names the letters N. S.—a dark mystery to the natives of many a clime. The highest class given to Provincial built ships was formerly seven years A1 at British Lloyd's, but eight years have been recently granted in a few cases under special inspection. This shows progress, and also that the English underwriters are not slow to appreciate efforts in that direction.

At Halifax a dry dock capable of accommodating the largest class of vessels is a desideratum which, if supplied, would benefit not the capitalist only, but the entire Province. That Halifax is the most accessible port on this side of the Atlantic to steamers engaged on the principal waters between England and America, is proved by the number that annually put in for coals, and the not infrequent occurrence of disabled steamers being towed in

for repairs. At present, when it is found imperative that the bottom of a large ship should be examined, the work has to be done by the dangerous, troublesome and unsatisfactory method of diving, which can only afford such temporary assistance as may enable the vessel to proceed to New York, where the amplest facilities for repair are afforded. The mere fact that repairs cannot be executed is of itself sufficient to deter the great steam shipping companies from making Halifax their terminus. The success of the Marine Slip at Dartmouth, which is capable of accommodating only the smallest class of vessels, should inspire capitalists with confidence. As the number of steamers which call at Halifax is increasing each year, the construction of such a dock is only a question of time. Such a dock would be of utility not only to merchant vessels, but also to Her Majesty's ships of war and Government steamers, besides proving, in all probability, a financial success. The ground requisite for such an undertaking could now be procured at a moderate cost, but as the price of real estate is steadily rising in Halifax, the sum necessary to secure a suitable water lot will in a few years be enormous. With a dry dock and forges where heavy screw shafts could be forged and welded, and such additions as could be easily made to the machine shops of the city, there is no reason why Halifax, the ocean terminus of a railway which will belt a continent, the Capital of a country abounding in coal and iron, with its favorable

geographical position, and its magnificent harbor, should not speedily rival the principal American cities.

CHAPTER XXXII.—What was the population of Nova Scotia, in 1871? In what condition are manufactures in the Province? What branch of manufacturing enterprise is extensively cultivated? How many tons of shipping were built in the Province in 1872?

CHAPTER XXXIII.

THE DOMINION OF CANADA.

THE Dominion of Canada now embraces the Provinces of Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, British Columbia, and Manitoba. When union was first effected the first four Provinces were only included in it—the others having subsequently been added. The act by which the union was originally consummated is designated the British North America Act, and was passed in the British Parliament in 1867—the Provinces being federally united under the Crown of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, with a constitution similar in principle to that of the United Kingdom. The Executive Government and authority are vested in the Queen—the chief executive officer being the Governor-General for the time being. There is a Council styled the Queen's Privy Council for Canada, whose members are chosen by the Governor-General, and who, from time to time, may be removed by the Governor-General. The command-in-chief of the land and military forces, including the militia, is vested in the Queen. Until the Queen otherwise directs, the seat of government shall be at Ottawa. There

is one Parliament for the Dominion, consisting of the Queen, the Senate, and the House of Commons. There is a session of the House once at least in every year, so that twelve months shall not intervene between the last sitting of the Parliament in one session, and its first sitting in the next session.

A Senator must be thirty years of age, and be worth four thousand dollars over and above his debts and liabilities. He must be a resident in the Province for which he is appointed. The number of Senators must not at any time exceed seventy-eight. They hold their place for life, but can at any time resign by addressing a letter to that effect to the Governor-General. A Senator becomes disqualified if for two consecutive sessions of the Parliament he fails to give his attendance in the Senate, or if he becomes bankrupt or insolvent. Questions arising in the Senate are decided by a majority of votes, the Speaker, who is appointed by the Governor-General, having in all cases a vote; and when the voices are equal the decision is deemed in the negative.

The British North America Act provides that the House of Commons shall consist of one hundred and eighty-one members, of whom eighty-two shall be elected for Ontario, sixty-five for Quebec, nineteen for Nova Scotia, and fifteen for New Brunswick; but provision has been made for the representation of the other Provinces, which may join the confederation. Each of the eighteen counties of which

Nova Scotia consists has been legally constituted an electoral district—the county of Halifax being entitled to return two members, and each of the other counties one member. Every House of Commons continues for five years from the day of the return of the writs for choosing the House—subject to be sooner dissolved by the Governor-General—and no longer. Questions arising in the House are decided by a majority of voices other than that of the Speaker, and when the voices are equal, but not otherwise, the Speaker has a vote. The number of members of the House of Commons may be from time to time increased by the Parliament of Canada, provided the legally prescribed proportionate representation is not disturbed.

All bills for appropriating any part of the public revenue, or for imposing any tax or import, must originate in the House of Commons, but they cannot be passed or adopted without a recommendation, by message of the Governor-General in the session in which they may be proposed. Where a bill, passed by the Houses of Parliament, is presented to the Governor-General for the Queen's assent, he declares that he assents thereto in the Queen's name, or that he withholds the Queen's assent, or that he reserves the bill for the signification of the Queen's pleasure.

