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THE PEOPLE'S STANDARD HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

THE DUTCH SURRENDER NEW AMSTERDAM  
SEPT. 8, 1664



THE STANDARD HISTORY  
OF ALL  
NATIONS AND RACES

Containing a Record of all the Peoples of  
the World from the Earliest Historical  
Times, with a Description of their Homes,  
Customs, and Religions; their Temples,  
Monuments, Literature, and Art .. ..

IN  
TEN  
VOLUMES

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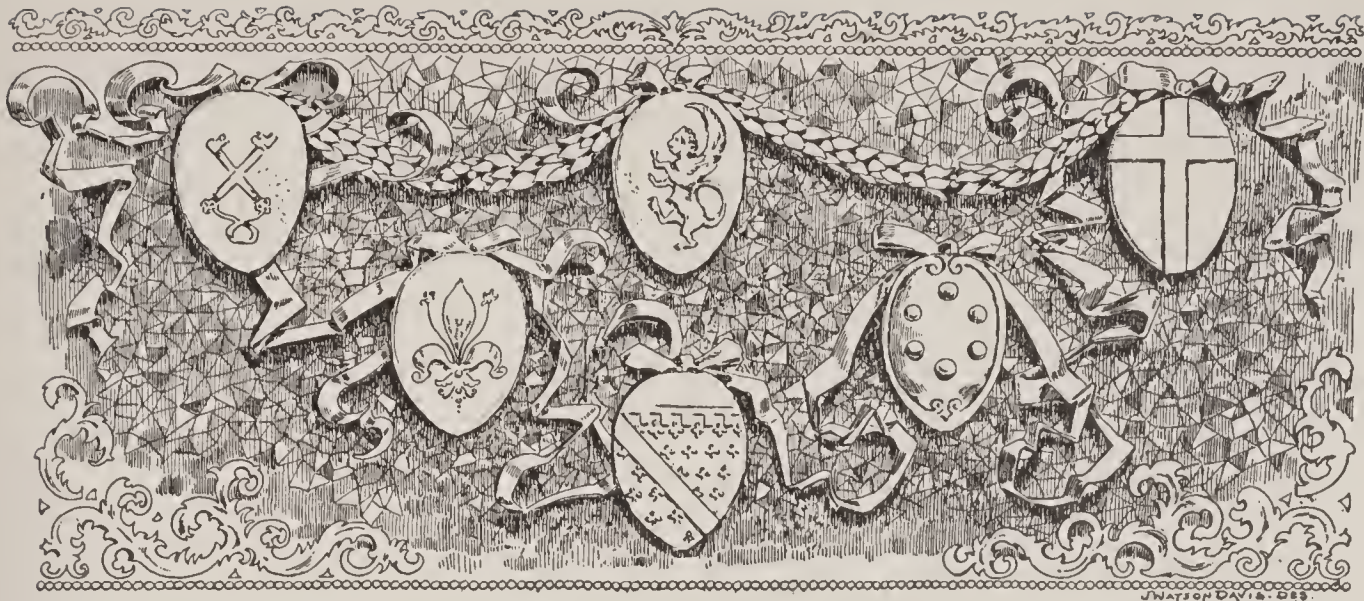
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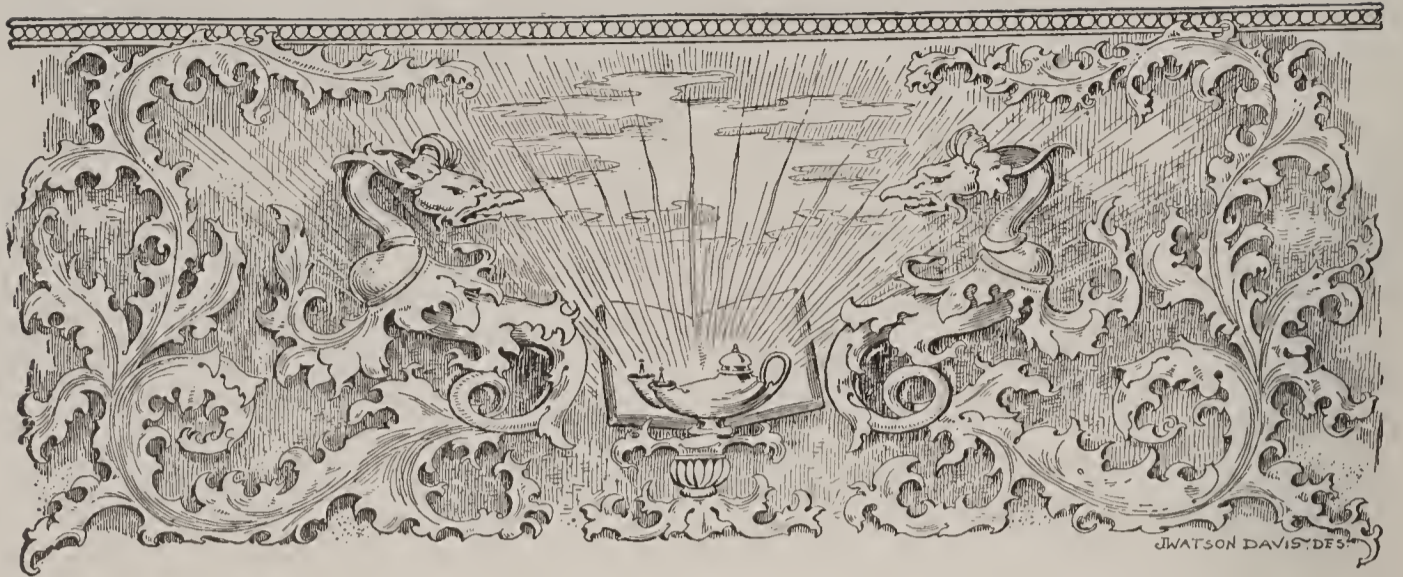
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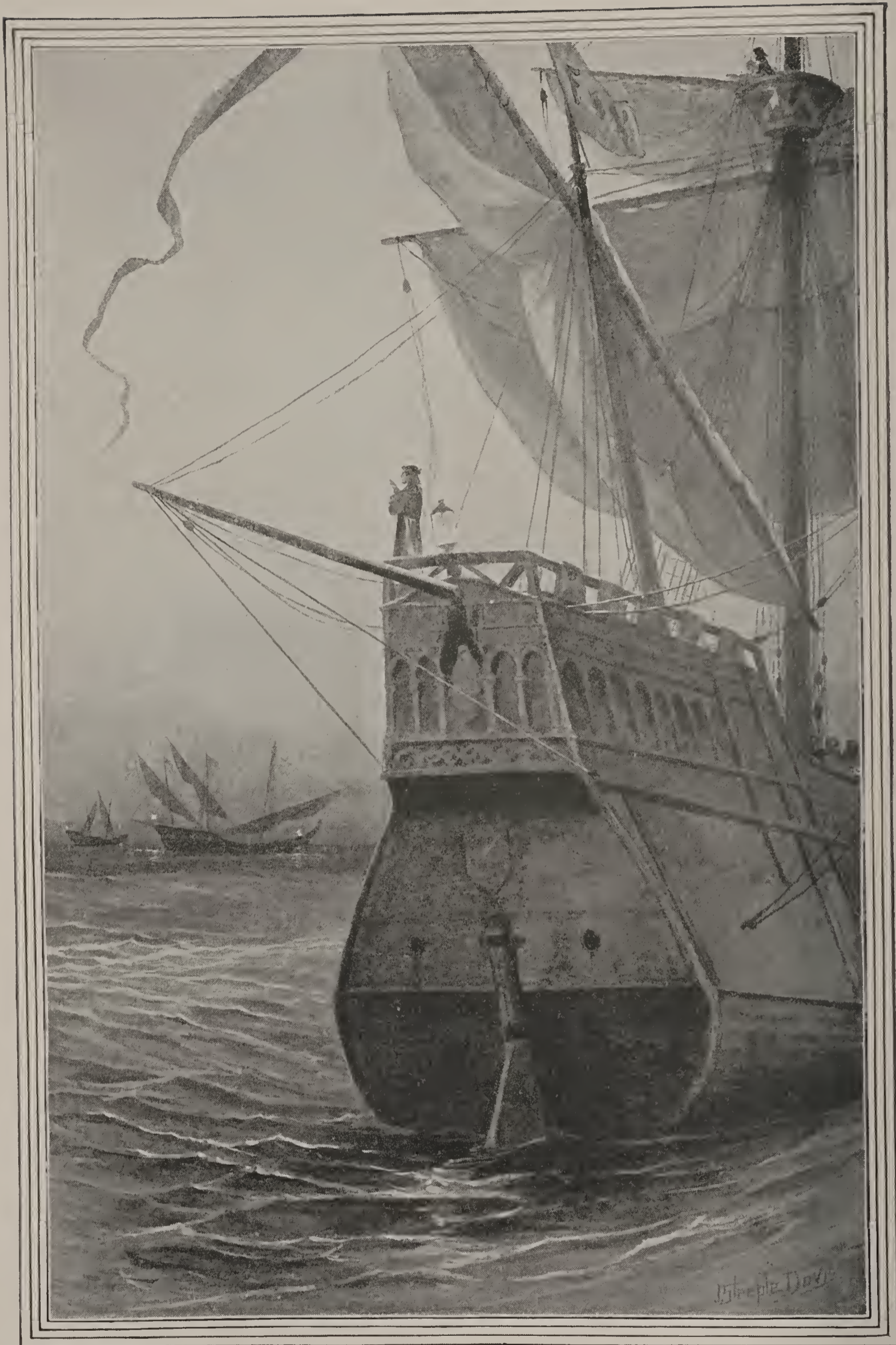
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THE SUPREME MOMENT  
ON THE EVENING OF OCTOBER 11TH, 1492



## INTRODUCTION



THE HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA is the most important section in the annals of the human race. No other paragraph in the vast story of mankind possesses so rich an interest; no other is so full of promise, of prophecy, and of inspiration.

Many great peoples have successively appeared in the historical tableau of the world; but not the Hindu or the Persian; not the Chaldee or the Greek; not the Egyptian or the Hebrew; not the Roman or the Celt; not even the Teuton, with his prodigious activity and strength, has been able, in Asia, in Africa, or in Europe, to create in a century or in ages, a historical product greater or more worthy of admiration than that magnificent result which history has brought as her trophy in the great American republic.

For what was the Western hemisphere before the impact of the white races upon it? It was a vast world in the wild. The three Americas were an unmodified domain of nature, darkened with solitary forests, dappled with great prairies, emphasized with majestic mountains, and traversed by the three mightiest rivers of the globe.

Let us look with a moment's attention, and as from the eagle's eyrie, upon the face of the New World at the period of discovery. Only here and there do we find slight traces by which to detect the presence and the work of human beings. We are able to see the City of Mexico, and by close attention we may discover the armies of the Aztecs in the streets. Farther south, we detect in the old Empire of Uxmal the traces of cities and temples. In the highlands of Peru we note the evidences of human work. High up in the

**A World  
in the  
Wild**

The  
Aborig-  
ines

Andes we discover huge walls of cut stone, and in the basin of Titicaca we see the remains of marvellous structures equal to the stonework of the great races of the East.

As a matter of fact, however, the aborigines were everywhere. Their name and variety were legion. The northern parts of our hemisphere were held by a race rarely, or never, found more than thirty miles from the frozen sea. The Eskimos were then, as they are now, distinctly a people of the shore. To the south lay the vast forest country of the interior inhabited by the copper-colored races, to whom the mistaken Spaniards gave the name of Indians. No part of the present United States was untraversed by the wild and untutored barbarians, who possessed these territories without reducing them to the civilized condition. A history of the United States must include among its introductory parts a fitting account of the *Aboriginal Races*.

The time came when adventurers of Aryan descent first, precipitated themselves on the western shores of the Atlantic. Down to the close of the tenth century men of the white race had, probably, never visited our continents. At that epoch the visitation began. Norse adventurers reached Labrador and New England. They came in the manner of sea-kings. Their venture was heroic; but only a few traces of their presence in America remain to testify of the daring deeds of Herjulfson, Leif the son of Eric, Thorwald, Karlsefne, and the other vikings, who came across the North Atlantic in open ships, wearing their chain-armor and walrus-tusks and eagle-winged helmets, as described in the Icelandic *Sagas*.

Dark-  
ness  
for a  
Time

After the episode of the Norsemen in America the curtain, which had been lifted for a moment, fell and rested for several centuries on the world which they had discovered. Destiny had reserved the great work of actual revelation for certain navigators and dreamers whose skill had been acquired in the Mediterranean waters, and whose courage was a remaining strain of the energy and aggressiveness of the Roman race. In the latter half of the fifteenth century the best representatives of that race dwelt in the maritime cities of Italy, Spain, and Portugal. Out of these remaining rookeries of the Old World's enterprise, the birds of genius and world-flight at length took wing across the great Atlantic. They reached the islands of the Western seas, and then found lodgment on the shores of the new Atlantis.



The discovery of the New World by Columbus was the most dramatic incident in the secular history of mankind. It may be that in the moral vicissitudes of the race something of heroism or sacrifice more grand and ennobling has occurred; but among the distinctly human events nothing so wonderful and inspiring has ever been witnessed as the uplift of the darkness and the revelation of the dawn on that October morning when "Land Ho!" was the cry from the prow of the *Pinta*.

The  
Uplift of  
the  
Dark-  
ness

Before the men of the fifteenth century lay the hitherto-unknown islands in the hitherto-unvisited Western seas. Just beyond was the coast-line of the continent waiting to receive the Aryan visitants, and



THE WORLD IN THE 15TH CENTURY

the institutions and learning which they were to bring with them out of the storehouses of Europe. Among the pearl oysters of Para, the mahogany woods of Central America, the silver mines of Peru, the bright halls of the Montezumas, the flowery coasts of Florida, and the fabulous Indian empires of North America, Hope already saw the realization of all the smothered dreams of the Middle Ages.

An adequate recital of the history of our country must needs dwell on the *Epoch of Discovery*. The narrative must carry the reader through our fathers' devious ways of trial and adventure. He must hear of the loss of ships, the avarice of slave captains, the exploits of folly, and the indifference of stupid kings. He must follow in the wake of the Cabots until the shore-line of North America is traced from Labrador to Hatteras. He must note the success of

The  
Epoch of  
Dis-  
covery

Coloni-  
zation  
and  
Develop-  
ment

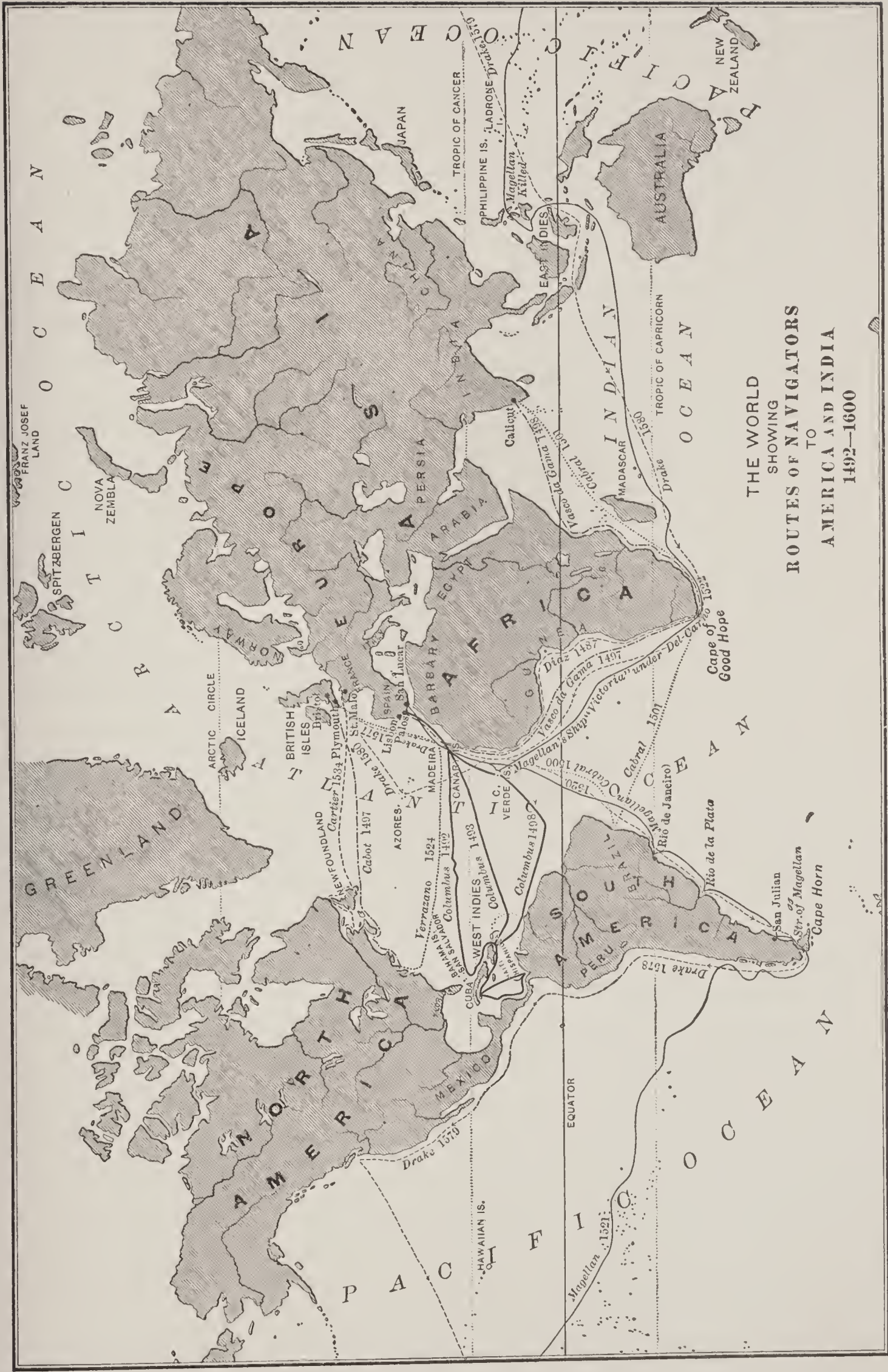
Amerigo Vespucci in having his name bestowed on the Western hemisphere. He must mark the voyages of Cortereal and Verazano and Da Gama, until the mystery of the sea is solved, and the circumnavigation of the globe effected by Magellan.

Beginning with the foundation of English civilization at Jamestown, in the year 1607, and the still more successful planting of colonies in New England shortly afterward, the student of our national annals enters the *Period of Colonization and Development*. Already the Spanish planting in the South was accomplished. Saint Augustine was founded first, and then Santa Fé. Already the power of Spain had been permanently established in Mexico and Central America; but the earlier footing did not prevail against the superior enterprise and energy of England and France. To these fell the better parts of North America. A New France was created first, then a New England, then a New Netherlands, and a New Sweden. Virginia, lagging for a season and suffering from her Indian wars, began to flourish and expand. The Carolinas were colonized. Pennsylvania was taken by the followers of Penn. There were Huguenots, and Salzburgers, and Catholics. There were representatives of almost every race and creed. Wisdom in some places was interwoven with folly. Liberty was encouraged here, and innocence was persecuted there.

The  
Warring  
Nations

Such was the situation on the Eastern borders of our country in the first half of the eighteenth century, that the right of the strongest must be determined by war. Already the colonists had been compelled to make war on the aborigines who hovered on the borders of every settlement. For a long time there was a frontier-line of conflict between the colonists and the native races. The latter were pressed back farther and farther into the interior. Then arose the portent of a more serious trouble among the representatives of the different European races in America. The French were on the north; they held the valley of the St. Lawrence; they sought to possess themselves also of the valley of the Ohio, and of the still greater valley of the Mississippi. The Spaniards were on the south; they held Spanish Florida. They would fain control the lower Mississippi, and the whole coast of the Gulf as far as Mexico. The English colonists held the central Atlantic border from the St. Croix to the Savannah.

Out of this condition arose the *Intercolonial Wars* of the eighteenth



THE WORLD  
SHOWING  
ROUTES OF NAVIGATORS  
TO  
AMERICA AND INDIA  
1492-1600

TRACK-CHART OF 15TH AND 16TH CENTURY EXPLORATION AND DISCOVERY

The  
Inter-  
colonial  
Wars

century. These were most important in determining the future destinies of civilization in the Western hemisphere. The colonists represented, in their spirit and purpose, the home nations of Europe. They could not amalgamate because of race prejudices and animosities. The question of supremacy had to be decided by the sword. The home nations came to the rescue, each of its own. The wars that began in the reign of King William were concluded in the first years of the reign of George III. with the triumph of the English colonies. France was defeated and expelled from the central regions of the continent. Spain was forced to recede on the south, and to content herself with Florida.

Ameri-  
can  
Inde-  
pendence

Before the conclusion of the French and Indian War, serious difficulties had arisen between the local communities in the old Thirteen Colonies and the paramount authority of the British Crown. There was the question of taxation, closely allied with the question of local self-government, and with the right of representation in Parliament. Within two years of the conclusion of the conflict referred to, a crisis was reached in the strained relations of the Massachusetts Bay Colony and the British authorities, which threatened imminent war. This condition was soothed and aggravated by turns for a period of ten years, and then, in the spring of 1775, broke out the actual conflict by which the dependency of the English colonies in America on the mother country was broken and finally annulled. This was accomplished partly by a *Patriotic Revolution* ending in a Declaration of Independence, and partly by armed resistance culminating in a war of seven years' duration and the final victory of the rebellious armies.

Thus far, namely, to the last quarter of the eighteenth century, the annals of our colonial States lead us through a series of vicissitudes, mostly of a hostile, and finally of a revolutionary character. With the establishment of the American Union by the treaty of 1783, and the subsequent adoption of our constitutional frame of republican government, we entered upon a career of *Peaceable Development as a Nation*. Very soon our progress was broken by a *Second War with the Mother Country*. But this also passed without serious results, and a second great stride over a period of thirty years was taken. American civilization assumed a character of its own. Population poured through the passes of the Alleghenies and spread into the great central valleys. States were multiplied. As the result of a

brief and victorious *War with Mexico*, the possession of Texas was made secure.

**One or  
Many?**

Between the conclusion of our conflict with Mexico and the outbreak of the *Civil War*, a period of more than twelve years elapsed, and then came the great ordeal for the determination of the perpetuity of the Union. The issue involved had existed since the foundation of the government. The peculiar organization of a union composed of thirteen parts, destined in the course of a century to become more than three times as many, left the way open for a bitter controversy relative to our Constitution. Were we many, or were we one? In a sense we were one; in another sense we were many. According to our national motto, we were Many in One. There was both unity and multiplicity; but which principle should predominate over the other? Should sovereignty rest in the Union or rest in the States? It could not rest in both. It must rest in one or the other. For a long time the question ebbed and flowed. Sometimes the discussion was wild; sometimes it was angry. At last the issue came to blows, and the blows to blood. The nation was rent asunder.

“ Then armies rose from out the earth,  
And great ships loomed upon the sea,  
And Liberty had second birth  
In blood and fire and victory !”

If the period of our Revolution be designated in American history as the heroic age, then must the period of our Civil War be designated as the age of the epic and the tragedy. Never before on these continents, and rarely or never before in the history of mankind, have such scenes been witnessed. The defiant Confederacy was girt at length with a rim of fire. Around the circuit the Union armies beat with prodigious assaults, sometimes repelled and sometimes breaking through. The waste of life was appalling; the destruction of property was indescribable; there was havoc on earth and sulphurous smoke in the heavens. Gradually the rim of fire narrowed until only a few States were pent within the circle. The pressure of the Union arms became overwhelming; and finally after one volcanic blaze the conflagration was quenched.

**Age of  
the  
Epic  
and the  
Tragedy**

This miraculous and terrible conflict was marked with the *Development of Great Characters*. Men of the highest genius arose as leaders in battle and cabinet. Tall and strong they were; warriors

Leaders  
in Battle  
and  
Cabinet

and statesmen, counsellors and philanthropists, mingled together in the tremendous scene. Not on one side only did the great men of the epoch rise. They of the Confederacy, as well as they of the Union, exemplified every phase of heroism and sacrifice. Many died. Many came forth alive. Lincoln, the greatest of all, died in the hour of triumph.

“ He had been born a destined work to do,  
And lived to do it ; four long-suffering years—  
Ill-fate, ill-feeling, ill-report lived through—  
And then he heard the hisses change to cheers.”

Of those who emerged from the conflict, some rose to the highest civil stations; a few were eclipsed by misdirected ambitions; some at an early day were called from the scenes of earth. The names of Grant, Sherman, Sheridan, Thomas, Farragut, became household words among the nations. The great Lee, honored for a brief season with educational responsibilities, passed away. Gradually the number of the great actors was diminished, until at the close of the century only a few still stood like the solitary oaks of another generation in the smaller forest and underwood of the present.

Great were the *Consequences of the Civil War*. Society in the United States was transformed. There was a unification of the people and a centralization of institutions. A great debt was entailed upon the nation which constituted from that time forth the central fact in a prodigious bonded interest, on which a new financial system was established, and out of which new ideals in industry, manufacture, and commerce were created.