In each of the confederated Provinces there is an officer styled the Lieutenant-Governor, appointed by the Gov-

ernor-General in Council, and holding office for five years—his salary being fixed and provided by the Parliament of Canada.

Each of the united Provinces has a legislative assembly which has the power of direct taxation for raising a revenue for Provincial purposes, for the borrowing of money on the sole credit of the Province, for the management and sale of the Public Lands, and of the timber and wood thereon, the establishment, maintenance and management of Public and Reformatory Prisons—also of Hospitals and Asylums. The administration of Justice in the Province comes under the jurisdiction of the Local Assemblies, as does also the subject of education. The subject of Agriculture and immigration comes also under the control of the Local Assemblies, jointly with the Dominion Parliament.

CHAPTER XXXIII.—In what year was the British North America Act passed? How many Provinces constitute the Dominion? Name them. In whom is the Executive Government of the Dominion vested? Who chooses the Members of the Privy Council? Where does the Dominion Parliament sit? Of how much property must a Senator be possessed to qualify him for the office? Mention the duration of the House of Commons. Mention some of the subjects on which the Local Assemblies may legislate.

APPENDIX A.

SABLE ISLAND.

DARK Isle of Mourning—aptly art thou named,
For thou hast been the cause of many a tear ;
For deeds of treacherous strife too justly famed,
The Atlantic's charnel—desolate and drear ;
A thing none love—though wand'ring thousands fear—
If for a moment rests the Muse's wing
Where through the waves thy sandy wastes appear,
'Tis that she may one strain of horror sing,
Wild as the dashing waves that tempests o'er thee fling.

The winds have been thy minstrels—the rent shrouds
Of hapless barks, twanging at dead of night,
Thy fav'rite harp strings—the shriek of crowds
Clinging around them feebly in their fright,
The song in which thou long hast had delight,
Dark child of ocean, at thy feasts of blood ;
When mangled forms, shown by Heaven's lurid light,
Rose to thy lip upon the swelling flood,
While Death, with horrid front, beside thee gloating stood.

As lurks the hungry tiger for his prey,
Low crouch'd to earth with well dissembled mien,
Peace in his eye—the savage wish to slay
Rankling around his heart—so thou art seen
Stretch'd harmlessly on ocean's breast of green,

When winds are hush'd, and sleeps the placid wave
 Beneath the evening ray—whose glittering sheen
 Gilds the soft swells thy arid folds that lave,
 Unconscious that they cling around a yawning grave.

The fascination of the Siren's song,
 The shadow of the fatal Upas tree
 The serpent's eye that lures the bird along
 To certain doom—less deadly are than thee
 Even in thy hours of calm serenity,
 When on thy sands the lazy seals repose,
 And steeds, unbridled, sporting carelessly,
 Crop the rank grass that on thy bosom grows,
 While round the timid hare his glance of caution throws.

But when thy aspect changes—when the storm
 Sweeps o'er the wide Atlantic's heaving breast
 When, hurrying on in many a giant form,
 The broken waters by the winds are prest—
 Roaring like fiends of hell which know no rest,
 And guided by the lightning's fitful flash ;
 Who dares look on thee then—in terror drest,
 As on thy length'ning beach the billows dash,
 Shaking the heavens themselves with one long deaf'ning
 crash? *

The winds are but thy blood-hounds that do force
 The prey into thy toils ; th' insidious stream †

* Those who have not personally witnessed the effects of a storm upon this place, can form no adequate idea of its horrors. The reverberated thunder of the sea, when it strikes this attenuated line of sand, on a front of thirty miles, is truly appalling, and the vibration of the Island under its mighty pressure, seems to indicate that it will separate and be borne away by the ocean.—*Haliburton*.

† There is sufficient reason to believe that the Gulf Stream at 42° 30', running E. N. E. occasions the waters of the St. Lawrence, running S. S. W., to glide to the westward. The strength of this current has never

That steadily pursues its noiseless course,
 Warmed by the glow of many a tropic beam,
 To seas where northern blasts more rudely scream,
 Is thy perpetual Almoner, and brings
 All that to man doth rich and lovely seem,
 Earth's glorious gifts,—its fair and holy things,
 And round thy dreary shores its spoils profusely flings.

The stateliest stems the Northern forest yields,
 The richest produce of each Southern shore,
 The gathered harvests of a thousand fields,
 Earn'd by man's sweat—or paid for by his gore.
 The splendid robes the cavern'd Monsters wore,
 The gold that sparkled in Potosi's mine,
 The perfumed spice the Eastern islands bore,
 The gems whose rays like morning's sunbeams shine,
 All—all—insatiate Isle—these treasures all are thine.