The  
Logic  
of the  
Sword

There is a sense, however, in which the Civil War was the beginning of nationality in our country. The right of States to secede from the Union was destroyed by the unanswerable logic of the sword. The doctrine of Hamilton and Webster was victorious in McLean's house at Appomattox. The doctrine of Hayne and Calhoun was sheathed with the swords of Lee and Longstreet.

As a result of the Civil War the national domain was unified and was speedily divided into prospective States. Star after star was added to the national flag, until all the vast territories of the Republic except New Mexico, Oklahoma, the Indian Territory, Arizona, and Alaska were admitted to Statehood. The Union became immense. The volume of population rolled on like an ever-broadening river. The closing years of the century saw the population existing

Marvel-  
lous  
Growth  
and  
Progress

at the outbreak of the war doubled in number. To this tremendous aggregate of more than seventy millions the nations of the Old World had continued to contribute, until the great cities of the seaboard were converted into a *mélange* of races. The spirit of commerce supervened. The old individual industries were in large measure absorbed by great establishments having labor-saving machinery as their bottom fact and cheapened production as their issue.

Mingled with this strain of progress—with this pæan of battle and ode of physical triumph—is blended the symphony of *Social Evolution*. The nineteenth century must ever be memorable in the annals of mankind for the progress which it has made in the arts and sciences. The scientific development of the new nation has been most marvellous of all. There are men still living whose lives antedate the first successful application of steam to water navigation. There are thousands of men in the world who can remember the dubious construction of the first rude railway. There are hundreds of thousands who can recollect the stupid scepticism of the world when Morse stretched his first telegraphic wire from Washington to Baltimore. There are millions who can remember the night when they first beheld the flash of the electrical light, and saw the darkness dart away like a frightened spectre.

Educa-  
tional  
and  
Humani-  
tarian  
Work

It remained for the States of the American Union to establish free schools for all, and to provide facilities before unknown for the industrial and scientific education of the people. The nations of the Old World have been obliged to transplant and initiate our system of public education. In like manner new ideals have been followed in the care of the unfortunate. It must be allowed that a great and sincere humanity has been shown in the United States for the protection of those who have suffered in their lives and fortunes at the hands of nature. Here for the blind the asylum and the home have been created. Here the dumb have been taught to speak, and here the cripple has found a way. Here the insane have been rescued from the evil spirits that possessed them, and here the unfortunate defenders of the Union have been gathered into comfortable homes, in the midst of cheerful surroundings, to pass the remainder of their lives in peaceful meditation.

Scarcely had the enthusiasm attending the Columbian Exposition of 1893 subsided, when a complication arose, relative to Spain's administration in the West Indies, which led to a war between that coun-

A War  
for  
Human-  
ity

try and the United States. It cannot be doubted that the condition of affairs in Cuba and the other Spanish dependencies near the American coast had been a disgrace to the mother country and to civilization itself. It cannot be doubted that the cry of the Cubans for freedom and independence was a cry that might well be heard and heeded. It cannot be doubted that the destruction of one of our battleships, under circumstances of dire suspicion, might well provoke a hostile and vindictive answer. In any event, the *Spanish-American War* opened, and ran its brief but decisive course. The logical result followed and the time-honored but deplorable dominion of Spain in the lands and islands discovered by Columbus ended forever.

This work has been undertaken with the purpose of presenting a complete record of our history as a nation. That such a work is even approximately perfect—that the reader shall see reflected therein, without shadow or cloud, the incidents of the living drama in just proportion and natural sequence—is more than the writer may hope fully to have attained, though it is not more than he could wish to accomplish. He has striven to comply with the requisites in producing a complete HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES, and at its conclusion, sends it forth, confidently believing in the institutions of his country, and hoping for the betterment not only of his fellow-countrymen, but of all mankind.

Edward J. Ellis.





# THE HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

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## PERIOD I—DISCOVERY AND EXPLORATION

### CHAPTER I

#### *THE EARLIEST DISCOVERERS OF AMERICA*

[*Authorities:* The evidence in support of the visits of Europeans to the New World before Columbus's day is, as will be seen from the text, so meagre and indefinite that no conclusive authorities can be well cited. The reader can be referred only to tradition or conjecture, as embodied in such works as Prof. John Fiske's "The Discovery of America;" Payne's "History of the New World, called America;" and to the initial chapters in the standard histories of Bancroft, Hildreth, Lossing, and Henry. For the supposed proofs of the Norse voyages to the continent, and the temporary sojourn of Scandinavian mariners on the New England coasts, Horsford's "Discovery by Northmen," with its elaborate photographs, may be consulted; and for early maps, as well as for the narrative account of the first explorations in the New World, see Justin Winsor's monumental work, "Narrative and Critical History of America."]



**C**HRISTOPHER COLUMBUS, though he was by no means the first white man to set foot on the shores of the New World, was, nevertheless, the true discoverer of America, and the glory of the grand achievement, through all the ages to come, will be his alone. More than four hundred years before he was born, the daring Norsemen, leaving their homes in Norway and Denmark, sailed out on the great Atlantic and made voyages that extended hundreds of miles and kept them beyond sight of land for days and weeks at a time. Some of these venturesome navigators made their way to Iceland, to Greenland, and to the American continent.

This was at the beginning of the eleventh century. Though

The first  
Visitors  
to the  
New  
World,  
A.D. 1000

PERIOD I  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
 1000  
 TO  
 1590

some have expressed doubts as to the discoveries of the Norsemen,\* the proofs of such discoveries have been clearly established. In the first place, the ancient records of Iceland contain no less than seventeen distinct references to the visits of the Norsemen to this country. These statements relate facts concerning the New World which could never have been obtained except by an actual visit to our shores. Thus they tell about the vine, self-sown corn, the maple, different kinds of game, eider ducks, salmon, the cod, and other fish. What can be more convincing than what is said about the wild vine, of which New England has several native species that do not exist in the less bountiful country of the Norsemen?

Again, Adam of Bremen,† writing in the eleventh century, refers to Iceland as a matter of certain knowledge from Danish sources, and tells about the voyage of the Frieslanders (Holland mariners) to that country in the preceding century. The knowledge of that island was vague, and the guesses at what lay beyond were misty and wide of the truth; but it cannot be denied that much even of this scant information was, in the main, based upon fact.

A shadowy knowledge of the New World reached beyond the Norse nations. When their Atlantic voyages ceased, a general belief existed throughout Western Europe, that a large island lay in the North Atlantic to the west of Ireland. This belief must have rested on the traditions of the Norse discovery of America. In what is known as the Pizigani (*pits'ĭ-gan'ce*) maps of 1367, this great island is called Brazil, and under that name it was searched for by the sailors of Bristol a good many years before the Cabots saw it.

The  
 Pizigani  
 Maps,  
 A.D. 1367

\* Norsemen, or Northmen—inhabitants of Northern Europe (Scandinavia), inured to the sea, and actuated by a valorous spirit of war and maritime adventure. Living in the countries of Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and Northern Germany, the Norse were known at different times by different names. Historically, they are known as Angles or English, when in the fifth century they made their descent on Britain, and as Danes in the ninth century when they once more invaded and partly conquered that country. In the following century, after they had won what is now Normandy from France, and had become a mixed Norman-French race, they again pounced upon England, and under William I. conquered it, giving to the people of the motherland the Norman strain in their veins.

† Adam Bremensis, born in Upper Saxony, an early ecclesiastical historian, and author of a work written in Latin about the year 1075, dealing with the “Propagation of the Christian Faith in North Germany and Scandinavia.” An appendix to the work, which is now perhaps best known in a Danish translation, supplies considerable information on the geography of the countries of northern Europe, and of Iceland and Greenland. It also contains a reference to America, or to Vinland, as it was then known, and speaks of it as being discovered by the Norsemen.



FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY J. STEEPLE DAVIS

LANDING OF THE NORSEMEN

PERIOD I  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
 1000  
 TO  
 1590

Nyja  
 Land, or  
 New  
 Land

A more common name, however, for the island was the one given to the whole country beyond Greenland. This, in the Norse language, was Nyja (*nee'ja*) Land, or New Land, and this term was used from the thirteenth century onward. The French chroniclers say that the lands discovered by the Norsemen continued to be called *Terra Neuve* by the Norman and Breton sailors. A strong proof that the Cabots, father and son,\* knew of all this, lies in the fact that when these Bristol merchants sailed westward, they not only took the route of the Norsemen, by way of Iceland and Greenland, but used the very name the Icelanders applied to America.

Settle-  
 ment  
 of Nor-  
 mandy by  
 Norse-  
 men, A.D.  
 912

From what has been said, it is clear that the Norsemen, a thousand years ago, were among the bravest and the most adventurous sailors in the world. Strong, alert, and skilful, many of them became pirates, who spread terror along the coasts of Europe. Not content with piracy, these marauders of the sea, known as Vikings,† headed their swift vessels, with their high decks, long, sweeping oars, square sails, and oddly-carved prows, out upon the rough Atlantic, leaving their country far beyond sight, while the other timid nations stayed close to their own homes. They sailed up the navigable rivers of the neighboring countries, pillaged and burnt the towns, and took hundreds of prisoners. When a numskull king, named Charles the Simple, ruled France, the Norsemen ascended the river Seine (*sāne*) and besieged Paris. The frightened king ceded to them a large district in the north of France, which was afterwards known as Normandy. This was in the year 912 A.D., about the time that the Norsemen began their dangerous voyages over the Atlantic.

Eric the  
 Red

One of the most famous of these navigators was Eric the Red (so called because his hair and face were of a fiery color), who settled in Iceland, which had been visited before by a number of his country-

\* Cabots, The (John and Sebastian), Bristol merchants in the time of Henry VII. of England, who, in the year 1497, discovered Newfoundland and Labrador. The son, Sebastian, became a notable navigator, and founder of the Spanish colonies on the coast of Brazil. In the service of England he made an expedition to Hudson's Bay in search of a northwest passage to the Indies, the will-o'-the-wisp of the period, and also furthered commercial enterprise in the Baltic.

† Vikings—Norse pirates, who in the eighth, ninth, and tenth centuries were the terror of the coasts of Europe. The name is derived from the *vicks* or inlets of Scandinavia, which harbored the rowing-galleys of these piratical crews, and from which they set out on missions of conquest and plunder. The term *viking* is not to be confounded, as it frequently is, with *sea king*, a person either of royal race or given the title as the valiant commander of a well-equipped galley.

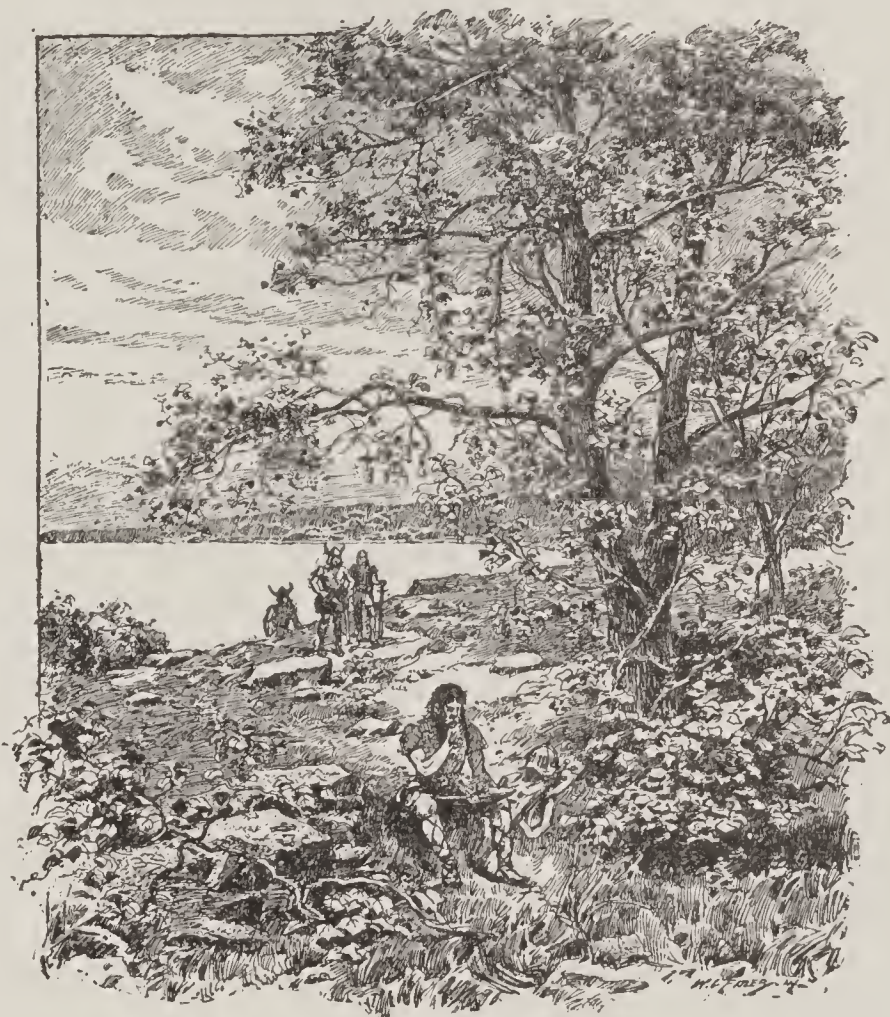
men. On a voyage to the westward, Eric discovered Greenland, and in consequence of a quarrel with some of his people, he made his home in the country. It was Eric who gave it its name, and when he returned to Iceland, he told such glowing stories of the snowy solitude that he persuaded a number of his friends to go back with him.

PERIOD I  
DISCOVERY  
AND EX-  
PLORATION  
1000  
TO  
1590

The oldest son of Eric was Leif the Lucky, who was as ambitious as his father to become a discoverer. He bought a small ship, provided it with thirty lusty men, and sailed from Greenland in the year 1000, in search of new lands. These stalwart sailors ploughed their way through the icy waters until they descried land containing hills, streams, and forests. After skirting the shore for a while, they landed and looked around them. While there can be no certainty of the spot, it is believed to have been on the coast of Newfoundland.

Leif the  
Lucky

What they saw was not pleasing, and it is thought that they then sailed southward to Nova Scotia. Favoring winds carried them farther still to the south, and there is little doubt that they were the first white men to look upon New England. It was summer time, and the soft climate, gentle breezes,



The First  
(Norse)  
Landing  
in New  
England

IN VINLAND

and rich vegetation elicited many expressions of delight. When they stepped from their little ship and set out to hunt for wild animals, they found plenty of deer, and an abundance of berries, pleasant to the taste.

Truly, such a favored land must be inhabited, they thought, but they did not see a living person. The ashes of several camp-fires, and the remains of animals that had been eaten, left no doubt on

PERIOD I  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
 1000  
 TO  
 1590  
 —

Thor-  
 wald

Probable  
 First  
 Blood-  
 shed  
 between  
 the  
 White  
 Man and  
 the Red

their minds that there were natives in this strange land. The Norsemen built huts and stayed through the winter in New England.

One day in autumn, a servant belonging to the party was missing. When they searched for him, they found him delightedly eating luscious grapes, of which there was an abundance around him. Indeed, they were so plentiful, that Leif named the country Vineland, or Vinland. When he sailed to join his father and friends in Greenland, he took with him bushels of the delicious fruit, and specimens of the different kinds of timber that grew in New England.

Eric had a younger son, Thorwald, as eager as Leif to be a discoverer. He bought the stout little ship of his brother, who helped him to make ready for the voyage, and told him all he had learned about the new country. With thirty companions, Thorwald had no trouble in making his way to New England. The winter of 1003-4 was spent in the same huts that had been built by Leif and his men. Time passed rapidly, for the winter, which seems to have been mild, gave them plenty of opportunity to hunt and fish.

When spring came, Thorwald and a part of his company spent many weeks in exploring the neighboring islands and coasts. It is believed that they visited Rhode Island, Connecticut, and the bay of New York, where, however, they did not see so much as the smoke of a wigwam. The second winter was spent in the huts occupied previously, and the whole company resumed their explorations in the following spring and summer. While thus engaged, their ship was driven ashore by a storm near Cape Cod.

There, for the first time, they came upon a number of natives. There were eight or ten of them, resting under a couple of rude tents. The simple-hearted people had no thought of danger, and surely there should have been none; but the Norsemen crept stealthily forward and assailed them with the utmost fury. Only one managed to elude the cruel swords and dart away unharmed into the woods. He made haste to tell his friends of the bloodthirsty beings who had invaded their country. The natives gathered in large numbers, and attacked the Norsemen with great bravery. The sailors were forced to retreat to their boats, fighting as they went. An arrow pierced the breast of Thorwald, and wounded him mortally, but no one else was hurt. The body of the leader was buried, and his companions returned to Vineland. The following spring the whole colony, much discouraged, sailed back to Greenland.

Eric's third son, Thorstein, with twenty-five companions and his newly wedded wife, sailed for Vineland. A storm drove them ashore in Baffin Bay while they were still within Arctic waters. There the company suffered greatly, and most of them, including Thorstein, died. The survivors returned to Greenland, and later on the widow of Thorstein married a wealthy citizen of Norway, who settled in Greenland. They and other couples visited Vineland, and planted a colony near the spot first visited by Leif. The founders of the

PERIOD I  
DISCOVERY  
AND EX-  
PLORATION  
1000  
TO  
1590

Thor-  
stein



FIRST MEETING BETWEEN THE NORSEMEN AND THE NATIVES

colony finally returned to Iceland, while the others were joined by new emigrants, among whom was Freydisa, the daughter of Eric.

Freydisa

This woman was artful and self-willed, with a temper as fierce as that of a wild animal. She caused quarrels and wranglings which ended in the death of thirty persons, several of whom were killed with her own hand. Finally, the colony was so torn by discord that all returned to Greenland. Here ends the history of Norse discovery in the New World. All the settlements they planted van-

PERIOD I  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
 1000  
 TO  
 1590

Legends  
 of other  
 Visitors  
 to the  
 New  
 World

ished, leaving scarcely a trace behind; though it is surmised that the massive stone tower at Newport, R. I., supported on its seven columns, was built by the Norsemen. If this be a fact, of which we cannot be sure, it is one of the most interesting relics in the country.

While it has been proved that the Norsemen visited the New World, there are legends of other visits which may or may not be true. In some of the Mexican histories, the claim is made that a number of Buddhist monks crossed the ocean from China, and settled in Mexico as early as the fifth century.\* One of these monks is said to have returned from Mexico, and published an account of the strange land where he had spent many years. Another legend makes a Welsh prince discover America at the close of the twelfth century. Future researches may show that these and other claims have a basis of truth; but, as yet, the traditions are too vague to be accepted.

The Norsemen vanished from the New World as utterly as if they had never set foot in it, and the vast continent lay wrapped in solemn loneliness and desolation, while the rolling years stretched into centuries. Great changes took place in the Old World, where, amid wars and rumors of wars, thrones were overturned, conquests made, and, in the general upheaval, those nations that had been the stronger went down, and other kingdoms were reared upon their ruins. Portugal, Spain, France, Holland, and England fought their way to the front, and, though still full of vigor, the Norsemen gradually lost the power that had enabled them to dominate the nations around them. The invention, first, of gunpowder,† and then of printing,‡ wrought wonderful revolutions, and it was impossible that events should continue to unfold themselves without further inquiry and exploration in regard to that vast portion of the world which was still practically unknown to Europe.

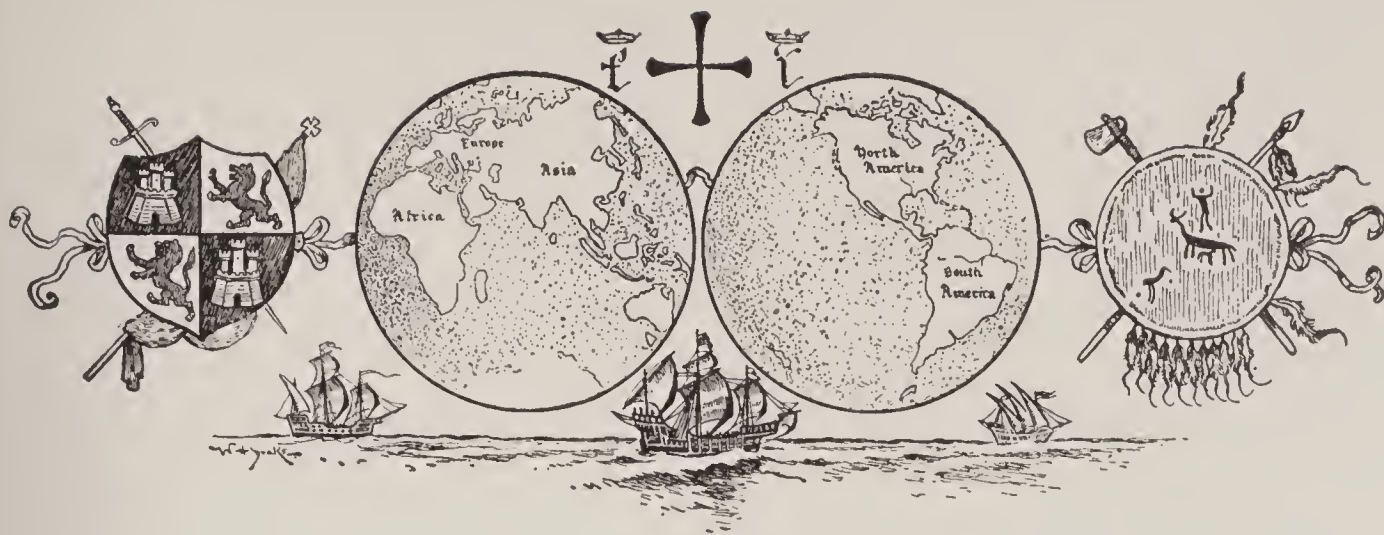
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\* There would seem little reason to call in question this claim, so far, at least, as relates to the Asiatic origin of the native races on this Continent. In Peru, and in Mexico at the time of the Spanish Conquest, under Cortes, in 1519-21, the Spaniards found organized nations, such as the Aztecs, with social systems of an Asiatic type. How these peoples originally came to the Continent is still a problem; though it is surmised that they crossed the Pacific by way of Behring Straits, from the ancient hives of the race in the Far East.

† First used in implements of war early in the fourteenth century.

‡ Printing from movable metal type practically dates from the middle of the fifteenth century. A German, named Gutenberg, is credited with being the inventor.





## CHAPTER II

### *THE ABORIGINES\* OF AMERICA*

[*Authorities* : Since the period of European discovery and settlement in the New World, grim are the annals that relate the dealings of the white man with the red. It has been the hard fate of these dusky children of the woods and plains to bear the brunt of contact with the rival European colonists, or with the commercial Nimrods of the period of the fur trade. Notwithstanding the savagery they displayed in this contact, for which in honesty it must be said they are not wholly to blame, the Indian in his tribal state is an interesting and often picturesque figure in the economical and social life of the continent. Important ethnological studies have been made of him by writers in the American Ethnological Society Transactions, and in the Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society, as well as in the works of Gallatin, Brinton, Hale, Schoolcraft, and Catlin. An interesting account of the red man will also be found in Vol. I. of Winsor's "Narrative and Critical History of America," and in Bancroft's "Native Races of the Pacific States." For an account of the early mound-builders and cave-dwellers see Short's "North Americans of Antiquity," and Baldwin's "Ancient America." For popular narratives see also Parkman's "Jesuits in North America," Ellis's "The Red Man and the White Man in North America," and Prescott's entertaining and instructive works, "The Conquest of Mexico" and "The Conquest of Peru."]



HAVING learned the principal facts about the first white men who set foot in the New World, our interest naturally turns to those whom the Norsemen found here at the time of their visit. Since the discovery of Columbus, these people have borne the name of Indians. Where did they come from? Nobody accurately knows. There have been any number of attempted explanations, many of them supported by ingenious arguments; but the one now most generally believed is that, at some remote period in the past, their ancestors made their way across the narrow Behring Strait from Asia and, migrating southward, gradually overspread the continents of both North and South America.

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\* The first or primitive inhabitants of a country.

PERIOD I  
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Indian  
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Leaving out the Eskimos, a general resemblance is noted among the various Indian tribes, which points to the probability of a common origin. The color of the skin, the long coarse black hair, the dark eyes, the facial contour, the shape of the head, and the mental and physical characteristics (although showing in some cases considerable variation) have a similarity which no observer can fail to note.

The Indians of the two continents are known to make use of more



THE ESKIMOS

than two thousand dialects and four hundred languages, but the members of each tribe are readily recognized. These tribes, some of which number only a few hundreds, while others number thousands, are so numerous that it is difficult to classify them. Different systems have been employed by ethnologists,\* but perhaps the best of these divides the Indians now occupying our country as follows:

The Panis-Arapahoe family, consisting of (1), the Panis or Pawn-

\* Those interested in the science which treats of the physical features, language, manners, religion, and other characteristics of the various races that compose the human family.

ees; (2), the Arapahoes; (3), the Jetans, who were called Comanches by the Spanish.