But what are these, compared with the rich spoils
 Of human hearts, with fond affections stored :
 Of manly forms, o'ertaken by thy toils—
 Of glorious spirits, 'mid thy sands outpoured.
 Thousands who've braved War's desolating sword,
 Who've walked through earth's worst perils undismayed,
 Now swell the treasures of thy ample hoard ;
 Deep in thy vaults their whitening bones are laid,
 While many a burning tear is to their mem'ries paid.

And oft—as though you sought to mock man's eye—
 Thy shifting sands their treasured spoils disclose :*

been noticed, and three-fourths of the vessels lost have been supposed to be to the eastward of the Island, when, in fact, they were in the longitude of it.—*Ibid.*

* After a gale of wind human skeletons are sometimes exposed to view, and timber, and pieces of wood, are disinterred which have been buried for years.—*Ibid.*

There may we some long-missing wreck descry,
Some broken mast, that once so proudly rose
Above the peopled deck ; some toy, that shows
The fate of her upon whose breast it hung,
But who now sleeps in undisturbed repose,
Where by the waves her beauteous form was flung,
May peace be with her manes—the lovely and the young.

Why dost the Father, at the dawn of day,
Fly from his feverish couch and horrid dreams,
And up the mountain side pursue his way,
And turn to gaze upon the sea, which seems
Blent with the heavens—until the gorgeous beams
Of the bright sun each cloud and wave reveal?
Whence comes the tear that o'er that pale cheek streams—
As, tired with gazing, on the earth he kneels,
And pours in prayer to God the anguish that he feels?

Why does the matron heave that constant sigh?
Why does she start at every distant sound?
Her cheerful fire is blazing 'neath her eye,
Her fair and happy children sporting round,
Appealing to her heart at every bound,
While on her lap one rose-lipped babe reclines,
And looks into her face with joy profound.
But yet the mother secretly repines,
And through a tearful eye her spirit dimly shines.

Why does the maiden shun the giddy throng,
And find no pleasure in the festive hour?
Strange that the mazy dance, and choral song,
O'er one so young should hold no spell of power
Why droops her head, as in her fairy bower
Her lute is only tuned to sorrow's strain?
Is there no magic in the perfumed flower,

To lure her thoughts from off the bounding main?
Oh! when shall joy return to that pure breast again?

Canst thou not read this riddle, gloomy Isle?

Say—when shall that old man behold his boy?

When shall a son's glad voice—a son's bright smile

Wake in that mother's heart the throb of joy?

When shall glad thoughts that maiden's hours employ?

When shall her lover spring to her embrace?

Ask of the winds accustomed to destroy—

Ask of the waves which know their resting-place—

And they in thy deep caves their early graves may trace.

Farewell! dark Isle—the Muse must spread her wing,

To seek for brighter themes in scenes more fair,

Too happy if the strain she strove to sing,

Shall warn the sailor of thy deadly snare;

Oh! would the gods but hear her fervent prayer,

The fate of famed Atlantis should be thine—

No longer crouching in thy dangerous lair,

But sunk far down beneath the 'whelming brine,

Known but to History's page—or in the poet's line,

APPENDIX B.

LA TRIBUNE.

THE knell of death is on the blast,
The seas are wildly driven,
And those who cling around the mast,
Look up with prayers to Heaven.

While every swelling dark-blue wave
Strikes terror to the eye
Of men who think they see their grave,
Yet feel 'tis hard to die.

And who, in such an awful hour,
Will dare approach the wreck?
When He, who only has the power,
The waters will not check.

For oh ! the deep sea's sullen roar,
That sounds so fierce and loud,
And mountain waves, that lash the shore,
Appal the shrinking crowd.

But who his little bark has launch'd,
And to his oars has sprung?
His cheek by age seems yet unblanch'd,
His brow is fair and young.

His light, and almost childish, form
Seems far too weak to brave
The fearful howling of the storm,
The terror of the wave.

But yet a high and fearless soul
Is glancing in his eye,
Which tells that he will reach the goal,
Or on the waters die.

His boat the billow proudly cleaves,
While bounding from the shore,
And those who on the beach he leaves,
Ne'er hope to see him more.

But mark the sacred freight he bears
From off the troubled main,
Two human hearts—what bliss is theirs !
Restored to life again.

And oh ! what feelings swell the heart
Of that undaunted Boy ;
Could Roman triumphs e'er impart
So sweet a throb of joy ?

Acadia's child—thy humble name
The Muse will long revere,
The wreath you nobly won from Fame
Shall bloom for many a year.

Long as the thoughts which swell'd thy breast,
The flame that lit thy eye,
Shall in our Country's bosom rest,
Thy name shall never die !

THE END.