The Columbian family, including (1), the Tushapaws; (2), the Multnomah; (3), the Chahala; (4), the Snake or Flatheads; (5), the Shoshones; (6), the Chopunish; (7), the Sokulks; (8), the Esheluts; (9), the Enishurs; (10), the Chilluckittequaws.

The Sioux-Osage family, including (1), the Sioux (*soo*) or Dakotas, a numerous and powerful family, consisting of the Dakotas proper and the Assiniboines, the latter living in alliance with the Chippewas; (2), the Omawhas or Mahas, consisting of several tribes; (3), the Mandans; (4), the Mawsash, or Osages, divided into three tribes.

The Mobile-Natchez, or Floridian family, comprising six independent branches, each subdivided into several tribes: (1), the Natchez, now almost extinct, whose members are scattered among the Creeks and Choctaws; (2), the Muskohges or Creeks, divided into the Upper and Lower Creeks (the latter are known as Seminoles), the family being the most numerous of the aboriginal tribes; (3), the Chickasaws; (4), the Choctaws; (5), the Cherokees.

The Algonquin, Huron (Wyandot), and Iroquois family, the two former having their homes in what is now the Dominion of Can-

ada, and the latter having their hunting-grounds and their abode chiefly along the valley of the Mohawk, in New York State.

The Lenape family, including (1), the Shawanoes; (2), the Kickapooos; (3) the Sacs, Sawhees, and Ottogamies, known also as the Foxes; (4), the Miamis; (5), the Illinois; (6), The Pottawatomies;

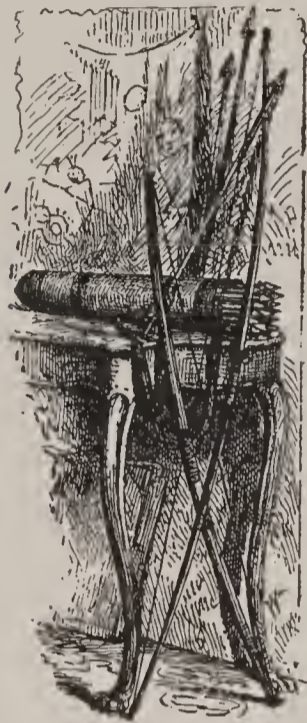
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AN INDIAN WARRIOR

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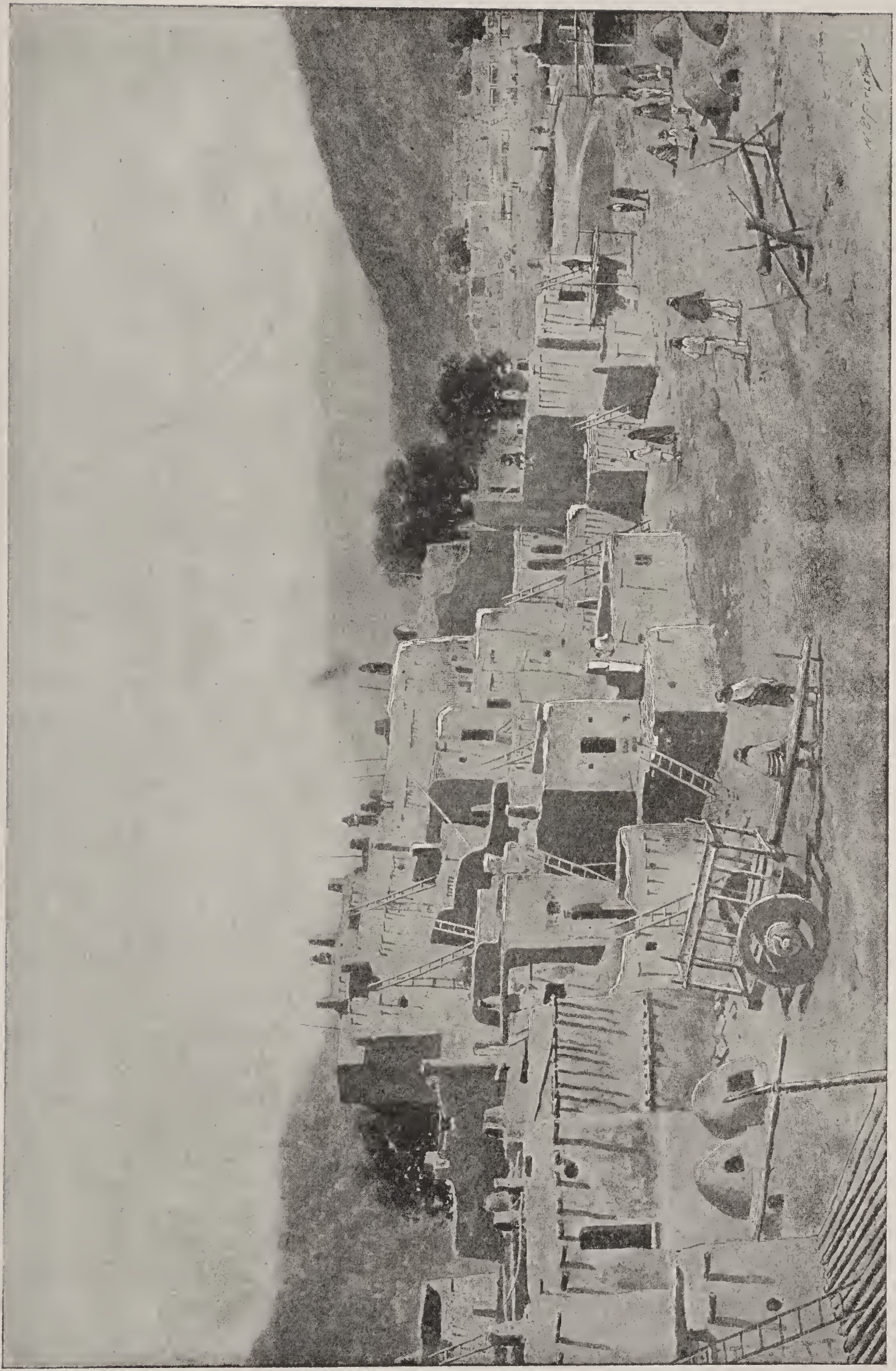
INDIAN BOWS AND  
ARROWS

(7), the Winnebagoes; (8), the Delaware or Lenni-Lenape; (9), the Mohicans; (10), the Abenakis; (11), the Micmacs; (12,) the Algonquins; (13), the Chippewas; (14), the Knistenaux; (15), the Nena-wehk; (16), the Abbitibes; (17), the Chippewyans; (18), the Car-rurs. The Apaches, the fiercest and most terrible of warriors, are members of the Mexican family.

One of the most common of errors is the belief that the aborigines are dying out, and that the day will come when, like the buffalo, they will vanish from our continent. Such is not likely to be the fact. There is little doubt that there are more Indians to-day in the United States than ever before, the number (excluding those of Canada and Alaska) being about a quarter of a million. While tribes have disappeared, in some instances without leaving a survivor behind, others have increased in number; so that, as has been said, the total exceeds that of the fifteenth century, and probably surpasses the number that were in America when one of the red men buried an arrow in the breast of the cruel Thorwald, nearly a thousand years ago.

The Indians were hunters and fishermen. The horse, cow, sheep, and swine were never seen by them until brought to this country by the white man. They raised maize and a few simple vegetables from the rich ground, which needed only a scratch to vivify or make productive the seed dropped into it. The women did the work, while their husbands smoked their pipes, lolled on buffalo skins in the rude wigwam, hunted in the woods, fished in the streams, or sought, with internecine fury, the scalps of other warriors.

Knowing nothing originally of firearms, their weapons were bows, arrows, spears, tomahawks, knives, and clubs. Stone was used for tomahawks, bone for knives, and the sinews of deer for strings for their bows. The Indian had little muscular development, but possessed great endurance, and could stalk through the woods and tramp across the prairie for days and weeks without weariness. General Crook has seen Apache scouts trot fifteen hundred feet up the side of a mountain, without showing any increase of respiration or sign of fatigue. The Indians trained their bodies from infancy to repress all expression of pain, even when suffering the tortures of death.



FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY W. C. FITLER

A PUEBLO VILLAGE

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They underwent hunger, thirst, and fatigue without a murmur. While they showed great respect for old age among themselves, they were merciless in war, and inflicted frightful cruelties upon their prisoners.

Taught to follow the shadowy trail through the labyrinths of the wilderness, to outwit their enemies in all manner of subtlety, they



AMERICAN INDIANS

**Indian Skill in Woodcraft**

attained a perfection of woodcraft that was almost marvellous. The exploits of some of the red men in this respect seem incredible. When the mongrel Seminoles, with but a handful of warriors, were fighting our Government, they hid their women and children amongst the everglades of Florida, so that the trained white scouts sent to

hunt for them failed to find the slightest trace of them during a search lasting for weeks and even months.

The Indian was moody, of melancholy temperament, often treacherous, and of an implacable, unforgiving disposition. His mind was poetical at times, and some of the chiefs, like Tecumseh, displayed the highest form of natural eloquence.

The Indian believed in a good and evil Spirit, and his faith was firm that in the happy hunting-grounds in the after-life he would roam again, and spend the years in hunting the game that would be always abundant. Accordingly, when he died, his weapons were buried with him, and, when he owned a faithful dog, he was placed beside his master, that they might bear one another company in the land of spirits. The dead were generally buried in a sitting posture, facing the east, though in other instances the remains were placed on platforms, elevated beyond the reach of prowling beasts of prey. The Indians have many interesting customs and ceremonies, which can be seen to-day by those who visit them; though, among the still pagan tribes, some of their practices are revolting.

But earlier in point of time to the aborigines, as we know them, was another most interesting people—the mound-builders. Who were they and whence came they?

No one can tell much about them, although they have left thousands of mounds, sometimes called ossuaries or bone-pits, of the most curious formation, and with many strange relics within them. The cliff-dwellers in Mexico and Peru built large cities, with towering temples and houses of stone, laid paved roads, reduced their language to permanent form, and carved beautiful designs in the solid rock. When the southwestern part of the United States was conquered, some sixty pueblos, or Indian villages, of untooled stone, were discovered; while within the last few years others have come to light. The ruins of more than half of them still remain.

At first, the belief obtained that the mound-builders were a distinct race from the Indians; but it is now generally supposed that they were simply the ancestors of those people. At the time of the discovery of America, mound-building was carried on by several tribes, and many of the mounds are of comparatively recent origin. They are found in various parts of the continent and from the Lakes to the Gulf; through the Mississippi Valley is an almost endless succession of earthworks, crowned with forest trees, that must have

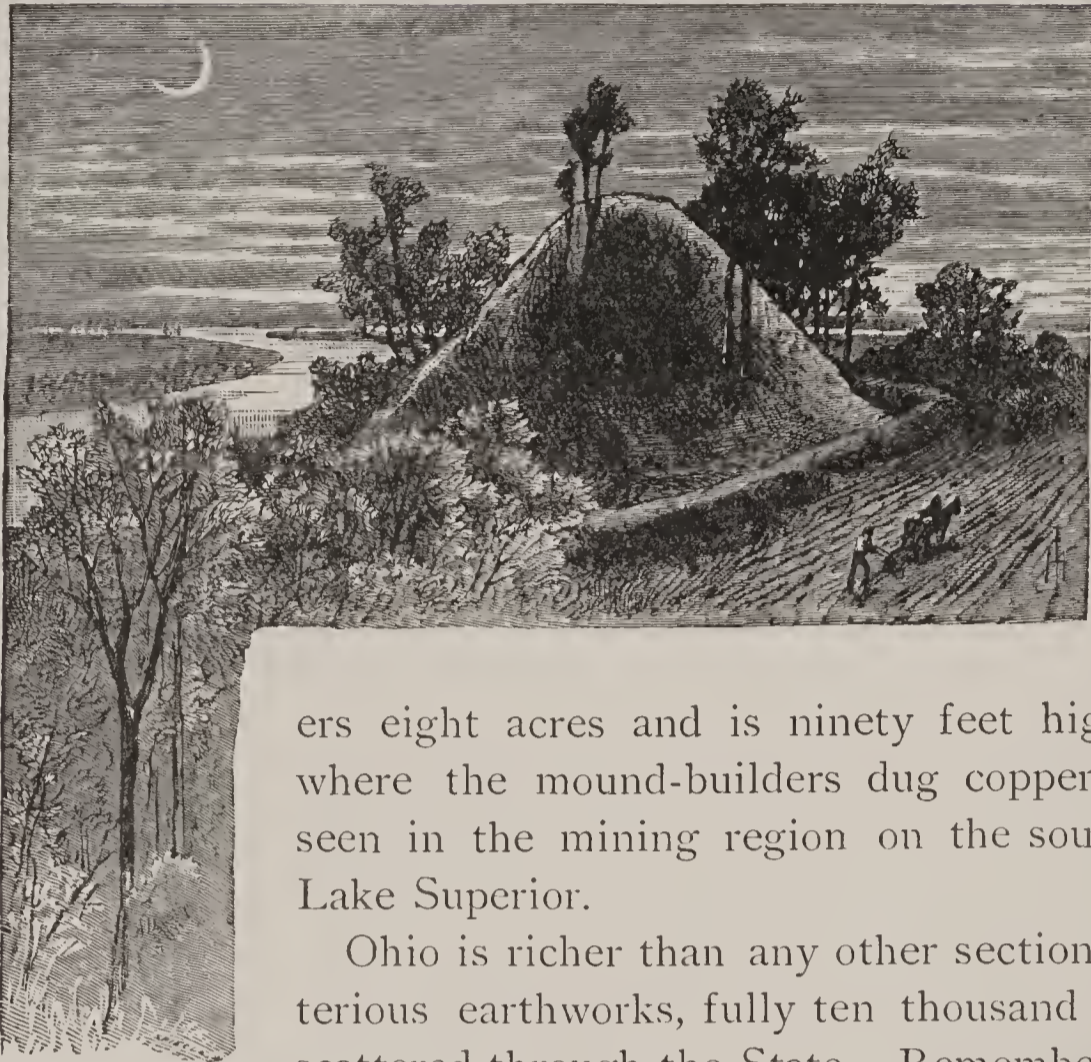
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**Religious  
Beliefs**

**The Cliff-  
dwellers**

**The  
Mound-  
builders**

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ANCIENT BURIAL-  
 MOUND

**Ohio  
 Earth-  
 mounds**

been accumulating for centuries. A mound, probably constructed for religious ceremonies, or as a monument, opposite St. Louis, covers eight acres and is ninety feet high. The pits where the mound-builders dug copper may still be seen in the mining region on the southern shore of Lake Superior.

Ohio is richer than any other section in these mysterious earthworks, fully ten thousand of them being scattered through the State. Remembering that their builders had no beasts of burden or draught, no metal tools that could be used in their construction, that all the material must have been carried in baskets, some idea of the enormous number of men employed and the labor involved may be formed. Mr. M. C. Read, of Hudson, Ohio, who has spent years in the investigation of these curious hillocks and their contents, says: "On some of the highest hills of Richmond and Knox counties are lookout or signal mounds, similar to those which may be traced from these places southward to the Ohio River. In some of these places small mounds have been built, with much labor, of stones brought from the valleys below, and nearly all show the results of surface fires. Many of these, and perhaps all of them, may be the work of modern Indians; as it is well known that they were in the habit of telegraphing to scattered members of their tribes, or allies, by the smoke of fires kindled at such places."

It is quite likely that at no distant day the mystery of the mound-builders will be fully explained. Nor is it at all unlikely that some boy or girl who reads these pages may be the one that will perform this great service for mankind. On this interesting topic, Mr. O. C. Marsh, F.G.S., in a paper read before the Connecticut Academy



of Arts and Sciences, in 1866, thus describes the result of excavations in one of these Ohio earth-mounds.

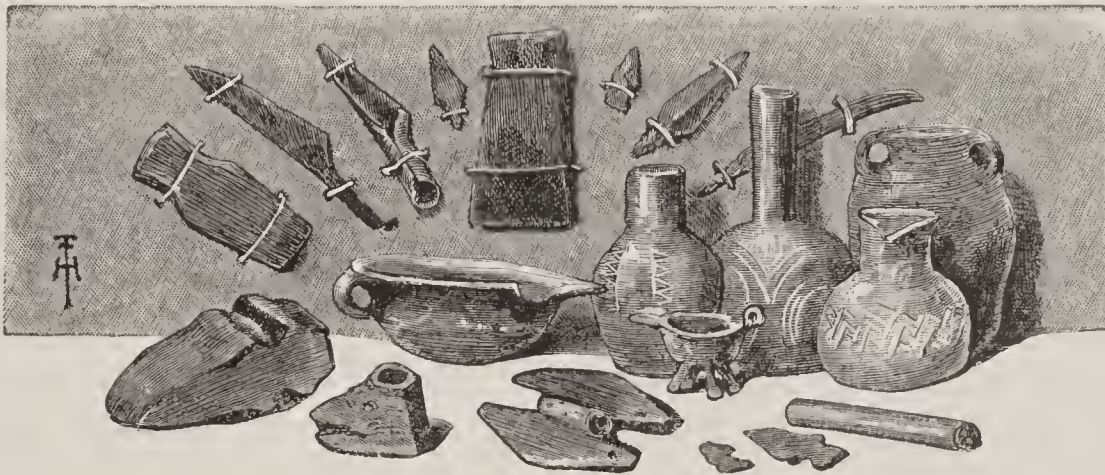
“The mound was conical in form, about ten feet in height, and eighty in diameter at the base, these being about the average dimensions of the burial mounds in that vicinity. It was situated on the summit of a ridge, in the midst of a stately forest. . . . The mound stood quite alone, nearly half a mile from its nearest neighbor, and about three miles from the large earthworks already mentioned. . . . An excavation, about eight feet in diameter, was first made from the apex of the mound, and, after the surface soil was removed, the earth was found to be remarkably compact, probably owing to its having been firmly trodden down when deposited. At five and a half feet below the surface, where the earth became less difficult to remove, a broken stone pipe was found which had evidently been long in use. It was made of a very soft limestone, containing fragments of small fossil shells, apparently of a cretaceous species.

“About seven feet from the top of the mound a thin white layer was observed, which extended over a horizontal surface of several square yards. Near the centre of this space, and directly under the apex of the mound, a string of more than one hundred beads of native copper was found, and with it a few small bones of a child about three years of age. The beads were strung on a twisted cord of coarse

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RELICS OF THE MOUND-BUILDERS

vegetable fibre, apparently the inner bark of a tree, and this had been preserved by the salts of the copper, the antiseptic properties of which are well known. The beads were about one-fourth of an inch long and one-third in diameter, and no little skill had been displayed in their construction. They were evidently made without the aid of fire, by hammering the metal in its original state; but the joints

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were so neatly fitted that in most cases it was difficult to detect them. On the same cord, and arranged at regular intervals, were five shell beads of the same diameter, but about twice as long as those of copper. All had apparently been well polished, and the necklace when worn must have formed a tasteful and striking ornament.

“About a foot below the remains just described, and a little east of the centre of the mound, were two adult human skeletons, lying one above the other, and remarkably well preserved. The interment had evidently been performed with great care. The heads were towards the east, slightly higher than the feet, and the arms were carefully composed at the sides. Directly above these skeletons was a layer of reddish earth, apparently a mixture of ashes and burned clay, which covered a surface of about a square yard. Near the middle of this space was a small pile of charred human bones, the remains of a skeleton, which had been burned immediately over those just described. The fire had evidently been continued for some time, and then allowed to go out; when the fragments of bone and cinders that remained were scraped together, and covered with earth. . . .

Weapons  
 and other  
 Imple-  
 ments  
 found

“Quite a number of implements, of various kinds, were found with the human remains in this grave. Near its eastern end, where the detached bones had been buried, were nine lance- and arrow-heads, nearly all of the same form, and somewhat rudely made of flint and chert. . . . These weapons are of peculiar interest, as it appears they are the first that have been discovered in a sepulchral mound, although many such have been carefully examined. They show that the custom—so common among the Indians of this country—of burying with the dead their implements of war or the chase, obtained occasionally, at least, among the mound-builders. . . .

“One of the most remarkable features in the mound was the large number of skeletons it contained. With one or two exceptions, none of the burial mounds hitherto examined has contained more than a single skeleton which unquestionably belonged to the mound-builders, while in this instance parts of at least seventeen were exhumed. Another point of special interest in this mound is the evidence it affords that the regular method of burial among the mound-builders was sometimes omitted, and the remains interred in a hurried and careless manner. It is not unlikely that, in this instance, some unusual cause, such as pestilence, or war, may have made a hasty interment necessary. The various implements and remains of animals, found



FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY JULES TURCAS  
HIAWATHA, FOUNDER OF THE IROQUOIS LEAGUE

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Buried  
 Weapons

with these skeletons also deserve notice, as they far exceed in number and variety any hitherto discovered in a single mound. They prove, moreover, that if in this instance the rites of regular burial were denied the deposited, their supposed future wants were amply provided for. The contents of one part of the cist (which is itself a very unusual accompaniment of a mound) appear to indicate that the remains of those who died at a distance from home were collected for burial, sometimes long after death. The interesting discovery of weapons, found with these detached bones, would seem to imply that in this case the remains and weapons of a hunter or warrior of distinction, recovered after long exposure, had been buried together."

The Iro-  
 quois  
 League

Returning to the American Indians, as they are now known to us, it may be said that the most interesting group on the American continent to-day, as they were when the country was discovered, are the Iroquois or "Six Nations." No tribal league similar to theirs ever existed, and it has been claimed that had the discovery of America been postponed for a hundred years, the "Romans of the New World" would have become masters of the country between the two great oceans, and north of Mexico. Originally five nations or tribes, they added the Tuscaroras of the South to their league, early in the eighteenth century, and continued to expand and grow for a century after the first settlement by white men. They steadily gained control of the immense territories between the hills and valleys of New England and the Mississippi River, and from the Carolinas to a point beyond the northern shores of Lake Erie and Lake Ontario. One of the most striking facts connected with the increase of power on the part of the Iroquois was the smallness of their numbers compared with the enormous extent of territory which they overran and conquered. At no time could they muster a fighting force of more than 2,500 warriors. In 1660, when a careful computation was approximately made of them by European observers, the Iroquois numbered about 11,000 souls. The census of 1890 shows that they have increased to 15,870. This count includes those living in the West, in the Dominion of Canada, and in the State of New York.

When the white men arrived on our shores, the Iroquois confederacy consisted of the Mohawk, Oneida, Onondaga, Cayuga, and Seneca nations, to which, as already stated, the Tuscaroras were afterwards added. They conquered the Algonquin tribes, which, in the valley of the St. Lawrence, in New England, and in the middle and western re-

gions had up to that time inclosed the red men of New York in a girdle of fire. The secret of this mighty power lay in their organization, which was wonderful in its wisdom and completeness. In the heart of the New York wilderness they founded a barbarian republic, whose methods and bonds of union might well serve as a model in many respects for civilized nations.

The wampum records have given us the traditions of the formation of the Iroquois league. The members were called Kanonsionni, the builders of the "long house," whose eastern door was kept by the Mohawks and the western by the Senecas, while the great council-fire was kindled, and the capital placed, among the Onondagas. Hiawatha, the wise man who founded the League, used these words to the assembled warriors on the hill-slope north of Onondaga Lake: "We have met, members of many nations, many of you having come a great distance from your homes, to provide for our common safety. To oppose by tribes, or single-handed, our foes from the north, would result in our destruction. We must unite as a common band of brothers, and then we shall be safe. You, Mohawks, sitting under the shadow of great trees, whose roots sink deep into the earth, and whose branches spread over the vast country, shall be the first nation, because you are warlike and mighty. You, Oneidas, a people who lean your bodies against the everlasting stone that cannot be moved, shall be the second nation, because you give good counsel. You, Onondagas, who have your habitation by the side of the great mountain and are overshadowed by its crags, shall be the third nation, because you are greatly gifted in speech, and powerful in war. You, Cayugas, whose dwelling-place is the dark forest, and whose home is everywhere, shall be the fourth nation, because of your superior cunning in hunting. And you, Senecas, a people who live in the open country and possess much wisdom, shall be the fifth nation, because you understand the art of making cabins, and of raising corn and beans. You five great and mighty nations must combine and have one common interest, and then no foe shall be able to subdue us. If we unite, the Great Spirit will smile upon us. Brothers, these are the words of Hiawatha. Let them sink into your hearts."

The organization of the Iroquois is believed to have taken place about the close of the sixteenth century. Its object, as explained by Hiawatha, was mutual defence and safety. In domestic affairs the nations were distinct and independent, but bound closely to-

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Hiawatha,  
the Wise  
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President  
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gether by ties of honor in all matters affecting the public good. Each nation had its chief sachems, or civil magistrates, with about two hundred subordinate officers, besides fifty possessing hereditary rights. War chiefs were chosen in special instances, and, if the case were urgent, these war chiefs took the place of the sachems in the control of affairs. While military service was voluntary, it would have taken more courage for an able-bodied man to refuse to go upon the war-path than to face any danger, for the least shrinking on the part of a warrior brought upon him everlasting disgrace.

The League had a president, with six advisers, and could summon representatives from the tribes when concerted action was believed to be necessary. It may be said that the principle of what we now call civil service reform prevailed among the Iroquois, for merit alone secured office. Oho-to-da-ha, a venerable Onondagan, was the first president of the League, and the mat whereon he sat, and the buckskin threads upon which are strung the beads that commemorate his election, are still reverently preserved.

Female suffrage existed among the Iroquois, as it does to-day among some of the tribes. The matrons sat in council, and voted on the question of peace or war. This is not strange, when it is remembered that the Iroquois trace descent through the female. All the sisters of a warrior's mother are equally his mothers, and the children of his mother's sister are his brothers and sisters.

More elaborate means were devised for welding in one strongly knit confederacy the Six Nations than that of a simple federal bond. Among the Iroquois the name tribe did not mean nation. They had eight tribes or clans, known as the Wolf, the Bear, the Turtle, the Snipe, the Beaver, the Deer, the Horse, and the Heron. The totem, or mark, of each was signed to all treaties. Each tribe was divided into five clans, and one of these was located in every nation. Thus the Iroquois were interwoven with each other in what seemed to be an indivisible bond. A tribe was considered one family, and marriage between its members was not allowed. The wisdom of this system of union was shown in the fact that the League never fell into disorder or became disintegrated by anarchy. The bonds that bound all the nations together into one great family were complete.

In 1607, Captain John Smith met a band of Iroquois, in their canoes, in the upper part of Chesapeake Bay, on their way to the dominions of Powhatan (*pow-at-an'*). Quick to learn the use of fire-

arms, they pushed their conquests rapidly. In 1643, they nearly destroyed the Eries and entered northern Ohio. In 1648-9, they decimated the Hurons. A quarter of a century later, they controlled the whole country between Lakes Huron, Erie, and Ontario, and the northern bank of the St. Lawrence to the mouth of the Ottawa. In 1680, they invaded Illinois as far as the Mississippi. Soon afterwards, the Cherokees, on the Tennessee, and the Catawbias, of South Carolina, surrendered to the "Romans," who pushed their domain into Michigan and the region south of Lake Superior. In the colonial wars, the Iroquois sided with the English, as the Algonquins sided with the French, to which fact we may, in some degree, attribute the final overthrow of French dominion in this country. The Revolution subjected the League to its greatest strain. The protests of the Oneidas divided the confederacy, and the Six Nations, as nations, did not join with the British, though there were many volunteers, as will be shown further on.

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A glance at the Six Nations, as they were in 1890, shows that 8,483 were living in Canada. Of the 7,387 in the United States, 1,716 are Oneidas, who are settled in Wisconsin, 255 Senecas and Cayugas, who are living in the Indian Territory, while 79, also members of the League, are scattered through other States. At the same period there were 5,239 survivors of the Six Nations living in New York, and a band of Onondagas and Senecas are living on the Cornplanter reservation, in Warren county, Pennsylvania. The New York Iroquois occupy seven reservations, whose estimated territorial value is nearly two million dollars. As an evidence of their advancement in civilization, it may be said that they dress and conduct themselves like white men; that among their household effects are two hundred and eighty-three sewing-machines, fifty-six pianos and organs; and that they raise annually a hundred thousand dollars' worth of agricultural products. There are among their number forty-eight carpenters, mechanics, wood-carvers, and lumbermen, nine doctors, eight preachers, and five lawyers. While members of the Six Nations may be arrested, tried, and punished for violations of the criminal law, our civil courts have no jurisdiction over them. Many of the families are Christians; but a large number are still pagans. Schools are established, and the people are contented, flourishing, and increasing steadily in number, another evidence of the prevailing mistake that the native American race is dying out.

The Six  
 Nations  
 of To-  
 day



### CHAPTER III

## *CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS, HIS YOUTH AND MANHOOD, AND HIS EFFORTS TO SECURE AID IN PROSECUTING HIS GREAT VOYAGE*

[*Authorities* : As introductory to the history and colonization of the New World, the authorities that treat of the geography and physical features of the continent should here be quoted. These are, mainly, MacCoun's "Historical Geography of the United States," the introductory chapters in Winsor's "Narrative and Critical History of America," Shaler's "United States of America," Doyle's "English Colonies in America," and Thwaite's compact manual on "The Colonies, 1492-1750" (in the "Epoch Series of American History"). The chief sources of information on the dawn of the New World are the initial chapters in the great histories of Bancroft and Hildreth, and, more especially, the thoughtful and attractive work of Professor Fiske on the "Discovery of America." The Columbus literature is legion ; but, for the general reader, perhaps no better or more entertaining book exists than Washington Irving's "Life and Voyages of Columbus."]

#### The Approach of the Era of Discovery



AS the centuries passed, great changes took place in the Old World. While the vast continent on the other side of the globe lay hidden and unknown in its gloom and silence, the revolutions and overturning of governments in Europe were accompanied by an activity of thought that ushered in the true era of discovery. Gunpowder had been invented, and became a more or less influential factor in progress. The mariner's compass emboldened nations to venture far out on the stormy waste of waters ; while printing by means of movable type made books abundant, and served to diffuse knowledge. The belief that the earth was flat was succeeded by the now well-grounded conviction that it was round. Assuming this fact, it followed that a voyage to the westward, if pushed far enough, would take a ship



around the globe and bring it back to its starting-point. By sailing to the westward, too, a navigator must in time reach the eastern shore of Asia. No one seemed to believe in the possibility that between Europe and Asia lay another vast country awaiting discovery and colonization.

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There was a marked increase in commercial activity at the opening of the fifteenth century. Genoa (*jěn'ō-ǎ*) and Venice were then active rivals for the valuable commerce of India. The chief channel of the trade of Genoa from the far east was by way of the Indus, the Oxus, and the Caspian and Black Seas. The principal route taken by the Venetians was by way of the Persian Gulf and the Euphrates, or by the Red Sea and the ports of Egypt and Syria. In the fierce strife for this commerce the Venetians beat the Genoese, who began to look in other directions for the extension of their trade. The merchants of western Europe, being shut out altogether from traffic with the East by way of the Mediterranean, began also to cast about for new and, if possible, speedier modes of reaching India.

Increased  
 Commer-  
 cial Ac-  
 tivity

One of the most enterprising of navigators was Prince Henry, son of John I., king of Portugal. On one of his expeditions with his father to western Africa he heard a good deal from the Moors about the coast of Guinea, and other parts of the continent wholly unknown to the European. Prince Henry was so strongly convinced that great discoveries could be made on the western coast of Africa that he withdrew from court, and gathered around him the scholars most famous for their learning. The prince surpassed them all in knowledge, and held the belief, from which he could not be moved, that India could be reached by passing round the southern end of Africa. In the face of bigoted opposition, Prince Henry persevered, and one of his navigators afterwards proved the soundness of his theories, when, in 1497, Vasco da Gama doubled the Cape of Good Hope, to which he gave its name, crossed the Indian Ocean, and anchored in the harbor of Calicut,\* on the Malabar coast. This triumph did not come until Prince Henry had been dead for over thirty years, but he saw it with certainty from afar.

Prince  
 Henry of  
 Portugal

Doubling  
 of the  
 Cape of  
 Good  
 Hope

Before this memorable event, however, a still grander achievement was made by another navigator, whose name became immortal.

\* Many histories fall into the error of confusing Calicut with Calcutta, citing the latter rather than the former as the port for which Vasco da Gama made after doubling the Cape. The latter was discovered, in 1486, by Bartholomew Diaz.

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Birth of  
 Colum-  
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VASCO DA GAMA

Christopher Columbus\* was born in Genoa, Italy, about the year 1435 or 1436. He was the son of a wool-comber, in poor circumstances, and had one sister and several brothers. Little is known of his childhood, but he possessed an active mind, acquired what was looked upon as a fair education for the time, was a good penman, and showed considerable skill in drawing maps. At the age of fourteen, he

went to sea. He listened eagerly to the stories told by old navigators, and was fired with the ambition to go in quest of the strange lands that he was certain were awaiting discovery. Like most of the true scholars of the time, he believed the earth to be round, and, as he grew to manhood, he set before him the task of procuring the means of engaging in the great work of his life.

Marriage  
 of Colum-  
 bus

He found the labor of bringing men to his way of thinking a hard one, for the months grew into years before he gained much to encourage him. Few men would have persevered in the face of so many obstacles and disappointments as awaited Columbus. Finding no one in his native city willing to lend a helping hand, he proceeded to Lisbon, arriving there about the year 1470. In that city he married Donna Felipa (*fee-leep'a*), daughter of Bartolomeo de Perestrello, who had been one of the famous navigators of Prince Henry's day. The journals of the dead navigator were placed in the hands of Columbus, and he studied them with the deepest interest. The knowl-

\* It abates nothing from Columbus's honors to say that that adventurous Genoese mariner was essentially the product of his age. When he came upon the scene, the idea was fast taking hold of men's minds, in the most practical way to realize it, that the earth was a sphere, and that the East could be gained as well by going in one direction as by going in another. Hitherto, the Indies had been reached only by setting out eastward. Columbus believed that the rich shores of the Orient could be got at by sailing westward; and, now that there had been improvements in the art of navigation, it was to solve this geographical problem, as well as to win, as he hoped, wealth and honor for himself, that he set out on his first perilous voyage across the Atlantic. The mistake he made, however, was in supposing that he would arrive at the Indies by the westward route in half the time that it could either then or now be possibly reached. This arose from the current error of the period, which gave the earth the due of only half its actual diameter. Hence, in arriving at the Bahamas, the fallacy of their discoverer's belief that he had reached the fabled East and gone half-way round the world. Under this conviction he seems to have rested until the close of his life; and hence also the natural mistake he made in calling the aborigines of the New World "Indians." This and other matters connected with Columbus's career and voyages is, however, more fully brought out in the text.



FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY JULES TURCAS

COLUMBUS AND HIS SON AT LA RABIDA CONVENT

PERIOD I  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
 1000  
 TO  
 1590

edge thus gained, together with what was told him by his brother-in-law, another noted navigator, fanned the ambition of Columbus. From the descriptions, too, of Marco Polo, a Venetian, who made an overland journey to China towards the close of the thirteenth century, Columbus was absolutely certain that by sailing westward he would reach Cathay, that is China.



ISABELLA OF CASTILE

While nursing these dreams, he made a voyage to Iceland in 1477, in the service of Portugal. In that country he must have heard of the voyages of the sons of Eric the Red. When he came back, he applied to King John of Portugal for aid, but that monarch had a war just then on his hands and could give little attention to the dreamer. So Columbus waited until John

II. became ruler. This sovereign listened patiently, and referred the matter to three learned men, who reported against it. The king, however, was not satisfied, and called another council, who also decided that the plan was a visionary one. Then King John did a base and dishonorable thing. He borrowed from Columbus his maps and charts under the pretext that he wished to study them, but at the same time sent a vessel to the Cape Verde Islands, with orders to sail as far westward as possible and learn whether there was any truth in the theories of the Italian. Fortunately, the captain and crew of the ship were great cowards, and did not go far before they were terrified by the mountainous waves of the Atlantic, and made haste to return, with the declaration that the whole thing was an idle fancy.

When Columbus learned of the trick, he was so indignant that he refused all offers of the king to continue negotiations. His wife was now dead, and taking his little boy Diego (*dē-ăh'-gö*) by the hand, Columbus left Lisbon in the latter part of 1484. To what place he first went is not known; but at the close of an autumn day he stopped at the door of the Franciscan monastery near Palos (*pah'los*), and humbly asked for some bread and water for his starving boy. This convent was dedicated to Santa Maria de Rabida (*ră-bee'dă*), and while the porter was bringing the food and water, the Friar, Juan Perez de Marchena (*hwahn pā'reth dā mar-shā'na*), came forward and opened conversation with Columbus. He was struck by the words and ap-

Colum-  
 bus  
 leaves  
 Portugal  
 and goes  
 to Spain,  
 1484

pearance of the stranger, and quickly saw that he was no ordinary man. He invited him to become his guest, and sent for some of his learned friends in the neighborhood to meet and talk with the visitor.

Many conversations took place in the old convent, and all who listened to Columbus were impressed by his views. Among the callers were several old navigators, whose stories of what they had seen, when driven far out of their course, seemed to confirm the views of the guest. The friar was so fired by the promise of the great discovery, and the glory that could be gained for Spain, that he at once offered to introduce Columbus to court, and also to educate his son.

It was a stirring time in the history of Spain. She had been fighting bravely for years to drive out the Moors, and had well-nigh succeeded. The obnoxious intruders were confined to the one province of Granada, from which, in the course of a few years, they were to be expelled. Isabella, queen of the large district of Castile and Leon, and Ferdinand, of the province of Aragon, had been united in marriage in 1469, and later on bent every energy to the conquest of the Moorish invaders. The two monarchs were one in their aims, though they ruled as independent sovereigns, each having a distinct council. Their profiles were cast on the coins of the realm, and together they signed public documents and performed all acts of sovereignty, while the royal seal embraced the united arms of the provinces of Castile and Aragon, which dates from 1479.

It was an unfavorable period for Columbus to apply to the court for aid, for it was moving continually from place to place, and in the midst of alarms. Until the work should be completed, the sovereigns had no inclination to think of anything else. Accordingly, Columbus quietly waited at the convent until the spring of 1486, when affairs had taken on so hopeful a look that he visited the court at Cordova, and presented his letter of introduction from Father Marchena to the confessor of the queen. The man listened to the glowing words of Columbus, but shook his head, as a sign that he did not agree with him in his opinions, and bade him good-day.

It was a sorrowful repulse to Columbus, but he had become used

PERIOD I  
DISCOVERY  
AND EX-  
PLORATION  
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TO  
1590

Marriage  
of Fer-  
dinand  
and Isa-  
bella,  
1469



FERDINAND V., OF ARAGON

PERIOD I  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
 1000  
 TO  
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 ---

to that. He lingered in the neighborhood of the court, and was soon cheered by winning over Quintanilla, the controller of the finances of Castile. This officer announced his belief in the views of the Italian navigator, and did him good service by interesting the friendly help of the Grand Cardinal of Spain—a man of so great an influence that he was often termed the third king of the country. This official brought Columbus into the presence of the king and queen, who listened with profound interest to his words. They referred him to a council of astronomers and cosmographers,\* most of whom were so shocked by what they deemed the impiety of the visitor's views, that for a time Columbus was in danger of being given over to the Inquisition. Bitter disappointment again was his portion. Delays and renewed discouragements followed. The sovereigns were not willing to turn him wholly away, but said that when the war was over they would again consider the matter. The months lengthened, however, into years, and the much-longed-for help did not come. Columbus made overtures to some of the nobles, but they refused, and then he wrote to the king of Portugal, who had treated him so ill. That monarch invited him to Lisbon, but, before leaving, matters looked so hopeful in Spain that Columbus decided to stay where he was.

Rebuffs  
 and Dis-  
 appoint-  
 ments

He had been rebuffed so often by the Spanish court that he was too proud to risk another repulse. The king of France had asked him to come to Paris, and thither he decided to go. He went to the convent for his boy, and the heart of Father Marchena was touched at the sight of the bowed man, as hopeless and poor as when he had stopped at the gate years before. The friar, too, believed in the views of Columbus, and resolved that the glory within the grasp of his country should not be lost to her. He called his learned friends around him, and had Columbus stay and once more explain his theories and the reason for his faith.

Among those who gathered at the convent, and took part in the discussion, was Martin Alonzo Pinzon, a rich navigator. He declared there was no doubt that Columbus was right, and offered to pay the expenses of another application to court, as well as to engage in a voyage of discovery with him. Columbus said he would wait a while before going to France, but would not beg any more favors from the sovereigns who had already refused him many times.

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\* Writers or describers of the cosmos; that is, the universe we call the world.

Father Marchena settled this difficulty by promising to obtain an interview with the queen herself. He had once been her confessor, and knew that such an interview could be arranged. The queen graciously met the good man, and cheered his heart by asking him to send Columbus to her again.

PERIOD I  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
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Columbus arrived at Santa Fe (*fā*), whither the court had now gone, and making his way to the camp before Granada, arrived in time to see the final surrender of the Moors to the Spanish army. He was admitted to the presence of the sovereigns, and the king



THE FINAL RECALL TO COURT

brusquely asked him what he expected as payment in the event of success. “To be invested with the title and privileges of an admiral and viceroy over all the countries I may discover,” replied Columbus, “together with one-tenth of all the gains, either by trade or conquest.” Objection being made to this, Columbus added that he would furnish one-eighth of the expense, if permitted to receive an eighth of the profits. The king shook his head, and offered less liberal terms. Columbus would not abate his demand one tittle, and the sovereigns refused to yield. So, once more, with a heavy heart, the navigator, now growing old, and with much weakened physical

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PERIOD I  
 DISCOVERY  
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 1590

The Sym-  
 pathy of  
 Isabella  
 elicited

powers, passed from the royal presence, and, mounting his mule, resolved that he would go to France without further loss of time.

But there were powerful friends at court who had become zealous believers in his theories. One of these, Luis de St. Angel, receiver of the ecclesiastical revenues of Aragon, made an eloquent appeal to the sovereigns to accept the terms of Columbus. The king remained obdurate, but Isabella was won over. With the natural impulse of her sex, she said that although it was true, as stated by the king, that the country had been drained by the costly war, she would pledge, if necessary, her own crown of Castile and her jewels to raise the money.

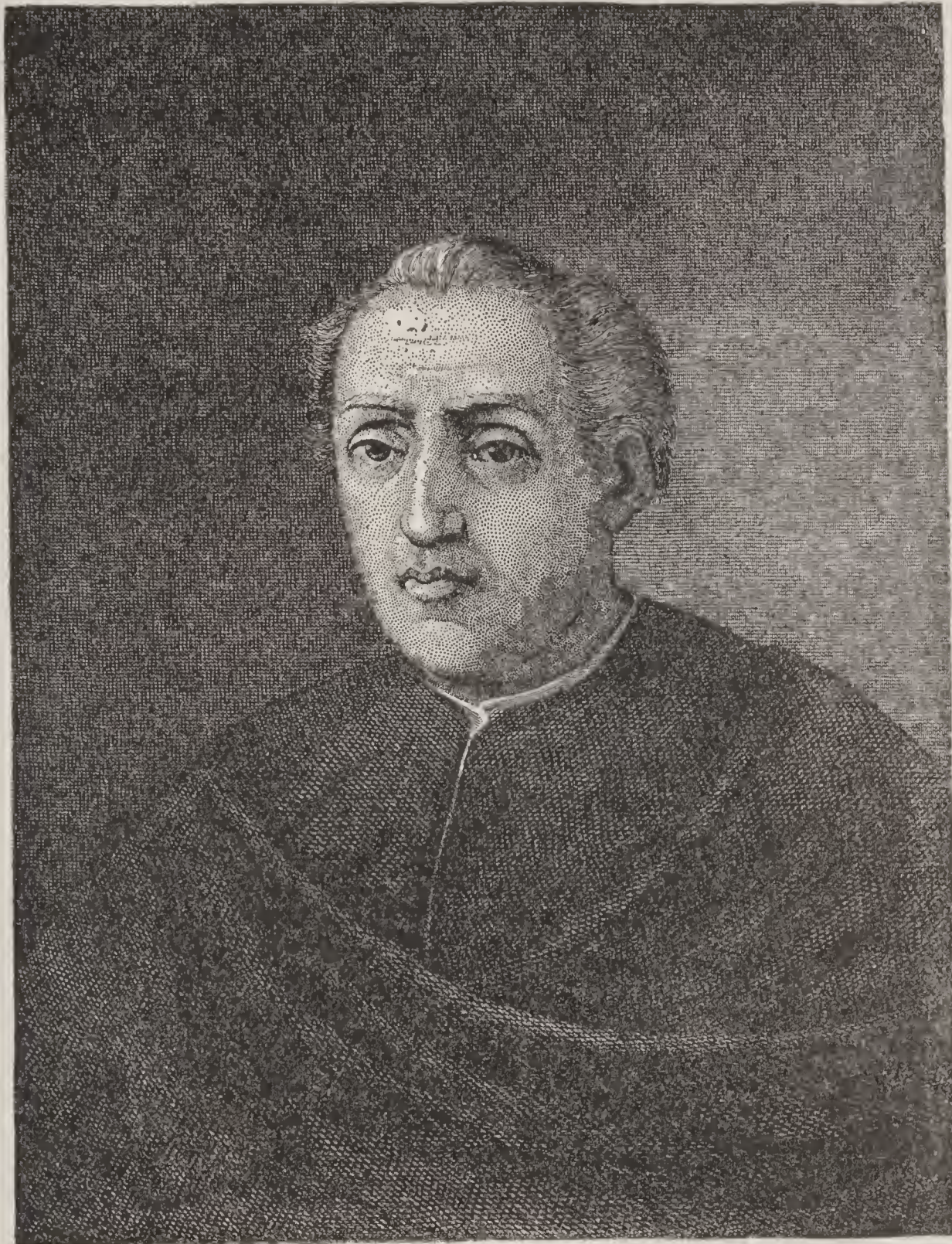
By this time, Columbus was several miles away on his plodding mule. At the bridge of Pinos, the dusty messenger overtook him, bearing the all-important message that he was to return at once to the united sovereigns. Columbus hesitated, but the assurance that the queen was in earnest caused him to turn and ride back, hope renewed within his breast, yet wondering whether another disappointment was not awaiting him. But Isabella received him graciously, assured him that his terms were agreed to, and urged that he should lose no time in sailing upon the expedition, which she was certain would result in so much grandeur and glory to Spain. The soul of Columbus expanded with exultant joy, and, in the excess of his emotion, he promised to give all the profits of the enterprise to the recovery of the Holy Sepulchre at Jerusalem from the unbelievers. The queen clasped her hands in ecstasy, and asked the blessing of Heaven upon Columbus and his companions in the enterprise.

The Con-  
 tract  
 made  
 with the  
 Sove-  
 reigns,  
 April 17,  
 1492

Ferdinand, though colder-hearted and more calculating, could not withhold his consent to the arrangement, and the contract was signed by the sovereigns at Santa Fe, April 17th, 1492. Some days later, the commission of Columbus as admiral and viceroy was signed in the city of Granada. By the terms of the agreement, these honors were made hereditary in his family, and the right of prefixing the title of Don was given to his heirs. In the following month, Diego, the son of Columbus, was made page to Prince John, son of the ruling monarch and his consort. With a feeling as if the burden of a score of years had been lifted from his shoulders, Columbus bade his sovereigns adieu, and rode back to La Rabida, where he was welcomed by the now exulting Father Marchena and his equally happy friends.

Now, as the great discoverer nears the era of his life, one that was





FROM CONTEMPORARY PAINTING

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CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS

PERIOD 1  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
 1000  
 TO  
 1590

to make his name immortal, it is interesting to learn something of his personal appearance. The most trustworthy account is that of Mr. Clements R. Markham, C.B., the English geographer. This gentleman has brought to light the only portrait of Columbus which is known to be authentic. He found it in a private house at Como, where it had been treasured ever since it was placed there by Paulus Jovius, a contemporary of the great navigator. Regarding the looks of Columbus, Mr. Markham says :

Personal  
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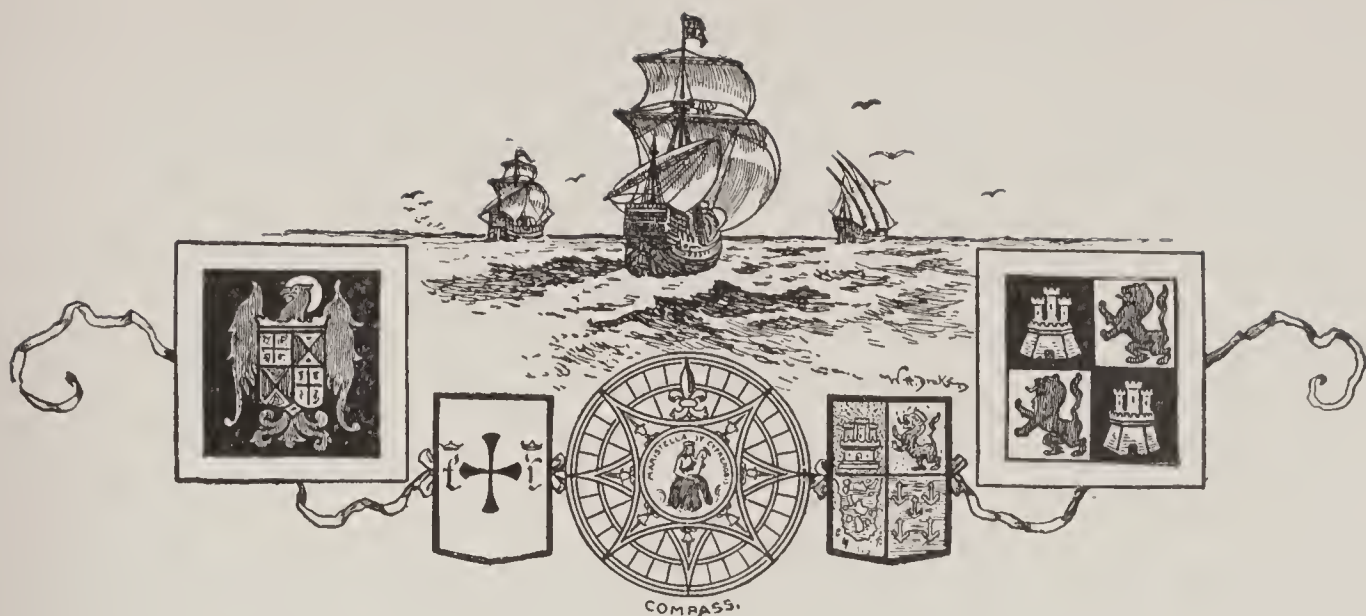
“ We gather some idea of the Admiral’s personal appearance from the descriptions of Las Casas \* and Oviedo.† He was a man of middle height, with courteous manners and noble bearing. His face was oval, with a pleasing expression, the nose aquiline, the eyes blue, and the complexion fair and inclined to ruddiness. The hair was red, though it became gray soon after he was thirty. Only one authentic portrait of Columbus is known to have been painted. The Italian historian, Paulus Jovius, who was his contemporary, collected a gallery of portraits of worthies of his time at his villa on the Lake of Como. Among them was a portrait of the Admiral. There is an early engraving from it, and very indifferent copies in the Uffizi Gallery at Florence and at Madrid. But until quite recently I do not think that the original was known to exist.

“ It, however, never left the family, and when the last Giovio died it was inherited by her grandson, the Nobile de Greche, who is the present possessor. I was so fortunate as to see it when I was at Como, and also to obtain a photograph of it. Here we have the head of a venerable man, with thin gray hair, the forehead high, the eyes pensive and rather melancholy. It was thus that he doubtless appeared during the period that he was in Spain after his return in chains or during the last years of his life.”

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\* Bartolomé de Las Casas (*b.* 1474, *d.* 1566), a Spanish ecclesiastic and bishop of Chiapa, Mexico. Tradition speaks of him as a companion of Columbus, on his first voyage to the New World, and as having been with Velasquez in Cuba, where he witnessed the Spanish conquest of that island, in 1511. He is known to have travelled extensively in the West Indies, Mexico, and Central America, and to have warmly espoused the cause of the Indians against the cruelties of the Spanish colonists. He repeatedly appealed to the Spanish Court on their behalf, and also besought aid for them from Charles V. of Germany. His works, which chiefly relate to Spanish outrages on the Indians, are of considerable historic importance. See Sir Arthur Helps’s “ Life of Las Casas, the Apostle of the Indians,” and his “ Spanish Conquests in America.”

† Oviedo y Valdés (*b.* 1478, *d.* 1557). See the Appendix to Washington Irving’s “ Life and Voyages of Columbus ” for notices of both Las Casas and Oviedo.



## CHAPTER IV

### *THE VOYAGES OF COLUMBUS*

[*Authorities* : Chiefly those quoted at the head of the preceding chapter, with Higginson's "Explorers of America," and Sir Arthur Helps's "Life of Columbus." To the general histories may also be added Bryant and Gay's "History of the United States," and Lossing's "Popular Cyclopædia of United States History."]



Colum-  
bus at  
Palos,  
1492

**B**ACKED by the authority of his sovereigns, Columbus went to Palos and made known the royal order that three caravels, or small three-masted vessels, should be made ready, and with their crews be placed at his disposal. The people of the place were also ordered to furnish all needed supplies at just prices. When it became known for what purpose this command had been given, the sailors and their friends were thrown into consternation. Every one believed in the awful terrors of the western Atlantic, and were convinced that whoever ventured on the mad voyage would never return. To escape the dreadful fate, scores of sailors fled from the city, and it looked for a time as if Columbus was to meet his crowning disappointment, when all the means that he asked for had been placed at his disposal.

In this crisis, Martin Alonzo Pinzon, and his brother, Vincent Yañez, known not only for their wealth, but for their skill as navigators, came forward and offered to furnish one of the vessels, and to go with Columbus, each as a master of a ship. Moreover, Martin kept his pledge of advancing one-eighth of the entire cost of the expedition. The effect of this timely offer brought success. Sailors volunteered, and in a short time the needed number were secured and the three caravels were made ready for sea.

PERIOD I  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
 1000  
 TO  
 1590

Sailing  
 of the  
 Expedi-  
 tion, Aug.  
 3, 1492

The Voy-  
 age

Passing  
 the Vol-  
 canic  
 Island of  
 Teneriffe  
 (Spanish)

The flagship of Columbus was the *Santa Maria*, which was the only one of the three vessels that was decked. The others were pierced for oars, to be used in calm weather, each with a "foc'sle for'ard" and a cabin in the high stern, for the use of the ship's company. The *Pinta* was commanded by Martin Alonzo Pinzon, while his brother, Francisco Martin, acted as pilot. Vincent Yañez Pinzon commanded the *Nina*. A royal notary, doctor, and surgeon accompanied the expedition, which with the adventurers, servants, and ninety sailors, made the whole number of souls on board the three vessels one hundred and twenty persons. The expedition sailed from Palos, August 3d, 1492, at eight o'clock in the morning.

Six days later, the ships reached the Canary Islands, where fresh water and provisions were taken aboard, and the broken rudder of the *Pinta* was repaired. Learning that three Portuguese vessels were cruising outside to capture him, Columbus made haste to sail out on the unknown ocean, knowing that his enemies would not dare to follow him. Most of the readers of this history will no doubt have seen the caravels presented to our Government by the king of Spain, just before the Columbian Exposition, and which were exact models of those used by Columbus. Few persons would care to attempt an ocean voyage in even the largest of them, and we cannot help admiring the courage of Columbus and his men in sailing boldly out on the Atlantic, of which all had heard the most appalling stories.

Had those caravels encountered such storms as often sweep the ocean, they must have gone to the bottom, but providentially they were saved from that fate, and few of the expected terrors showed themselves. Nevertheless, the sailors were never free from fear from the hour they left the Canary Islands. They grew sullen and discontented, and longed for something to happen which would cause Columbus to return to Spain, while he had the chance to do so. Persons in that apprehensive state of mind are certain to see things which add to their fears. It was an alarming sight when the sky was lit up by the glare from the volcano on Teneriffe (*ten'-er-if'*) and they were glad to leave it behind them.

One day Columbus received a shock. He was continually looking at the compass, whose needle by and by began to swerve from its position. Instead of pointing toward the north star, he saw it for the first time in his life point to one side of the star, and this variation increased as the ship progressed westward. Columbus could

not understand the cause of this variation, which even now is not clearly comprehended. He knew it would add to the terrors of the sailors, so he prepared an explanation. They soon noticed the startling fact and made haste to appeal to him. His reply was that the compass did not point directly toward the north star, but at a fixed point near it, and the seeming variation was caused by the revolution

PERIOD I  
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DISCOVERY  
AND EX-  
PLORATION  
1000  
TO  
1590  
—



THE PEAK OF TENERIFFE

of the star itself. The men had faith in the learning of Columbus, and believed what he told them; he even believed it himself.

The sailors, however, grew more sullen, and he saw that trouble was coming. He told them about the wonderful lands that he was certain they would discover, and the glory and wealth that would come to them. He may have roused their ambition and greed, but he could not drive away their increasing fears. They would have been only too glad to turn their backs upon all these rich prospects for the sake of joining their families and friends at home.

It was a strange sight which greeted them one day. The ocean

**Signs of  
Mutiny  
among  
the Crew**

PERIOD I  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
 1000  
 TO  
 1590

seemed to have changed into a vast, heaving island. This was caused by immense masses of seaweed, so dense that they retarded the progress of the vessels. Awed and wondering, they kept their sails spread, however, and finally pushed their way through what is known as the Sargasso Sea,\* with which nearly all navigators are familiar. Then a heron, and afterwards a tropical bird, circled about the ships as if to gain a closer view of them, and sped away to the westward. No stronger proof could have been given of the approach to land, and for a time the sailors were soothed; but the days passed without the yearned-for shore appearing, and they grew mutinous again. It required promises of reward, with pleadings and threats, to prevent the men, in a spirit of mutiny, from taking charge of the caravels and turning about.

Before the expedition left Spain, the sovereigns promised a pension to the first man who saw land. Just as night was closing in, Martin Pinzon, standing on the *Pinta* and pointing westward, roused all by shouting:

“Land! land! I claim my reward!”

All eyes were turned in the direction indicated by him, and they saw what seemed to be a low, flat island in the horizon. Columbus, overcome with gratitude, sank on his knees and devoutly returned thanks to God for His great providence. Few eyes that night were closed in slumber, and as the little ships continued on their course, the crews were sure that the morning would show them the coveted land but a few miles away.

But when the sun rose behind them, the longing eyes failed to discern the first glimpse of the new country. That which deceived them was a low-lying cloud that was dissipated by the sun's rays. On every side was nothing but the heaving ocean and the blue sky. The sailors became more mutinous than before as the days passed, with the distance between them and their homes increasing, and the certainty, as they viewed it, of never seeing their loved ones again. They told Columbus that he must turn back or they would do so themselves. He replied that the voyage was undertaken by the authority of their sovereigns, and he never would return until its object had been gained. Growing more rebellious, they warned him that

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\* Immense areas met with in the North Atlantic, extending from the Azores to the Antilles, composed of floating seaweed and vegetating plant life. The Gulf Stream keeps the seaweed in constant motion.



**VOYAGES  
OF THE  
GREAT EXPLORERS.**

120° Longitude 110° from 100° Greenwich. 90° 80° 70° Jujay 60° 50° 40° 30° TROPIC OF CAPRICORN 20° 10° 0° EQUATOR 10° 20° 30° 40° 50° 60° 70° 80° 90° 100° 110° 120°





they would cast him into the sea, and were, in truth, preparing to carry out the dreadful threat when their hands were stayed by new and convincing evidence of their approach to land.

Late in the afternoon of October 11th, a branch of thorn with berries on it drifted past one of the vessels, followed by an oar, carved by a human hand. These proofs were so striking that the men ceased their murmurs. Columbus assured them that within a few hours they would certainly see a new country. He told them to keep a sharp watch, and he would give to the first man who made the discovery a fine doublet (waistcoat) of velvet, in addition to the pension promised by the sovereigns.

All doubt having vanished from the minds of the mutineers, they became meek and obedient, and eagerly watched throughout the night, anxious to obtain the double reward that was now assured to the one with the keenest eyes. Columbus resorted to the upper deck of the *Santa Maria*, and spent hours in peering through the gloom to the westward, where he knew the unknown country lay, and which he was confident would greet them with the rising sun.

It was about ten o'clock when he thought that he saw a light gleaming through the darkness. He would have set it down as a star in the horizon had it not been moving rapidly, as if carried by the hand of a running person. Doubtful whether he saw aright, he called to Pedro Gutierrez, a gentleman of the king's bedchamber, and asked him whether he could see the light. He answered that he did see it. Columbus then called a third person, Sanchez, and repeated the question. The light had vanished, but it reappeared in a few minutes and was observed several times by all three before it finally disappeared. The gun was not fired, however, because so many disappointments had occurred. Suddenly, before sunrise, one of the little cannon on the *Pinta* flashed out in the gloom, and its sharp report rang over the waters. Roderigo de Triana had caught the dim outlines of land, about six miles distant. Justice would seem to require that the reward should have been given to him, but, to his chagrin, Columbus set up his own claim and obtained it.

As the light of morning overspread the ocean, every one on the three caravels gazed upon the New World. One of the Bahamas lay before them, its wooded shores green with vegetation and gleaming with wild flowers. The soft winds wafted the perfume to the delighted sailors, the birds carolled their songs, and the nude natives

PERIOD I  
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DISCOVERY  
AND EX-  
PLORATION  
1000  
TO  
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—

First  
sight of  
the New  
World,  
Oct. 12th,  
1492

PERIOD I  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
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 TO  
 1590

were seen peeping out in awe and wonder from behind the trees at their strange visitors. It is now believed that the land first seen by Columbus was what is to-day known as Watling Island.

What a proud moment for the great navigator when he donned his gorgeous uniform, and, bearing the royal standard, stepped into one of the boats and was rowed ashore! He had solved the problem of the ages and earned a name that shall never die. No disputations or after-claims can ever rob him of the glory or dim the lustre of his name in the annals of human achievement.

The small boat in which Columbus put off for shore was followed by that of the *Pinta*, each of which bore the white silk banner of the expedition, shaped like a pennon and emblazoned with a green cross, with the letter F on one side and Y on the other, being the initials of Ferdinand and Ysabella, with a golden crown above.

The  
Landing

Columbus was the first to step ashore, quickly followed by the officers and crews. All kneeled down and kissed the green earth, and with overflowing hearts chanted the *Te Deum Laudamus*.\* Then, rising erect, Columbus drew his sword, unfurled the royal standard, and took possession of the land in the name of Ferdinand and Isabella. He gave the name of San Salvador to the island, and, not doubting that it formed a part of the coast of India, he designated the inhabitants *Indians*.

The  
Indians

These people were the most interesting objects upon which the eyes of the visitors rested. Their copper skins were painted with a variety of colors and devices; they had luxuriant black hair, and the men were without beards. They showed no signs of hostility, and gradually losing the fear which first caused them to flee, drew near and were kindly treated by the white men, whom they viewed with a wonder that could not be expressed. The natives called the island Guanahani (*gwah-na-hah'ni*), but the name San Salvador still clings to it, though the English prefer that of Cat Island.

The natives had no bows or arrows, their only weapons being spears, pointed with bone or flint. They showed but a few golden ornaments, and when presented with beads, hawks' bills, and gaudy trinkets, were so delighted that the Spaniards broke into laughter at

\* The first words—"We praise thee, O Lord"—of an ancient Christian hymn ascribed to St. Ambrose. It forms part of the daily matins of the Roman Catholic breviary, and is also chanted or read in the morning service of the Anglican Church and of the Protestant Episcopal Church of America.

their antics. They were as simple and artless as young children. The change from the restraint of the ships was so refreshing, after the six weeks of tossing upon the ocean, that the day was spent in wandering about the island, reclining in the cool shade of the trees, and amusing themselves with the Indians.

On the second morning, the visitors rowed to the northeast to examine the island further. The natives followed them along the shore, and when they found that the white men would not land, many of them sprang into the water and swam out to the boats.

PERIOD I  
DISCOVERY  
AND EX-  
PLORATION  
1000  
TO  
1590

Other  
Discover-  
ies.



WRECK OF THE "SANTA MARIA"

Then Columbus hoisted anchor and continued his explorations, visiting many of the islands which abound in that neighborhood. On the 28th of October, he coasted along the northern shore of Cuba, and saw the natives smoke tobacco, in the form of rude cigars. The Spaniards did not adopt the habit, which seemed to them as uncleanly as it really is, even though the tobacco of Cuba is considered perhaps the finest in the world.

The explorers treated the natives so well that they manifested a

PERIOD I  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
 1000  
 TO  
 1590

strong liking for the white men. So when Columbus invited ten of them to go back with him and view the wonderful country which was his home, they consented to do so. The homeward voyage was begun in November, but contrary winds drove the *Santa Maria* back to Cuba. Captain Pinzon, of the *Pinta*, refused to follow, and was not seen again for some days. The weather having become more favorable, Columbus sailed once more, and soon came in sight of the lovely island of San Domingo, that is Hayti (or Haiti, as our government has decided that it ought to be spelled). They found its natural beauties so charming that the navigators stayed several days, and because of its resemblance to Spain, Columbus gave it the name of Hispaniola (the Spanish form of the ancient Roman "Hispania," or Spain).

Wreck-  
 ing of the  
 "Santa  
 Maria"

On Christmas eve, however, while sailing along the coast in search of anchorage, the man at the helm steered so badly that the *Santa Maria* was driven on the beach and wrecked. The crew took refuge on the *Nina*, and the natives eagerly helped in transferring her equipment to the smaller boat. Many of the Spaniards asked permission to remain on the island, and Columbus consented, for the *Nina* was uncomfortably crowded, and he was pleased at the prospect of planting a colony in the New World. The *Santa Maria* was knocked apart, and from the timbers was constructed a fort, though it is hard to imagine what need there could be for a fort among so gentle and tractable folk. Columbus begged them to live honest Christian lives, and bidding them good-by, sailed for home. This was on January 16th, 1493.

Destruc-  
 tion of  
 La Navi-  
 dad

The men left behind, like most of the Spaniards who attempted settlements in this country, were cruel and lost to every sense of honor. The *Nina* had hardly disappeared in the horizon, when the forty colonists at La Navidad,\* as the fort was called, began their wickedness. They robbed the natives of their golden ornaments, beat them cruelly, and made slaves of them. No beasts of the field were ever treated with greater brutality. The white men roamed through the island, eagerly hunting for gold, and robbing every native who had anything in his possession worth taking. They kept up their cruelty until one of the chiefs rallied his warriors in sufficient numbers to overwhelm the white men. Those that had shown

\* "The Nativity."

no mercy now received none. Every one of the Spaniards was slain, and La Navidad was burned to ashes. Thus deservedly perished the first attempt at Spanish settlement in the New World.

Meanwhile Columbus was sailing homeward, accompanied by the *Pinta*, which had by this time rejoined him. Martin Alonzo Pinzon, who was jealous of Columbus, refused to obey his orders except when it pleased him to do so, and kidnapped several natives, therefore the admiral decided to make his way home as fast as he could, and rid himself of so undesirable a companion.

The homeward voyage was marked by alternate calms and fierce tempests, which separated the caravels, whose crews did not see each other again until after crossing the ocean. One of these storms was so violent and long-continued that Columbus believed both vessels must be lost. That a knowledge of the discoveries he had made might be preserved, he placed a written narrative inside a sealed cask and flung it overboard. What an interesting find this cask and its contents would be! Several claims were made, many years afterwards, that it had been washed ashore and picked up, but investiga-

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DISCOVERY  
AND EX-  
PLORATION  
1000  
TO  
1590



RETURN OF COLUMBUS

tion showed all such claims to be false, so that, had the caravels foundered, America would have had to be discovered anew.

But the tempest abated, and at daylight, March 4th, the *Nina* appeared at the mouth of the Tagus, in Portugal, and some hours later dropped anchor. Columbus immediately sent a courier to the sovereigns of Spain at Seville, making known his arrival and his great

Arrival  
of the  
"Nina"  
at Por-  
tugal

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 AND EX-  
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 1000  
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discovery. Another letter was forwarded to King John, of Portugal, who was at Valparaiso (*val-pa-ri'so*). The king sent an urgent invitation to the admiral to visit him, and extended his warm congratulations upon his success. It is hard to believe in the sincerity of these congratulations, for the monarch must have recalled his treatment of Columbus and seen the disastrous consequences of his failure to treat him honestly. The glory that might have been Portugal's was now transferred to Spain, and the mistake could never be corrected. Columbus visited the king and was treated with much consideration and paid the highest honors.

Arrival of  
 Colum-  
 bus at  
 Palos,  
 March  
 15th, 1493

On Friday, March 15th, at noon, the *Nina* dropped anchor in the harbor of Palos. Thus, by a curious coincidence, Columbus left Spain, discovered a New World, and arrived home on a Friday, the day which sailors regard with more distrust than any other of the week, and it may be added that, nearly two and a half centuries later, the immortal Washington was born on a Friday.

Never was the old town of Palos, and indeed all Spain, so stirred as it was by the return of Columbus and his men. Hardly any one believed that they would ever be seen again after their departure the previous summer; but here they were, brown, rugged, and happy, filled with a pride in their own deeds and what their illustrious commander had accomplished. The people were in a frenzy of joy, and, as soon as the admiral could free himself from the delighted throngs, he set out for Seville, where he found a letter from his sovereigns asking him to come at once to the court at Barcelona (*bar-sc-lō'-nah*).

Arrival of  
 Martin  
 Pinzon

Meanwhile, Martin Pinzon entered the harbor of Palos, on the evening after the arrival of the *Nina*. He had previously stopped at Bayonne (*bā-yon'*), in France, and under the belief that Columbus had been lost at sea, he forwarded a letter to Ferdinand and Isabella, with a full account of the discoveries made, for which he hoped to reap the glory. It was a bitter disappointment when he found that Columbus had arrived safely in port a few hours before, and was already on his way to meet his sovereigns. Pinzon stayed behind until he received a reply from the king and queen, which was filled with reproaches, and which curtly forbade him to appear at court. At this, he was overcome with mortification and chagrin, and died a few days later.

The letter placed in the admiral's hands at Seville was directed to "Don Christopher Columbus, our admiral of the ocean sea, viceroy

and governor of the islands discovered in the Indies.” Of the ten Indians whom he brought from Cuba, one died at sea, and three were left ill at Palos, so that Columbus took six with him to the Spanish court. It is impossible to describe the honors shown to the great discoverer when at last he appeared before the king and queen. The military display; the tributes of the loftiest dignitaries of that proud, aristocratic kingdom; the shouting thousands on the rooftops, at the windows and in the streets; the strains of martial music; the priests, nobles and distinguished men, Columbus on horseback among the hidalgos; the dusky natives in their gaudy dresses, bearing lofty plumes and tropical birds of gorgeous plumage; the crews of the vessels, and an almost numberless lot of curiosities brought from that wonderful New World—all these and much more made up a scene of magnificence, beauty, and impressiveness, to which both pen and pencil fail to do justice.

When Columbus presented himself before the monarchs, he sank upon his knees, but the happy queen begged him to rise—a most unusual honor. He kissed the hands of the sovereigns, and seating himself among the nobles, told his marvellous story, to which all listened with breathless interest. Not a heart was unmoved in that court. The eyes of Ferdinand and Isabella overflowed with tears, and kneeling down, as did every one present, the monarchs devoutly thanked God for His great blessings. When they arose, the royal choir chanted the *Te Deum*, and all joined in the song of praise. Then the company was dismissed with the apostolic benediction.

It was at a dinner given shortly after, where Columbus occupied the seat of honor, that the incident of the egg occurred. The great attentions received by the admiral awoke the jealousy of the courtiers. One of them, with a sneer, asked Columbus whether he did not think that if he had failed to discover the Indies (such being the belief of every one), it would have been done by others in Spain. By way of reply, Columbus took an egg from a dish before him, and handing it to the courtier asked him to make it stand on one end. The courtier tried it in vain, and then passed it to his friends. They made repeated attempts, but without success, and the egg came back to the hand of the admiral. Tapping one end on the table, so as to fracture the shell and make a small flat surface, he balanced the egg for the guests.

“Any one could do that,” remarked the courtier.

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—  
DISCOVERY  
AND EX-  
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The Re-  
ception  
of Colum-  
bus by  
Ferdi-  
nand and  
Isabella

Colum-  
bus and  
the Egg

PERIOD I  
 DISCOVERY  
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 1000  
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 1590

“So any one can discover the Indies, after I have shown the way,” was the witty comment of the admiral.

Ferdinand and Isabella saw the necessity of following up the work already done by Columbus. As news of his discovery spread throughout Europe it awakened a profound interest, and other nations wished to send out expeditions, for whichever was first in finding new lands would be sure to own them. Portugal and Spain made an agreement, in 1493, by which Portugal was not to interfere with



COLUMBUS AND THE EGG

Spain in America, while Spain was not to disturb Portugal in Africa or the East Indies. The only part, therefore, taken by Portugal was in 1501, when one of her navigators explored the Atlantic coast from Maine to Newfoundland. The maritime nations in western Europe at this time were Spain, England, France, and Portugal. Holland was subject to Spain, and did not become independent until the opening of the seventeenth century, so that no step was taken by her until the first English settlement had been planted in Virginia. Italy and Germany were broken up into numerous weak states, Nor-

Maritime  
 Nations  
 of the  
 Period



way had lost its prestige, and Sweden was not strong enough to enter into the tremendous contest for possessions in the New World.

Columbus was as eager as were his sovereigns to complete his grand work, and he had no trouble in fitting out an immense expedition, consisting of three large ships and fourteen caravels carrying fifteen hundred men, among whom were twelve missionaries, filled with a holy zeal for the conversion of the heathen, and an abundance of animals and material for colonization. This fleet sailed from Cadiz, September 25th, 1493.

This expedition, which promised so much, met nothing but failure and disaster. It seemed as if after Columbus had made his great discovery his work was done, and it would have been well for his fame had he rested on the laurels already won, and never again crossed the ocean. The men who now went with him were mostly adventurers and rogues, whose one desire was to gather the gold which they believed existed in untold quantities in America. Columbus was a poor governor, and unable to control the quarrelsome, mutinous horde under his charge, for whose misdoings he was held responsible. He discovered a number of islands, and received his first shock when he called at La Navidad and found not one of the men left there alive. Forty miles to the east of Cape Haytien a fort was erected and a settlement planted, to which he gave the name of Isabella. He explored the southern coast of Cuba and discovered Jamaica, which he named Santiago (*sahn-ti-ah'go*), and threaded his way through a mass of islands which he called the Garden of the Queen. In the month of June, 1495, he sent five ship-loads of natives to Seville to be sold as slaves. It was a brutal act, without excuse, and the king and queen, as soon as they learned what had been done, ordered the shocking traffic to be stopped. Finally, Columbus returned to Spain, where he arrived June 11th, 1496. He was full of misgiving, for he knew his enemies had been busy, but to his great relief his sovereigns received him kindly. His request to be sent on a third expedition was granted, and he sailed again with six ships, May 30th, 1498.

This voyage ranks next to the first in importance, for on the 1st of August he saw for the first time the mainland of South America, near the mouth of the Orinoco River. He had not the faintest suspicion that the land which he discovered was anything but a series of islands, to which he gave various names. Anxious for the welfare

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DISCOVERY  
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TO  
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Colum-  
bus sails  
on his  
Second  
Voyage,  
Sept.  
25th,  
1493

Return of  
Colum-  
bus to  
Spain,  
June  
11th,  
1496

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AND EX-  
PLORATION  
1000  
TO  
1590  
—

Colum-  
bus in  
Irons

of the colony of Isabella, he sailed thither and found everything topsy-turvy. His attempts to bring order out of discord made matters worse. His enemies became so bitter against him that they resolved not to stop their persecutions until his ruin was effected. So many malicious reports of his conduct were sent to Spain, that the sovereigns sent Francisco de Bobadilla with full authority to set things right. He deposed Columbus from his power, and sent him to Spain in irons. The captain of the ship was so moved with pity that he offered to strike the irons from his illustrious prisoner. But Columbus would not permit it. He said they had been placed upon him by order of their majesties, and they alone had power to remove them. He added that he would always keep them as relics and memorials of the reward for his services.

Isabella lost no time in having the irons taken off. She was indignant at the infamous treatment, and she and her husband expressed their anger in unmistakable terms. The welcome of Columbus at Granada, in December, 1499, was warm and cordial. Although he was much broken in spirit and body, he entreated to be sent upon a fourth expedition, which was granted, and he sailed with four caravels and one hundred and fifty men from Cadiz, May 9th, 1502. On this voyage he discovered the island of Martinique (*mar-te-neck'*), but disaster, sorrow, and suffering met him now at every turn, and when he returned to Seville, November 7th, 1504, he was sick, and utterly broken in health. A few weeks later, the good Queen Isabella, his best and truest friend, died, and he felt that no hope remained to him, for the king was cold and selfish. He refused to give Columbus the honors and rewards he and the queen had solemnly bound themselves to give, and allowed him to die in utter poverty. He passed away at Valladolid (*val'la-do-lid'* or *lēēd'*), May 20th, 1506, his last words being: "O Lord, into Thy hands I commit my spirit."

His  
Death,  
May  
20th,  
1506

The remains of the great man were placed in the convent of San Francisco, where they lay without stone or inscription for seven years, when the king from very shame caused the bones to be removed to Seville, and placed beneath a marble tomb bearing the inscription:

A Castilla y a Leon  
Nuevo Mundo Dio Colon.

These words mean: "To Castile and Leon, Columbus gave a New



FROM THE ORIGINAL PAINTING BY WARREN SHEPPARD

DISCOVERY OF SOUTH AMERICA

PERIOD I  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
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 1000  
 TO  
 1590

World,"—a solemn truth, but with what neglect and injustice was the great discoverer repaid!

The remains of his son, Diego, were afterwards laid beside those of his father, where they reposed until 1536, when both bodies were exhumed and removed to San Domingo and buried in the cathedral. They were not disturbed again until 1795–96, when, because of the cession of the island to the French, they were transferred to the cathedral of Havana. Late investigations give good ground for the belief that only the remains of the son were taken from Hispaniola, and that, therefore, the ashes of Columbus rest where they were placed in 1536.

Some years ago, a magnificent monument was erected to the memory of Columbus in his native city of Genoa, where the house in which he was born has been fully identified. The tomb is forty feet in height, and is composed of the finest Carrara marble. The honors paid to his memory in 1893, by our own country, upon the celebration of the four-hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America, were greater than Columbus has ever received from any other nation, and formed a fitting crown to the grandeur and majesty of his achievements.

Tribute  
 paid by  
 Wash-  
 ington  
 Irving

The character of Columbus has been eloquently summed up by Washington Irving: "In him," he says, "were singularly combined the practical and the poetical. His mind had grasped all kinds of knowledge, whether procured by study or observation, which bore upon his theories; impatient of the scanty aliment of the day, 'his impetuous ardor,' as has been well observed, 'threw him into the study of the fathers of the church, the Arabian Jews, and the ancient geographers;' while his daring, but irregular genius, bursting from the limits of imperfect science, bore him to conclusions far beyond the intellectual vision of his contemporaries. If some of his conclusions were erroneous, they were at least ingenious and splendid. And their error resulted from the clouds which still hung over his peculiar path of enterprise. His own discoveries enlightened the ignorance of the age, guided conjecture to certainty, and dispelled that very darkness with which he had been obliged to struggle. It has been said that mercenary views mingled with the ambition of Columbus, and that his stipulations with the Spanish court were selfish and avaricious. The charge is inconsiderate and unjust. He aimed at dignity and wealth in the same lofty spirit in which he

sought renown; they were to be part and parcel of the achievement, and palpable evidence of its success; they were to arise from the territories he should discover, and be commensurate in importance. No condition could be more just.”\*

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1000  
TO  
1590  
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\* At the sixty-fourth annual meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, held at Oxford in the summer of 1894, a remarkable statement was made by Mr. H. Yule Oldham, to the effect that the continent of America was discovered by a Portuguese navigator forty-five years before Columbus sighted the Bahamas.

This statement of Mr. Oldham's has been received by geographers with some expression of incredulity. The New York *Sun* commented upon it with its wonted fairness and intelligence. The following remarks are based chiefly upon the *Sun's* observations.

Now, it is well understood that there are three routes by which, in the days of sailing ships, the Atlantic might most easily be crossed from east to west. First, there is the northern route, followed by the Norsemen, and by John Cabot, in 1497, when he discovered Newfoundland and coasted the North American mainland for a considerable distance. The central route had its natural starting-point at the Canary Islands, whence vessels, their prows turned westward, received the steady and powerful propulsion of the northeast trade winds. This was the course taken by Columbus, and by most of the other mariners in the Spanish service. The third or southern route, however, was the shortest and easiest. To render it available, it was only necessary, in the southward progress of discovery, to reach Cape Verde, from which point the united action of trade winds and ocean currents would strongly impel a vessel toward Cape St. Roque, at the northeast corner of Brazil. This actually happened in 1500, when the Portuguese navigator, Cabral, while on his way to the Cape of Good Hope, was, when in the latitude of Cape Verde, driven westward by a tempest, and not only discovered the mouth of the Amazon, but skirted along a part of the Brazilian coast.

What Mr. Oldham attempts to prove is that this inevitable outcome of Portuguese navigation along the west coast of Africa was realized many years before Cabral's discovery of Brazil. Cape Verde, he reminds us, was first made known by a Portuguese expedition sent out by Prince Henry, the Navigator, in 1445, and during the years immediately following many vessels were despatched from Portugal on further explorations in the same direction. One of these vessels, Mr. Oldham claims, reached the coast of Brazil as early as 1447. In Antonio Galvano's work on "The Discoveries of the World," published in the middle of the sixteenth century, a Portuguese ship is stated to have been driven westward in 1447 by a great tempest, and borne to an island from which gold was brought home.

This statement, if unsubstantiated, could not be accepted; but it has been corroborated by a manuscript map, preserved at Milan, dated 1448, and drawn by the well-known cartographer, Andrea Bianco, of Venice. In addition to the Portuguese discoveries on the African mainland, this map shows, southwest of Cape Verde, a long coast line with the designation "Authentic Island," and an inscription to the effect that it stretched fifteen hundred miles westward. This map was made in London, and Mr. Oldham assumes that it contained information obtained from Portugal about the voyage recorded by Galvano. Opposed to this view, it has been urged that the reported existence of gold in the direction named would have impelled Prince Henry to renewed adventures in the west; but the unquestioned incident of Cabral proves that such an occurrence was certain to take place, sooner or later; and it cannot be said, therefore, that the story told by Galvano is improbable.

**Claim to  
the Dis-  
covery of  
South  
America  
by Portu-  
guese,  
1447.**



## CHAPTER V

### *THE SPANISH EXPLORERS IN AMERICA*

[*Authorities*: For the general reader, and by way of introduction to Spanish exploration in the New World, Prescott's "Ferdinand and Isabella" should be consulted, with Sir Arthur Helps' "Spanish Conquest in America," and Robert MacKenzie's "America" (Chapter on Spanish America). The authorities on early Mexican and Peruvian civilization, of a popular character, are still Prescott's "Conquest of Mexico" and "Conquest of Peru," with Hale's "Story of Mexico" (in "Story of the Nations Series"). For special narratives of individual explorers, see the Lives of Cortez, Pizarro, Balboa, Ponce de Leon, De Soto, and Narvaez. Vogel's "Century of Discovery," Higginson's "Explorers of the New World," also Murray's "Catholic Pioneers of America."]

Early  
Rival  
Mari-  
time  
Nations



THE great discovery of Columbus caused a profound excitement throughout the then civilized world. The leading maritime nations of Europe at that time were Portugal, Spain, England, and France. It will be remembered that when Columbus became discouraged over his repeated failures to enlist the interest of the Spanish and Portuguese rulers, he sent his brother Bartholomew to seek the aid of Henry the Seventh, of England. Bartholomew, for several reasons, was slow in making his application to the British monarch, who responded at once, however, on being approached on the subject. He sent Bartholomew to Spain to bring his brother to England, but on the way thither he learned of the wonderful discovery made by Christopher, and of his return to the country of Ferdinand and Isabella.

King Henry was deeply disappointed, for the grandest of all opportunities had slipped irrevocably from his grasp, but he quickly saw that if he could not be the first at the feast, he might share with others in the distribution of the good things to follow. When John

Cabot, a famous Italian navigator living at Bristol in 1496, asked permission for himself and his sons to explore the New World, it was readily granted, and Cabot, accompanied by his son, Sebastian, sailed from England in the following year, and saw the continent of America, in June, 1497. It was this fact which gave England a well-founded claim to the American continent.

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DISCOVERY  
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PLORATION  
1000  
TO  
1590  
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Sebastian Cabot was a greater navigator than his father. King Henry fitted out two small vessels for him, in 1498, and in May he sailed for the northern coast of America.

The  
Cabots,  
1497 and  
1498

The particulars of this remarkable voyage are not known, but there is little doubt that the younger Cabot coasted along New England, New York, and as far south as Cape Hatteras. He, like those who preceded him and many that followed, was bitten with the chimerical notion of discovering a short route to India, which, of course, he failed to find. He discovered



SEBASTIAN CABOT

Newfoundland and the coast of Labrador, and did not fail to note the immense number of codfish which then, as now, frequented those northern waters. Finding his provisions running short when off the Carolinas, Cabot returned to England. His failure to discover the elusive northwestern passage, or to bring back any gold, was a disappointment to the British monarch, and, for a long time, England took no further interest in the New World.

It seems strange that, while every one concedes that Christopher Columbus was the real discoverer of America, it was named in honor of another person who had only a qualified claim to such distinction. Amerigo Vespucci (*ah-mā-ree'go ves-poot'chee*) was a Florentine, born about the year 1451. His business in Seville was the furnishing of supplies for ships, and fitting them out for exploring and mercantile expeditions. The achievements of Columbus stirred the ambition of Vespucci to become a great discoverer, and by some it is thought that he was not the one to hesitate at the means by which to gain such a reputation. He cultivated the friendship of Columbus, who fully trusted him, and in May, 1499, Vespucci accompanied the expedition of De Ojeda (*O-hā'-dah*), which consisted of four ships. They saw the coast of South America, and visited Trinidad, which Columbus had named the preceding year. They kidnapped a number of

Amerigo  
Vespucci

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 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
 1000  
 TO  
 1590

natives in the Antilles, took them to Spain, and sold them into slavery.

Vespucci, who seems to have been an astronomer, wrote a long account of his discoveries, and declared that he sailed on his voyage in 1497. If this be true, he would seem to have antedated the discoveries both of Columbus and Cabot, but though, especially in late



AMERIGO VESPUCCI

The name "America," how it came to be Applied

years, a number of historians have expressed the belief that Vespucci was entitled to all that he claimed, investigation does not clear up the doubt. It is insisted that he had made other important voyages, of which no record exists, and, after Columbus had died, his narratives were published in the German province of Lorraine. The name of *America* applied to the new country would appear to have been the work of early map-makers; and a learned German teacher, Waldseemüller, was, it is thought, instrumental in affixing the name *America* as applied to the New World.

Spain, having gained the glory of discovering a New World, was not the nation to let slip any advantage within her grasp. Possessed, herself, of a mild climate, it was natural that she should give her attention to the southern or warmer portions of the continent her sons had discovered, leaving other nations to wrangle over the colder and less inviting sections. Hence her continued conquests and discoveries in the regions south of the Equator.

Ponce de Leon,  
 1512

A halo of romance lingers around the name of Ponce de Leon (*pon'thā-dā-lā-ōn'*). He was a noted Spanish soldier, a companion of Columbus on his second voyage, and belonged to an ancient and noble family. Although his locks bore the frost of many winters, and his shoulders were bending under the weight of years, his eye was bright, and the ambition of youth burned in his veins. A strange story came to his ears from the Indians in Southern America, who told of crystal fountains and streams, and of a miraculous spring, whose waters brought back youth and vigor to all who bathed in or partook of them.

The old cavalier was thrilled by this marvellous story. He thought of it by day and dreamed of it by night. His face was wrinkled, his muscles, hardened to iron in valiant conflict against the Moors, were







THE DISCOVERY OF THE PACIFIC



FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY J. STEEPLE DAVIS

SEARCH FOR THE FOUNTAIN OF YOUTH

PERIOD I  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
 1000  
 TO  
 1590

losing their strength, his white locks were growing thin, and the passing years were pressing heavily upon him. Ah, if he could but find the Fountain of Youth! He resolved to go in search of it.

So, early in the spring of 1513, De Leon sailed from Porto Rico for the Bahamas, in quest of the wonderful fountain. He was wealthy enough to bear the whole expense of the expedition, for what sum will not age give to regain the fresh beauty and activities of youth? Reaching the Bahamas, the old cavalier and his men visited the islands, one after the other, drinking from lake, stream, pond, spring, and rivulet, until compelled to admit that the Fountain of Youth must be sought for elsewhere. The ships sailed towards the northwest. By and by the gentle breezes brought with them the fragrance of flowers, and the hearts of the adventurers thrilled once more with hope. Far off, over the gently heaving sea, the soft wooded shores, aflame with brilliant color, rose to view. The perfume of the magnolia was rendered delicate by the ocean's balmy breezes, and the land seemed a veritable Paradise.

Discov-  
 ery of  
 Florida,  
 Easter,  
 1513

"Here is the wonderful country! Here surely is the Fountain of Youth!" exclaimed the delighted De Leon, as he sprang ashore from the little boat and seemed already to feel the revivifying life in his veins. It was Easter morning, and the landing was made near the present city of St. Augustine. Religious ceremonies were held in commemoration of the sacred day, and possession of the supposed island was taken in the name of the Castilian sovereign.

The happy discoverer gave the name of Florida to the new country, some say because he first saw it on Palm Sunday (*Pascua Florida*, Spanish for "flowery Easter"), while others claim that it was on account of its florid and blooming appearance. De Leon and his men prosecuted their search for the magical Fountain, but the sad truth soon forced itself upon them that the story was a myth. He cruised among the neighboring islands, and named them Tortugas, because of their abundance of turtles. Finally, he went back to Porto Rico, older and wiser than when he set out in search of the fabled spring. Although he had not found it, he had gained fame as the discoverer of one of the most interesting portions of America.

The old soldier now returned to Spain with an account of what he had seen. The king granted his request, and made him governor of Florida, on condition that he should plant a colony there. De Leon waited several years, during which the fact was established that

Florida is not an island, but a part of the mainland. Finally, in 1521, he sailed from Porto Rico with two ships, and landed again in Florida, near where he had set foot eight years before. But the natives by this time had learned of the evil disposition of the white men, and so they gathered on the shore to dispute the landing of the Spaniards. A brisk battle followed, in which several of the white men were killed and others wounded. Among the latter was De Leon himself, who was so deeply pierced by an Indian arrow that he was taken to Cuba, where he died.

It was at this time that the Spaniards in Haiti became interested in the southern section of our country, on account of the reports brought to them by those who had visited it and made partial explorations. They said that gold abounded, and that the sturdy natives were the best of slaves. A company was formed in Haiti, at the head of which was Lucas Vasquez D'Allyon (*däl-yone'*), a wealthy colonist.

An expedition, consisting of two ships, left Haiti in 1520, and landed on the coast of South Carolina. The simple-minded natives treated these visitors with hospitality, and the Spaniards showed them the utmost kindness, until their suspicion was lulled. Then, having enticed a number on board, they held them prisoners and sailed away. Many of the kidnapped natives were so heartbroken that they refused to eat or drink, and ere long died, while one of the vessels foundered at sea, and all on board were lost. D'Allyon carried the remaining natives to Haiti, where they were made slaves and subjected to the greatest cruelty.

D'Allyon, like nearly all of the early Spanish discoverers and ex-

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De  
Leon's  
Second  
Landing  
in  
Florida,  
1521



FATAL WOUNDING OF DE LEON

D'Allyon's  
Expedition,  
1520

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 AND EX-  
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 1000  
 TO  
 1590

plorers, was a curse to the country. He deserved the sharpest punishment for his perfidy; but the sovereign of Spain appointed him ruler of the Carolina country, with authority to plant a colony there. The natives seemed to have forgotten his baseness, and he began a settlement near the present site of Beaufort, South Carolina.

The colony was hardly established when a delegation of Indians waited upon D'Allyon, and invited the Spaniards to join them in a feast, near the mouth of the river. The invitation was accepted by



THE STOWAWAY

two hundred, who were treated with the greatest hospitality during the feasting, which lasted for three days and nights. At last, the surfeited Spaniards lay down and slept, and while they did so the Indians fell upon and massacred them all. Then they rushed to where the others were building their houses, and attacked them with the utmost fury. Many were killed, but a few escaped to the ships. Among them was D'Allyon, who was, however, mortally wounded. The crime of the cruel white

men was avenged, and the first Europeans who attempted to settle within our present domain were blotted from the face of the earth.

Vasco  
 Nunez de  
 Balboa,  
 1501

Vasco Nuñez de Balboa was a young Spanish adventurer of noble family, but so impoverished that, in 1501, he crossed the ocean to the West Indies in the hope of repairing his fortunes. He met with only partial success in Haiti, or Hispaniola, and once more fell into debt. In those days a person's creditors could put him in prison for his misfortune, and keep him there until he or his friends paid his indebtedness. Balboa had no intention of suffering this indignity, and he hit upon an ingenious scheme to escape from it. He caused himself to be nailed up in a large barrel, among some others containing provisions, and was taken on board a vessel without the captain or any of

the crew suspecting the ruse. When the vessel was fairly at sea, Balboa broke out of his prison and presented himself before the captain, who was so angered because of the deception that he threatened to leave the young man on the first uninhabited island they sighted. Balboa, however, succeeded in winning the good-will of the chief officer, who did not carry out his threat.

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 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
 1000  
 TO  
 1590

The vessel, after many mishaps, landed its officers and crew at a village on the banks of a river, which the natives called Darien. Quarrels arose among the Spaniards, and the plotting Balboa succeeded in placing himself at their head. Soon after, he heard accounts of an immense ocean to the westward, where gold was as abundant as pebbles on the seashore. Balboa was fired with the ambition to make the great discovery, and to gather the enormous reported wealth, which no white man had yet claimed, for none knew of its existence.

Balboa  
 at Da-  
 rien,  
 1510 to  
 1514

Balboa applied to Don Diego Columbus (the brother of Christopher), in Hispaniola, for men and supplies with which to cross the isthmus, for he was told that he would have to fight his way to the shores of the great sea. He left Darien with nearly two hundred men, a number of bloodhounds, and several Indian guides. The firearms of the Spaniards spread consternation and death among the natives, who could make only a weak defence with their spears and bows and arrows.

Just before noon, on the 26th of September, 1513, Balboa halted at the base of a rocky mountain peak, and ordered his men to hold their places while he ascended the promontory alone. They obeyed, and watched him as he laboriously climbed upward. When he reached the highest point, they saw him pause and stand like one overcome with rapture and awe. Such indeed was the truth, for Balboa was gazing upon the mightiest ocean of the globe. The wicked man forgot his vileness for the time, and, sinking upon his knees, poured out his soul in thankfulness to God, for the great discovery which He had permitted him to make.

Discov-  
 ery of the  
 Pacific  
 Ocean,  
 Sept.  
 26th,  
 1513

When he was able to master his emotion, he turned and beckoned to his followers to join him, and they eagerly did so. They, too, were profoundly impressed with the grandeur of the discovery, and united with him in thanks to Heaven. They promised to stand by him to the death in his efforts to conquer the country for their king, and to win wealth for themselves. Balboa called the

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 AND EX-  
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 1000  
 TO  
 1590  
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vast body of water the South Sea. It was Magellan (who, some years later, sailed through the straits bearing his name, and died while trying to circumnavigate the globe) who named it the Pacific Ocean, because its waters are calmer than those of the Atlantic.

Balboa took possession of the sea, its coast, and all the islands, in the name of the sovereigns of Spain, and a paper to that effect was drawn up and signed by himself and the sixty-seven soldiers who had climbed the summit after him. A tree was cut down and made into the form of a cross, which was planted in the earth as a sacred memorial of what had been done. The party now descended the mountain and advanced to meet the tide, which was flowing in. Balboa entered the water until it rose almost to his waist, when, with drawn sword, he again shouted that he took possession of the seas and islands in the name of the sovereigns of Spain. Another certificate was drawn up and signed, and then the ceremonies were considered at an end.

Death of  
 Balboa,  
 1517

Balboa made several voyages along the Pacific coast, and learned of the rich kingdom of Peru, which was afterwards conquered by Pizarro, one of the most cruel and avaricious of men. Nearly all of the early Spanish explorers treated the natives with revolting barbarity. A rival, named Davila, brought charges against Balboa, and beheaded him at Acla, in Central America, in 1517.

Pam-  
 philio de  
 Narvaez  
 in  
 Florida,  
 1528

Pamphilio de Narvaez (*nar-vah'eth*) succeeded Cortez, the cruel conqueror of Mexico, and in June, 1527, sailed with six hundred men in five vessels, commissioned by his king to conquer and rule Florida, where it was believed that vast wealth awaited garnering. He remained for a long time in Cuba, from which he finally set out with four hundred men and nearly a hundred horses. He landed at Tampa Bay, in April, 1528, and assumed possession of the country, the terrified natives fleeing before his approach.

One of the strangest facts connected with the early, and, in many cases, the later history of our country, is that the men who set foot on our shores with the purpose of reclaiming the land rarely, if ever, sought to win the good-will of the Indians by treating them with justice and kindness. We have shown that Thorwald, the Norseman, was killed because of his wanton massacre of some unoffending natives; while those who, five hundred years later, came after him were as short-sighted and savage as he. It would be thought that when a party of explorers entered an unknown country, self-interest



would lead them to strive to gain the good-will of the people, who were ready not only to bring them food, but had the power to inflict great injury upon them. Such, however, was not the case.

De Narvaez relied upon his weapons to conquer a country which might have been gained without the shedding of a drop of blood. When an Indian chief was captured, Narvaez cut off his nose, and his Cuban bloodhounds were kept busy rending with their fangs the

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 AND EX-  
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 1000  
 TO  
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THE SOLE SURVIVOR

hapless captives. Such barbarities caused the natives to look upon the invaders as monsters whom they resolved to destroy—a fate which they well deserved.

Ordering his ships to sail along the coast, De Narvaez advanced into the interior, where, from what he had been told, he expected to find an Indian town as full of gold and precious stones, and as highly civilized, as those which welcomed Pizarro in Peru. But the bitterest of disappointments met him. In place of gold and silver and abundant food, they came upon dismal swamps, tangled forests,

**Spanish  
 Inhu-  
 manity  
 towards  
 the  
 Indians**

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 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
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 TO  
 1590

Suffer-  
 ings of  
 Nar-  
 vaez's  
 Expedi-  
 tion

smothering heat, starvation, and the hostility of the natives, who fired their arrows with deadly effect from the surrounding woods. When it became clear that destruction awaited them if they advanced, De Narvaez and his men turned and retraced their footsteps.

The return march was dreadful beyond description. They had to wade pestilential morasses, with the slime up to their shoulders; meeting venomous reptiles, the hot, unhealthful climate, wire-like vines, brambles as sharp as needles, tormenting insects, and, above all, the ceaseless attacks of the natives, who gave them rest neither day nor night. When, at last, the few wretched survivors reached the coast and looked longingly out upon the Gulf of Mexico, they saw nothing of the wished-for ships. But the sea offered the only chance of saving their lives, and, after much difficulty, they built one or two boats, in which they placed a small quantity of Indian corn, and then began sailing along the coast in the direction of the mouth of the Mississippi. The most frightful sufferings, however, overtook them, for their water and provisions gave out, and the boats were scattered by one of those fierce gales called "northers." De Narvaez perished, and but one Spaniard out of the entire expedition lived to reach Spain. Although a captive for eight years among the Indians, he gradually worked his way across what is now Texas to a port on the Gulf of California, where he was befriended by his countrymen. He finally returned to his home, like one risen from the dead, and published an account of his amazing adventures.

Disaster and misfortune could not repress the Spanish greed of conquest and riches. The tales of suffering, failure, and death served rather to whet the appetite of the adventurers, who would not believe that the New World would ever fail to yield to them of its fabled riches and overflowing mineral wealth.

Her-  
 nando de  
 Soto,  
 1539 to  
 1542

One of the men who had helped Pizarro to conquer Peru was Hernando de Soto. He returned to Spain wealthy and famous, and, when he proposed to lead an expedition for the conquest of Florida, the eager volunteers were so numerous that he had only to select those whom he wished to accompany him. The sovereign was quite willing to authorize the expedition when De Soto agreed to bear the whole expense. The king made him governor of Cuba, and captain-general of all the provinces which he might conquer. The six hundred adventurers who flocked to the standard of the elegant cavalier, then not forty years old, belonged to the noblest families of Spain.

The expedition consisted of ten vessels, seven of which were of large size. All were in high spirits, and so abundantly supplied with provisions that music, dancing, and feasting, and an endless round of gayety marked the voyage to Cuba, where De Soto spent a year in perfecting his plans for the conquest of Florida. These were of the most detailed and comprehensive character. Public affairs in Cuba were left in charge of his beautiful young wife and a lieuten-

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TO  
1590



DE SOTO'S EXPEDITION

ant-governor, while a vessel was sent in advance to Florida to kidnap some natives to serve as guides and interpreters.

On the 30th of May, 1539, the fleet of nine vessels and a thousand men, with swine, cattle, mules, and horses, anchored in Tampa Bay, in sight of the spot where De Narvaez, eleven years before, had set out on his ill-starred expedition. The fateful lesson of that venture was lost upon De Soto, who made an attempt to capture the natives almost as soon as he set foot in the country; but the Indians had not forgotten the perfidy of their former visitors, and kept themselves beyond reach. In one of the attacks, a captive Spaniard was

**Euro-  
pean Per-  
fidy and  
Indian  
Cruelty**

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 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
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Indian  
 Re-  
 prisals

discovered and released, and proved to be an invaluable interpreter to De Soto.

The invaders were supplied with fire-arms and the best weapons then known. Their heavy armor was invulnerable to the spears and arrows of the natives, and the slaughter of the poor creatures became a pastime, attended only by a slight degree of danger to the Spaniards, who did not neglect to take with them a number of fierce bloodhounds from Cuba. But the Indians were desperate, and they began fighting the invaders, and continued to fight them, contesting every rood of the ground from the hour they landed. Nor did they omit to repay cruelty with cruelty, for when a prisoner fell into their hands they meted out to him the same torture that was inflicted upon their own unfortunate comrades.

The barbarities of the Spaniards were shocking beyond belief. There was no indignity, no cruelty, no outrage which was not perpetrated upon the hapless men, women, and children; but the retaliation of the warriors was so unsparing that De Soto invited a powerful Creek chief to meet him for a friendly talk. The chief scorned the invitation, called the white men by their right name, and gave them warning that he would never cease making war upon them, as long as one of the accursed race remained in the country. This threat was carried out to the letter, not only by that chief, but by his associates. Unable to defeat the Spaniards in open warfare, they resorted to ambush and stealthy surprises, and killed scores, whose heads were chopped off and carried on the ends of poles to their leaders.

De Soto wintered near the present site of Tallahassee, and in early spring marched northward, where he had been told that gold abounded. An Indian queen, who welcomed him with the gentlest hospitality and made him numerous presents, was made a prisoner and held as a hostage for the good behavior of her people towards the invaders. She succeeded after a time in effecting her escape, and became one of the bitterest enemies of the "Christians," who were a hundredfold more perfidious than the most treacherous and bloodthirsty of her race.

De  
 Soto's  
 Ill-  
 starred  
 Wander-  
 ings

It would be tedious to give the particulars of De Soto's long and aimless wanderings through the southwestern section of our country, for the same story of outrage was daily repeated. There was brutality or treachery on the part of the Spaniards, and relentless enmity on the part of the Indians. The latter suffered much greater

losses in open combat because of the inferiority of their weapons; but they far outnumbered the white men, who slowly but surely melted away before their incessant attacks.

The course of De Soto has never been traced with certainty. He and his dwindling followers crossed northern Georgia and northeastern Alabama, where a terrific onslaught was made upon them by the

PERIOD I  
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 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
 1000  
 TO  
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DEATH OF DE SOTO

Mobilian Indians; in which, though the latter were defeated, they inflicted great loss upon the Spaniards.

Learning that his ships were in Pensacola Bay, doubtless with an abundance of supplies, De Soto determined to march thither. He discovered, however, that a plot had been formed to seize the ships and sail for Peru, leaving him behind. The enraged leader then faced the other way, and, to the dismay of his followers, the northward march was resumed in November, 1540.

The fighting was renewed, and waged with the same fury as before. The winter, which was a severe one, was passed in the coun-

On-  
 slaught  
 by the  
 Mobilian  
 Indians

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 DISCOVERY  
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 PLORATION  
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 TO  
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try of the Chickasaws, around the upper tributaries of the Yazoo. When about to resume the march in the spring, a furious engagement took place with the Chickasaws, in which the Spaniards narrowly escaped annihilation. It was a forlorn, woe-begone company which in April began tramping again through the wilderness, blindly groping for the land where De Soto had been told he would find gold without stint.

Discov-  
 ery of the  
 Missis-  
 sippi,  
 May,  
 1541

In the month of May, 1541, the explorers reached the bank of the Mississippi River, above the mouth of the St. Francis. That great stream was full to overflowing, and the men stood a long time, actuated by a feeling of awe and admiration, for they were gazing upon one of the mightiest rivers of the world. They were the first Europeans to see that stream above its mouth, which had been observed as early as 1519 by Alvarez de Pineda.

But the famishing and weakened adventurers were not yet ready to give up their search for gold and for the Pacific Ocean, which they believed was now not far away. They crossed the Mississippi, and, it is believed, wandered to the westward, almost to the eastern slopes of the Rocky Mountains. The winter of 1541-42 was spent near the headwaters of the Arkansas, and in the spring they returned to the Mississippi, at a point a short distance north of the mouth of the Arkansas. There De Soto attempted to found a colony, having at last convinced himself that the gold which he had sought so long had no actual existence. The site selected was on the eastern shore, in Bolivar county, Mississippi.

Death of  
 De Soto,  
 May,  
 1542

The intense hostility of the Indians could not be overcome, and the explorer finally lost heart in the enterprise that had been undertaken with such high hopes and brilliant prospects. His only wish now was to reach Cuba, and join his wife and friends there. He had been wounded severely in battle, and his iron frame was weakened by suffering and disease. Under his direction, the construction of two brigantines was begun, in which it was intended to float down the Mississippi, and cross the Gulf to Cuba. The work was hardly under way, when the virulent fever which had seized De Soto warned him that death was at hand. At his request, his attendants carried him from his wretched hut and gently laid him down under the shade of a leafy oak. There he called his friends around him, asked their forgiveness for all the harm he had done them, urged them to keep together, received the administrations of the priests,

bade farewell to all, and closed his eyes in death. His body was consigned to the waters of the Mississippi, lest the Indians should wantonly desecrate the grave.

What a sad ending of a magnificent enterprise! The one thousand men, including the flower of the Castilian chivalry, armed from head to foot, furnished with arms, ammunition, supplies, horses, and everything that could be needed, and animated by the thirst of conquest and glory, with the lure before their eyes of untold riches, were now reduced to three hundred emaciated vagrants, clothed in rags, or the skins of wild animals. Unspeakably depressed at the loss of their leader, they placed his body in a rude coffin, made by partially hollowing out the trunk of an oak, and, in the darkness of midnight, sank the weighted remains, as we have said, to the bottom of the river.

The miserable band, left to themselves, spent a year in wandering through the wilderness to the west of the Mississippi, hoping to find the city of Mexico. Finally, they returned to the river and launched the brigantines, in which they floated down stream to the Spanish settlement of Panuco, on the coast of Mexico, where they arrived in September. Thence they visited the capital and were entertained by the viceroy. Havana was thrown into gloom by the tidings of the hapless expedition, and the wife of De Soto, who had waited so long for her husband, sank into a decline and died of a broken heart.

PERIOD I  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
 1000  
 TO  
 1590

Return  
 of the  
 Hapless  
 Expedi-  
 tion



THE WARRING NATIONS



## CHAPTER VI

### *THE FRENCH EXPLORERS IN AMERICA*

[*Authorities:* Vol. II. Winsor's "Narrative and Critical History of America;" the standard U. S. Histories; the chief Canadian and French-Canadian histories of Kingsford, Miles, Charlevoix; "Champlain's Voyages," and Abbé Ferland's "Canada." Pope's monograph on "Jacques Cartier," and Machar's "Stories of New France," are interesting works, and chiefly so are the brilliant narratives of Parkman, "Pioneers of France in the New World" and "Jesuits in North America in the 17th Century." The Canadian histories may also be referred to for an account of the attempts at founding a Huguenot colony in Acadia, with Baird's "Huguenot Emigration to America."]



*French Missionary*

**Maritime  
Activity  
under  
Francis  
I.**

**I**N the foregoing pages, the activity of Spain has been shown in pushing her explorations in America. These, it will be remembered, were mostly confined to the southern portions, but that nation was not left to press her exploring enterprises alone.

We have learned that the other leading maritime powers were Portugal, England, and France, to which must also now be added Holland. England was tardy in moving, and allowed a hundred years to roll by after the discoveries of the Cabots before she made any serious attempt at exploration or settlement. Holland, after gaining her independence from Spain, preferred opening new avenues for trade, and waited until she saw a chance of profitable barter with the natives before giving much attention to the New World. France, however, grew jealous of the success of Spain, and soon sent her navigators and explorers to spy out and claim portions of the land on the other side of the Atlantic.

The first French expedition was undertaken in the reign of Francis



I. by John Verrazzani (*vā-rah-sah'ny*), a native of Italy, which country, it will have been seen, furnished the chief navigators and explorers connected with the New World. Verrazzani sailed from the Madeiras in January, 1524, in command of three ships; but two were disabled by a severe storm, and he continued his voyage with only one. Two months later, he reached the American coast, along which he cruised for several months. A letter which Verrazzani wrote to his king is relied upon by historians for an account of his discoveries, but the information contained in that letter is so vague that many discredit the entire narrative.

According to Verrazzani's story, he first sighted the coast of North Carolina in March, 1524. He landed a small company of men near Albemarle Sound, where they were treated hospitably, and returned the kindness by kidnapping a native child. As a consequence, the Indians formed a hatred of the whites, which showed itself more than half a century later, when the English attempted to settle the region.

Verrazzani seems to have pushed his voyage northward as far as the coast of Maine, touching at various points, such as New York and Narragansett Bay, and assiduously seeking for the shorter passage to India, which had been sought by Columbus and the Cabots. He named the country *New France*, and returning home, vanishes from the pages of history. There is some reason for believing that he made other voyages to this country. At any rate, to Verrazzani must be given the credit of first declaring the correct theory of the size of the globe, in opposition to that maintained by all other navigators of his time.

France waited ten years before showing any further interest in the New World. On April 20th, 1534, Jacques Cartier (*kār'-tē-ā*) a skilful navigator, sailed from St. Malo, in command of two ships, of sixty tons each, with a crew of one hundred and twenty men. Some weeks later he reached the coast of Newfoundland, and sailed through the Straits of Belle Isle into the Gulf of St. Lawrence. In July of the same year he entered Bay Chaleur, and explored the Gaspé coast. This he took possession of in the name of France and set up a rough wooden cross as a token of French sovereignty over

PERIOD I  
DISCOVERY  
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1000  
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Verraz-  
zani's  
Voyage,  
1524



VERRAZZANI

Jacques  
Cartier's  
First  
Visit to  
Canada,  
1534

PERIOD I  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
 1000  
 TO  
 1590  
 —

Cartier's  
 Second  
 Expedi-  
 tion,  
 1535

the region. The shield which hung upon the cross bore the lilies of France, and a carved inscription—*Vive le Roi de France!*—(“Long live the King of France!”) The savage chief, who with his followers gathered round and curiously watched the ceremonies, suspected the meaning, and gave Cartier to understand by signs that he was king there, and did not intend that any one else should dispute his claim. The Frenchman soothed him by explaining that the cross was intended to serve as a beacon to mariners.

Cartier spent several weeks in further explorations, but soon returned to France, where his report so pleased the king that he sent him on a second expedition in the following spring. On this voyage, Cartier had three ships, the largest of which was of one hundred and twenty tons. These entered the Straits of Belle Isle, July 26th, 1535. His hope of finding the shorter route to India was overthrown by observing, as he ascended the St. Lawrence, that its width narrowed and its waters became fresh: He gave the present name to the Gulf, as he had entered it on St. Lawrence's day, and the designation was afterwards extended to the river.

The leisurely ascent of the stream continued until the explorers anchored at the Indian village of Stadacona, near the site of the present city of Quebec. There, at the entrance of the St. Charles River, the larger ships were left, and Cartier continued his ascent in his smallest ship. The Indians welcomed him with friendly greet-

ings. On his first visit to the St. Lawrence, Cartier had taken two of the natives with him to France, promising to bring them back on his second visit. He kept his promise; and they not only had a wonderful story to tell of their experience, and of what they saw, but did good service by acting as interpreters.

Cartier and his men, after ascending the river to Hochelaga (now Montreal), returned to Stadacona and there spent the

winter. The season was an unusually severe one, and occasioned much suffering to Cartier and his crews, many of whom were attacked with the scurvy. A pestilence, moreover, appeared among the Indians which affected the visitors, carrying off a number and reducing the others for a time to helplessness.



JACQUES CARTIER



FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY JULES TURCAS

CARTIER TAKES POSSESSION OF THE GASPÉ COAST

PERIOD I  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
 1000  
 TO  
 1590

Return of  
 Cartier  
 to  
 France,  
 1536

De Ro-  
 berval's  
 Expedi-  
 tion,  
 1541

In the following spring, Cartier returned to France, arriving at St. Malo, July 17th, 1536. Before sailing he invited a number of Indians on board his own ship, and treacherously carried them away with him; but, some years later, two of them succeeded in reaching their own country again. They had seen and learned a great deal of the strange country across the ocean, but formed a poor idea of the sense of right and the dictates of honor which actuated the white men and professing Christians.

The report taken home by Cartier this time was less favorable than before. The climate was so severe that the St. Lawrence was locked in the grip of the Ice King for several months each year, and nothing had been seen of either gold or precious stones. France was so engrossed in war that four years passed ere she gave her attention again to the New World. Then an expedition was placed under the command of M. de Roberval, a nobleman of Picardy. Cartier received a commission under him, for his knowledge of Canada was too valuable to be lost. The expedition sailed from St. Malo, in the spring of 1541, at the time that De Soto and his hapless followers were wandering through the wilderness and fighting the Indians in the South.

Cartier was displeased with the idea of serving under Roberval, who had been appointed viceroy of Canada. So, when five of the vessels were ready, and Roberval did not appear, he sailed without him, leaving him to follow when he chose. In the latter part of August the ships arrived at Stadacona (Quebec). The Indians showed so much sullenness, because of the treachery of Cartier on his former visit, that he went further up the river, and chose a station for his ships at Cap Rouge; but the natives continued resentful, and the following summer Cartier sailed once more for France.

Entering the harbor of St. John's on his homeward voyage, he found Roberval there on his way to join the colony on the St. Lawrence. Cartier told his superior officer that the natives were so hostile that he dared not remain; the soil was not fertile; there were no diamonds; the winters were frightfully severe, and he advised Roberval to give up his project. But the leader believed that Cartier was moved by jealousy and wished to claim all the glory won thus far for himself. He asserted that he would ascend the St. Lawrence, and, if necessary, conquer the Indians, and ordered Cartier to accompany him with his ships. That night was dark and without a moon. By an

understanding with the captains of the other vessels, they slipped out undetected and made their way back to France, where Cartier spent the remainder of his life in retirement.

Although he was deserted by most of his men, Roberval did not give up the errand which had brought him across the ocean. He learned, however, that Cartier had told the truth. The Indians were hostile, and there was little in the climate or soil to tempt white men

PERIOD I  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
 1000  
 TO  
 1590



ROBERVAL AND CARTIER IN THE CABIN OF THE VICEROY'S SHIP

to live in that part of the country. He made an effort to plant a settlement some distance above the site of Quebec, and built a fort there.

One of the Canadian winters was enough for him. The following year all returned to France, and it was a long time before that country made the next serious effort to plant a colony in America. Then, mindful of the failures in Canada, attention was turned to the southern and more hospitable portions of the continent, where the Spaniards were striving to gain a permanent foothold.

Those of our readers who have studied the history of Europe need not be told that, at the time these incidents were taking place, there

**Failure  
 of the  
 Attempt  
 at Colo-  
 nization,  
 1542**

PERIOD I  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
 1000  
 TO  
 1590  
 ———  
 The  
 Reforma-  
 tion

were fierce religious wars going on in Europe. Luther and Melancthon led a revolt in Germany against the Church of Rome, and another revolt followed in Switzerland. The strife between the Protestants and Roman Catholics became bitter and prolonged. The Reformation, as it was called, made slight progress in France, from which John Calvin, the leading reformer, was banished. He found shelter, however, in Geneva, Switzerland, where he died in 1564.

The French Protestants were called Huguenots, and among the principal leaders left after the banishment of Calvin was Lord Admiral Coligny. He was a brave and honorable man, respected by all parties, and he persuaded the queen to try to reconcile the opposing factions. The effort was a failure, and the persecutions which followed became so fierce that Coligny determined to find a refuge for the Huguenots in America. While doing this, the brave admiral was anxious to add to the glory of his beloved France.

Ribault's  
 Expedi-  
 tion to  
 Florida,  
 1562

In the month of February, 1562, Coligny sent out two ships from Havre, in charge of Captain John Ribault (*ree'-bo*), a skilful and experienced sailor, who, in addition to his trained crews, took a number of friends, led by curiosity and love of adventure to visit the strange new lands beyond the sea.

Coasting southward, they reached the mouth of the St. Mary River, which now separates Florida from Georgia, up which they sailed. The Indians treated them with hospitality. The soft winds, the fragrant flowers and blossoms, the climbing vines, the wealth of vegetation, the feathered songsters, the birds with brilliant plumage, the mulberry trees, and the wild people with handsome figures and pleasing faces—all these made it seem to the voyagers that they had entered a land of enchantment. The devout and thankful Ribault wrote: "It is a thing unspeakable to consider the things that be here, and shall be found more and more in this incomparable land, which, never yet broken with plough-irons, bringeth forth all things according to its first nature, wherewith the eternal God endowed it."

As was usual under such circumstances, the Frenchmen took possession of the country in the name of their king, after returning thanks to God for His great mercies. Thus far they had every reason to be pleased with the result of their enterprise; for not only were the climate and soil favorable, and the natives friendly, but they saw that which was fascinating above everything else in their

eyes—an abundance of golden, silver, and copper ornaments owned by the dusky people. Ribault and his friends believed they had found that which others had so long sought in vain.

The Huguenots soon embarked and sailed northward, inspecting the numerous islands and inlets which they saw, until in the latter part of the month they dropped anchor in the fine harbor of Port Royal. After examining the surrounding country, Ribault was convinced that no more favorable spot could be found for a settlement.

PERIOD I  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
 1000  
 TO  
 1590



A HOPELESS VOYAGE

When he made known his decision to his men they were delighted, and every one was eager to remain. Reminding them that he was hardly able to manage the ship alone, he placed thirty of the ablest-bodied of them in charge of Captain Albert De la Pierra, advised them wisely, and then set sail for France.

This attempt at settlement was made on a small island in Archer's Creek, a few miles from the present town of Beaufort, South Carolina. The men were eager and ardent, and full of schemes for enhancing the glory of France and bettering their own personal fortunes. A fort had been erected by Ribault, who sailed, however,

Settle-  
 ment  
 founded  
 by Ri-  
 bault  
 near  
 Beau-  
 fort,  
 1562

PERIOD 1  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
 1000  
 TO  
 1590  
 —

Mutiny  
 at Fort  
 Charles

before it was quite finished. It was named Fort Charles (*Carolus*, in Latin), and was soon put in excellent condition. That done, a sad change came over the colonists. The sight of the gold had aroused their cupidity and fanned their dreams of great wealth. They believed that from the surrounding natives they could obtain immense riches, and with little effort on their part. What a waste of time, therefore, to clear the land and plant crops! They decided not to do so. Besides, Ribault had promised to send them provisions and supplies, and they were sure that there was no need of tilling the soil.

It has been well said that an idle mind is the devil's workshop. The leader became so incensed with his mutinous men that he hanged one of them, and took such severe measures that they killed him, and appointed one of their number, named Barre, in his place. By this time they were in a woeful condition. The expected aid from Ribault did not arrive, and since they had neglected to plant crops, starvation lay before them. They became desperately homesick, and determined to make an attempt to reach France. With the help of the Indians they put together an amateurish craft, not fit to be used in navigating a millpond, and in it embarked upon a voyage of three thousand miles over the tempestuous Atlantic. The inevitable ensued. Storms and calms delayed the vessel until their scant provisions gave out. Several died of hunger, while others, in their frenzy from drinking salt water, leaped into the sea and were drowned. When they had drawn lots and eaten one of their number, an English vessel appeared, which landed the feeblest in France and took the others prisoners to England.

The failure of Ribault to return to the colony was occasioned by the civil war, then raging in France. As soon as Admiral Coligny was able to do so (April, 1564), he sent out three ships, under Captain René de Laudonnière (*lō-dōn'ē-air'*), whose purpose was to plant a settlement in the southern part of the country, from which so many favorable reports had been received.

Settle-  
 ment at  
 Saint  
 John's  
 Bluff,  
 Florida,  
 1564

The ships arrived in the St. John's River, Florida, in June, and anchored where those of Ribault had been moored. The Indians, as before, were friendly, and seemed to be happy at the prospect of having the white men for neighbors. Laudonnière selected the spot known as St. John's Bluff, where he began building a fort, in which labor the Indians cheerfully aided the Frenchmen.

The sight of the gold ornaments in the possession of the natives,



and their stories of the abundance of the precious metal and priceless stones, a short distance in the interior, soon wrought mischief among the colonists. Each was so eager to go in search of riches on his own account, that it was only by threats, and other severe measures, that the captain was able to restrain his men. By and by it was evident that the Indians had deceived them with the stories of fabulous wealth not far away. They were naturally angered when

PERIOD I  
—  
DISCOVERY  
AND EX-  
PLORATION  
1000  
TO  
1590  
—



THE SENTINEL

they learned the truth, and began plotting among themselves. A number of them seized two small vessels, turned pirates, and sailed for the West Indies. Laudonnière, on learning of the desertions, set to work and constructed two larger vessels with which to pursue and capture them. When the boats were finished Laudonnière was compelled to give the builders a commission, and they too turned buccaneers.

Matters went from bad to worse, until the arrival of Sir John Hawkins from England, with several ships, one of which Laudonnière

General  
Bucca-  
neering.

PERIOD I  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
 1000  
 TO  
 1590

Menen-  
 dez and  
 his  
 Spanish  
 Squad-  
 ron

proposed to buy, intending to take the whole colony back to France. At this crisis, Ribault arrived, with a squadron of seven vessels. This occurred in the latter part of August, 1565, and a few days later five other ships were seen coming in from the sea. After being hailed several times, an alarming reply came from one of the vessels.

The squadron was under the command of Pedro Menendez (*ma-nen'deth*), of Spain, with a commission to destroy all the Lutheran French that had dared to settle on soil claimed by his country.

The situation of the French was most unfortunate. Three of their ships were a number of miles up the river, and knew nothing of their danger. The other four were so weak that they hurriedly put to sea and escaped. The Spaniards entered the River of Dolphins, a number of miles southward, and landed an armed force. The French ships hastened back to the St. John's and told Ribault of the evident intention of their enemies. Ribault decided to attack the force that had been landed with his combined fleet and all his men. Laudonnière opposed the plan, as too dangerous, but the impetuous Ribault was not to be restrained, and persisted in his purpose. When their vessels were ready to assail the Spaniards at the River of Dolphins a furious storm scattered them.

Knowing the helpless condition in which the fort had been left, the savage Menendez made hasty preparations to march against it. It was no holiday excursion upon which the Spaniards entered, for the rain was falling in torrents, the darkness was intense, the woods and swamps were flooded, and the weather had become unusually chilly. The march was a long one, and so laborious and trying that it would seem that all the men must have perished had they not been sustained by their fierce hatred of the Lutheran French.

The storm continued without cessation day and night. The garrison in the fort did not think it possible that the most fanatical enmity could lead any foe to attack them at such a time. A single sentinel was on duty, and he was not alert. He had gathered his heavy cloak about him, so as to shelter his firelock, and paced dismally back and forth in his saturated garments, longing for the moment when the welcome relief should come.

Suddenly from the gloom a dozen figures leaped forward, and, seizing the guard, put him to death before he could make an outcry. Taken by surprise, the French were unable to make any defence. No mercy was shown to man, woman, or child. One hundred and

forty-two were massacred, while the Spaniards did not lose a man. Some of the garrison, leaping from their beds, managed to dash into the woods, where they crouched and shivered, or fled through the darkness and storm. The wretched fugitives were pursued and most of them captured and hanged on the limbs of trees, and over the head of each, Menendez caused the inscription to be nailed: "I do this, not as to Frenchmen, but as to Lutherans."

Among the few who escaped was Laudonnière. He hid in a

PERIOD I  
—  
DISCOVERY  
AND EX-  
PLORATION  
1000  
TO  
1590  
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Mas-  
sacre of  
the  
French  
by the  
Span-  
iards,  
Sept.,  
1565



A JUST PUNISHMENT

swamp until his peril became less imminent, when he and a companion stole out to the vessels which Ribault had left behind and then sailed for France.

A cruel fate seemed for the time to be on the side of the merciless Menendez. Learning from the Indians that the Frenchmen who had set out to attack him at the mouth of the River of Dolphins were shipwrecked on Anastasia Island, he marched thither with a force not half so numerous as the French. He made them believe, however, that he had so many men that they were at his mercy. When

PERIOD I  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
 1000  
 TO  
 1590  
 —

they begged for quarter he promised it, and they surrendered. The next step of the miscreant was to select the Catholics and a few of the more useful workmen, who were reprieved. The others he ordered instantly to be shot.

Meanwhile, Ribault's vessels were wrecked on the Florida coast, but all his men fortunately escaped, and he led them through the forest to Fort Charles, unaware of its fall. When he found himself confronted by Menendez, the latter, as in the former case, made him believe that the Spanish force was overwhelmingly the superior, and Ribault agreed to surrender. Two hundred of his men, however, knew too well the value of the leader's pledge, and they marched off to the southward, preferring to die in the woods rather than trust to the honor of a Spaniard.

The prisoners, among whom was Ribault, were shot down like dogs. When the Frenchmen who finally escaped reached their country the news of the outrages caused intense indignation. The relatives of the murdered colonists, joined by Admiral Coligny, appealed to their sovereign for redress, but no notice was taken of the prayer, nor was even a remonstrance sent to the Spanish court.

Retalia-  
 tion by  
 De Gour-  
 gues,  
 1568

But if the government was so base, there was one among its subjects whose soul burned with uncontrollable resentment. He was the Chevalier Dominique de Gourgues (*dā Goorg*), of Gascony, a devout Roman Catholic, who, when made a prisoner by the Spaniards, some years before, had been condemned to the humiliation of the galleys. He was so enraged on learning of the sufferings of his countrymen, that he fitted out an expedition at his own expense, selling all his property to gain the necessary means. His expedition consisted of three small vessels, a hundred soldiers, and eighty sailors. The project was kept a secret, so as to prevent any warning being sent to the Spaniards. When he sailed, it was given out that the destination was the coast of Africa, and few suspected the truth.

In the spring of 1568, the French squadron entered the mouth of a small river to the north of the St. John's. The trumpeter had served under Laudonnière, and when he went ashore, he was delighted to find that the leading chief was an old friend of Laudonnière, and had with him at that time as a companion a French soldier who had escaped the massacre. The chief invited De Gourgues to visit him, and he did so, the soldier acting as interpreter.

The Indian leader expressed the most intense hatred of the Span-

iards, who, he said, had used his people with savage cruelty, because of their kindness to the suffering Frenchmen. When De Gourgues asked the chief if he would join him in punishing the bad men, he and his warriors showed vehement eagerness to do so. An alliance was formed, and the necessary preparations were quickly made. The work was carried out with grim thoroughness and dispatch. The hundreds of Indians who joined the French were so eager for the fray that it was impossible to restrain them. The surprised Spaniards could offer no effectual resistance, and were compelled to act the part of the unfortunate Huguenots, who trusted to their pledges three years before. The defenders were shot down without mercy, and the few that were for the time spared were hanged under the very trees where the French had perished in a similar manner, and over their heads De Gourgues caused to be placed the following inscription :

PERIOD I  
 —  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
 1000  
 TO  
 1590  
 —

“ I do this not as unto Spaniards and Maranes (Moors), but as unto traitors, robbers, and murderers.”

Menendez was at St. Augustine, and knowing that he was too weak to encounter him, De Gourgues sailed for France, first utterly destroying, with the help of the Indians, the forts on the St. John's. St. Augustine was founded in 1565, and it will always be memorable from the fact that it was the first permanent European settlement planted within the present limits of the United States.

Found-  
 ing of St.  
 Augus-  
 tine,  
 1565



OLD GATE OF ST. AUGUSTINE



## CHAPTER VII

### *THE ENGLISH EXPLORERS IN AMERICA*

[*Authorities:* England's part in exploratory adventure in the New World had its heroic period in the reign of Elizabeth, when her annals are made brilliant with the achievements of her great seamen, Frobisher, Davis, Drake, Humphrey Gilbert, and his kinsman, Sir Walter Raleigh. How the period glows with the newly awakened maritime spirit may be seen by the perusal of such works as Froude's "English Seamen of the 16th Century," Markham's "Sea Fathers," Low's "Maritime Discovery," Bourne's "English Seamen," and Hakluyt's "Early Voyages," and other publications of the Hakluyt Society. Creighton's "Age of Elizabeth," in Epochs of Modern History Series, and Hind's "England of Elizabeth," may also be profitably consulted. The story of English colonization in America will be best gathered from Doyle's "English Colonies in America," Thwaite's "The Colonies," Fisher's "Colonial Era," and the local histories of Newfoundland, Canada, New England, and Virginia.]



**M**EANWHILE, England had been stirred to activity by the work of both Spain and France in America. It might naturally be supposed that that great nation would take pride in what was done by the Cabots, who were the real discoverers of the continent of North America; but those navigators had set out to find a northwest passage to India, and failing to do so, their enterprise, for a long time, was not looked upon as possessing much merit.

Frobisher's Voyages,  
1576  
to  
1578

Now, however, England saw that she must bestir herself, to prevent the grand prizes from slipping from her grasp. She was not yet ready to give up the belief that the coveted northwest route existed and could be found, and so in June, 1576, Martin Frobisher sailed with three small vessels in search of the passage. He sighted Greenland, coasted along Labrador, and entered the inlet north of

Hudson Bay, which ever since has borne his name. He made a second voyage in 1577, and a third in 1578, but his discoveries were of little value, since the region he visited is too cold and inhospitable ever to become the abode of civilized men.

Francis Drake, at that time, was engaged in circumnavigating the globe. He sailed from Plymouth in the latter part of 1577, with a squadron of five vessels, his principal object being to chastise the Spaniards at whose hands he had himself suffered much.

The voyages of Sir Francis Drake are among the most glorious in the annals of England.\* He passed down the eastern coast of South America, and sailed through the Straits of Magellan in September, 1578. Ascending the Pacific coast, he plundered the Spanish settlements in Chile and Peru, and loaded his fleet with gold and silver captured from the ships of the enemy. He took possession of California in the name of his sovereign, calling it New Albion, and then, feeling that his important work was finished, sailed for home.

His squadron, with which he had done so much, was too weak to meet the fleets that he knew were searching for him, so he sought a passage around the northern coast of America. The ice speedily, however, drove him back, and he crossed the Pacific and the Indian Oceans, doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and dropped anchor at Plymouth in September, 1580. It was because of this remarkable voyage that Queen Elizabeth conferred the honor of knighthood upon Drake. But the achievements of this great navigator were by no means completed. He threw all his energies into the war against Spain, which he hated with an unspeakable hatred. Before a year had passed, he captured and destroyed Carthagena in South America, besides a number of other towns in the vicinity; burned Forts St. Augustine and Antonio; plundered many other places in the West Indies, and took home a perishing English colony from Roanoke



MARTIN FROBISHER

PERIOD I  
—  
DISCOVERY  
AND EX-  
PLORATION  
1000  
TO  
1590  
—

Sir  
Francis  
Drake's  
Expedi-  
tion,  
1577 to  
1580

\* This great naval hero was vice-admiral, under Lord Howard, of the English fleet that repulsed the Spanish Armada. Perhaps his most daring enterprise was his expedition, in 1587, to Lisbon, where, having learned of a Spanish fleet lying in the Bay of Cadiz destined to form part of the Armada, he courageously entered the port and burnt upwards of 10,000 tons of shipping—a feat which he jocosely termed “singeing the King of Spain’s beard.” Drake was born in 1539 and died in 1595.

PERIOD I  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
 1000  
 TO  
 1590

Sir Hum-  
 phrey  
 Gilbert's  
 Expedi-  
 tion,  
 1583

Island in 1585. He performed many other exploits, and won great renown for himself and England.

Sir Humphrey Gilbert was the half-brother of Sir Walter Raleigh,\* and both were favorites of Queen Elizabeth. Gilbert was a famous soldier, of noble mind and purpose, and belonged to one of the most eminent families in England. When, therefore, he proposed to plant a colony in America, he met with little difficulty; Sir Walter Raleigh advanced him what funds he needed, and he sailed for America in the latter part of 1579. Tremendous storms forced the ships to return, and four years passed before the attempt was renewed. Finally, in June, 1583, another venture was made from Plymouth.



SIR HUMPHREY GILBERT

The fleet included the *Raleigh*, a vessel of two hundred tons burden, the *Golden Hind* and the *Swallow*, each of forty tons, the *Delight*, of one hundred and twenty tons, and the *Squirrel*, of ten tons. A few days out, however, the *Raleigh* turned about and came back to port. In the following August the vessels entered the harbor of St. John's, Newfoundland, and Gilbert took possession of the country in the name of his sovereign. During the stay there misfortune came to the enterprise. A number of the crew fell ill and died, others became mutinous, and a plot was formed to take possession of the ships. This being defeated, the mutineers seized a fishing-smack and put to sea. Gilbert then sent the *Swallow* home with the sick and most of the disaffected crew.

While exploring the coasts southward, a tempest wrecked the largest vessel of the fleet, and one hundred lives were lost. The commander and a few of his crew were saved and took refuge on the little *Squirrel*. The weather continued so bad, and the fleet was so crippled, that Gilbert decided to return to England, with the intention

\* Raleigh (*Raw'li*) was a great Elizabethan courtier, soldier, and mariner, who took an active part in colonizing schemes in the New World, which he munificently supported from his own purse. He also took a loyal part in England's preparations to repel the Spanish Armada, and actively commanded a ship on the occasion. Politically, he fell under the censure of both Queen Elizabeth and James I., and for reasons of state was imprisoned for many years in the Tower of London, where he wrote and published (1614) "A History of the World." In 1628 he was beheaded.



of coming back and continuing his explorations in the following spring. The tempestuous weather did not abate, but Sir Humphrey showed no fear in the tiny *Squirrel*. On that dark September night the boat went to the bottom of the ocean, with the brave captain and his faithful companions.

Sir Walter Raleigh mourned the loss of his noble half-brother, but believed in his schemes of colonization, and he devoted himself with energy and lavish expenditure to the carrying of them out. The queen gave him a new and more liberal patent, and in June, 1584, two ships, in charge of Captain Arthur Barlow, set out to find the most desirable place for planting a colony. They took the southerly and more favorable route, and after exploring the coast of North Carolina for several days, they came to anchor in Pamlico Sound. The Indians flocked around them in their canoes, and treated them with the greatest hospitality and friendship. The English were equally kind to them, so that the best of feeling soon prevailed. When the ships returned to England to report, two of the Indians willingly went with them and were brought back in the following year.

The story told by these explorers charmed the queen and delighted Raleigh. Elizabeth declared the event one of the most glorious of her reign, and Raleigh was knighted. He named the immense region *Virginia*, in honor of the illustrious virgin queen, and took steps for colonizing, as soon as he could, the fertile and inviting country. Seven ships sailed out of Plymouth harbor in April, 1585, with full crews and one hundred and eighty colonists, under command of Sir Richard Grenville, one of the bravest of men,\* who, however, cared more for buccaneering than for planting a colony in the wilds of the New World. He did a good deal of plundering of Spanish ships on the way, and fostered a spirit



SIR WALTER RALEIGH

PERIOD I  
—  
DISCOVERY  
AND EX-  
PLORATION  
1000  
TO  
1590  
—

Ra-  
leigh's  
Second  
Expedi-  
tion,  
1584

Ra-  
leigh's  
Third  
Expedi-  
tion,  
1585

\* For a characterization of Sir Richard Grenville, and an example of his undaunted English spirit, see Lord Tennyson's heroic ballad of the fleet of 1591, entitled "The Revenge." The poem follows the incidents of the memorable sea-fight, as narrated in Hakluyt's *Voyages*, in which Sir Richard Grenville engaged, alone, a Spanish fleet of fifty-three sail, repulsing the enemy fifteen times, and, despite the unequal action, sending four ships and about a thousand men to the bottom.

PERIOD I  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
 1000  
 TO  
 1590  
 —

of unrest and adventure on the part of the settlers. The American coast was sighted in July, and, after a leisurely cruise, they landed on Roanoke Island.

More than a week was spent in exploring the surrounding country, the Indians showing the same kindness as before, when an incident took place which makes one doubt whether Grenville was a fool or a knave. While visiting an Indian village, one of the white men missed a silver cup. Grenville demanded that it should be returned at once, and because of a delay in complying with his order he burned the village and destroyed all the standing corn. Little dreaming of the unquenchable hatred caused by this wanton outrage, Grenville left the colonists soon after and returned to England.

Ralph Lane, a distinguished soldier and civilian, now became governor of the colony. He was so harsh towards the Indians that they became deadly enemies of the white men. When Lane set out to find some copper mines, of which he had heard, he met with so determined an hostility on the part of the natives that he was obliged to return. The Indians refused to furnish any provisions, which had now become so scarce that the settlers were in danger of starvation. Fortunately at this crisis Sir Francis Drake appeared off the coast with his fleet and took the homesick colonists back to England. Several of the settlers carried with them some tobacco leaf, the use of which was thus introduced into Europe.

Ra-  
 leigh's  
 Last  
 Expedi-  
 tion,  
 1587

Raleigh was still undismayed by the mishaps that had overtaken his enterprises. In April, 1587, he dispatched another expedition, consisting of three ships, with one hundred and fifty men and women on board of them. John White was appointed governor of the colony, and the men under his charge were much better fitted to be pioneers than their predecessors. They came, not to seek for silver and gold, but to make homes for themselves in the New World, of which they had received so many pleasing accounts. All this was good, but the trouble with the settlers on Roanoke was that they did not agree among themselves. They quarrelled from the beginning. One of White's assistants was killed by the Indians while searching for shellfish on the beach, and a number of friendly natives were attacked under the supposition that they were hostile.

About this time, Mrs. Eleanor Dare, whose father was Governor White, had a daughter born to her, to which was given the name of Virginia Dare. She was the first English child born in America.

Governor White decided to return to England with the ships for supplies which would soon be needed. He left behind him eighty-nine men, seventeen women, and two children, among them being his daughter, Mrs. Dare. It was his intention to return with the least possible delay; but when he reached England he found a general alarm over the impending invasion by Spain. The services of every one were needed, and despite all he could do, it was not until April, 1590, that Raleigh was able to send White back with two shiploads of supplies.

It is a strange and pathetic story that which follows. Governor White was eager to greet his daughter and the friends whom he had not seen for many a day. Before his ships had come to anchor he was thrilled with hope at the sight of a column of smoke over Roanoke Island. This he accepted as a sign that all was well, and guns were fired to let the colonists know that relief had arrived. The next morning, boats were lowered and rowed in the direction of the smoke, which, before it was reached, appeared at another point, and so far off that a good many hours were spent in rowing to the spot. When it was reached, the disappointing discovery was made that the vapor was a delusion. There was neither smoke nor camp-fire. The following day while the boats were making their way to shore to obtain water, one of them was swamped and six sailors were drowned. This caused a superstitious fear, and the remainder of the men for a time would not go on. They were finally persuaded, and in the dusk of early evening began their tramp over the island in the direction of the spot where, White assured them, they would find their friends.

As the Englishmen advanced, they saw lights twinkling a short distance ahead, and were sure they would soon greet their relatives and old acquaintances, whom they had not seen or heard from for so long a time. And what news they would tell them of dear old England, thousands of miles away across the ocean! How they would be thrilled by the story of the destruction of that "Invincible Armada," with which Spain expected to capture and make desolate the kingdom, and what a world of other tidings they had to relate!

The visitors broke into shouts and songs, which ought to have brought a response; but when they listened all was still. At day-break, they reached the spot where White had parted with the settlers, but nothing of them was seen. There were numerous im-

PERIOD I  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
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 TO  
 1590  
 Succor  
 for Ra-  
 leigh's  
 Second  
 Colony

Defeat  
 of the  
 Spanish  
 Armada,  
 July,  
 1588

PERIOD I  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
 1000  
 TO  
 1590

Misgiv-  
 ings as  
 to the  
 fate of  
 the Colo-  
 nists

prints of moccasins, and upon the bark of one of the trees were carved three letters "C R O." White explained that when he left his friends, three years before, they were considering the question of removing to the mainland. They agreed that if they did so they would cut the name of their destination on the trunks of the trees where it would be plainly in sight. It was understood also that, if any disaster befell them, they would carve the figure of a cross under the letters. No such emblem appeared, and he took hope from the fact, though the strange absence of the colonists filled him with the dread that some calamity had overtaken them. It seemed to him that the letters were meant to tell them that their friends had removed to Croatan Island instead of to the mainland.

Penetrating further, they came to the abandoned post, still inclosed by palisades. There they found the full name CROATAN cut on the trees, and as yet without the figure of the cross. The relief that this fact might have afforded was effaced by other signs. The log-dwellings were in ruins, pieces of metal were scattered around, and a number of buried trunks had been dug up and their contents flung about. Among them White recognized several belonging to himself.

These discoveries convinced him that all the colonists had perished; but it seems strange that he did not continue his search for them. It is not impossible that they were within a few miles at that very moment; but a storm set in, his provisions ran short, and it was too dangerous to attempt to bring off the water casks that had been sent ashore. The sailors were impatient, and demanded that they should leave the spot, which seemed to them to be accursed. The governor complied with their wishes, and sailing for the West Indies, he never again set foot in America.

The  
 Lost  
 Colony,  
 1590

What was the fate of the Lost Colony? This is one of the most interesting questions connected with the early exploration of our country, and it has never been satisfactorily answered. Twenty years later, when Jamestown had been settled, it was said that many members of the colony were still alive; while at a later date it was asserted that some of them had been seen and spoken to. This assertion was never verified, and probably was untrue.

There is ground, however, for another claim which has significance. When, long years after, the region was settled by Europeans, they saw numerous members of the Hatteras Indians who



THE LOST COLONY

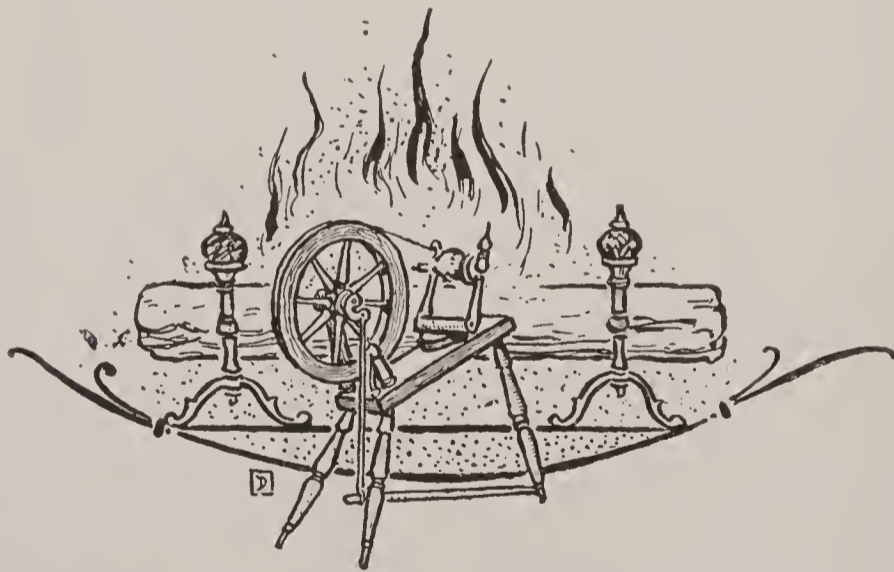
FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY ALLEN B. DOGGETT

PERIOD I  
 DISCOVERY  
 AND EX-  
 PLORATION  
 1000  
 TO  
 1590

Probable  
 Absorp-  
 tion of  
 the Lost  
 Colony  
 in the  
 Indian  
 Tribes

showed unmistakable traces of white blood. They had, in some instances, light hair and eyes, peculiarities never seen in true members of the native American race. At the same time, there was a tradition extant among those people, that when the Lost Colony was deserted by their friends they were adopted by the red men, who had always been friendly to them. They became absorbed in the tribe, and, as the years passed, gradually lost their identity, and finally disappeared as completely as if all had been massacred during the absence of Governor White in Europe, towards the close of the sixteenth century.

This last failure exhausted the resources of Sir Walter Raleigh. He had spent nearly a quarter of a million of dollars in his attempts at colonization. He assigned a large part of his rights to a number of merchants, who kept up for a while a petty trade with the Indians in Virginia, but made no serious attempt at settlement.





## PERIOD II—COLONIZATION AND SETTLEMENT

### CHAPTER VIII

#### THE FIRST PERMANENT SETTLEMENTS IN AMERICA

[*Authorities:* The general histories, in their earlier chapters, of Bancroft, Hildreth, and Bryant and Gay, should be consulted, and, especially, the third volume of Justin Winsor's "Narrative and Critical History," dealing with English discovery and settlement in America. The interested student of the native annals should not omit the English works that throw light on the era, such as Gardiner's "First Two Stuarts" (Epochs of Modern History), and Payne's "European Colonies." See, also, Neil's and Lodge's "English Colonies in America." For an account of the early French settlement in Acadia, and the founding of the French Colony on the St. Lawrence by Champlain, the chief authorities are Parkman's "Pioneers of France in the New World," and "The Jesuits in North America;" Kingsford's "History of Canada," Vols. I. and II.; and the contemporaneous annals of Charlevoix, "History of New France" (O'Shea's translation), "Champlain's Voyages," edited by Laverdière and Casgrain (Quebec: 1870), and the *Relations des Jesuites*.]



Colonial Fort.

HUNDRED years had rolled by since the discovery of America by Columbus, during which the Spanish, French, and English explorers penetrated the northern and southern portions of the continent, with the scant result, however, that when the sixteenth century drew to a close, and the dawn of the seventeenth came, the only permanent settlement anywhere was the feeble colony which the Spanish, in 1565, had planted at St. Augustine, Florida.

But the French and English were at work, and though failure did not cease to dog the steps of the colonists, the hour of success drew nigh. Raleigh had used most of his resources, as has been

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Gos-  
 nold's  
 Expedi-  
 tion, 1602

stated, in the vain effort to colonize the country, but, while he lived, his interest was still keen in the New World. Learning from Bartholomew Gosnold, who had visited America, that the Earl of Southampton had offered to fit out a vessel if he would command it, Raleigh urged him to do so, and Gosnold consented.

This expedition sailed from Falmouth, in April, 1602, with thirty persons, twenty of whom were designed as material in founding a colony. The voyage across the Atlantic possessed one remarkable feature: it was the first made over the present track taken by ocean steamers between England and America. As a consequence, in a little more than a month after sailing, Gosnold sighted the Massachusetts coast (naming it Cape Cod, because of the abundance of codfish seen there), the Elizabeth Islands, and Martha's Vineyard (originally Martin's Vineyard). On one of the Elizabeth Islands in Buzzard's Bay, tradition credits Gosnold with having landed and begun the construction of a fort. The name of this island which he selected for the colony is the Indian one of Cuttyhunk.

Now, there was no good reason why Gosnold should not have had the honor of planting the first English settlement in America, for everything favored such an enterprise. The soil was good, and nature very bountiful; raspberries, strawberries, grapes, and other small fruits grew in profusion; and the climate was less severe than in Canada. But the settlers looked out on the sea and remembered that three thousand miles of tempestuous waters rolled between them and England; that the Indians seemed to be hostile; that their own supply of provisions was scant, and the future source uncertain. These and other forebodings filled the would-be colonists with homesickness, so that, when Gosnold sailed for home, he took with him all the people that he had brought away.

Pring's  
 Expedi-  
 tion,  
 1603

But the pleasing story told by Gosnold and his friends deepened the interest of England in colonization, and two ships were fitted out to visit and plant a settlement in the same region. They were under the command of Martin Pring, and, sailing from Milford Haven in the spring of 1603, entered Penobscot Bay in the following June. They explored the shore-front of Maine to the southward, and visited the spot where Gosnold had landed. Six months later, the voyagers returned to England, and confirmed the favorable accounts of their predecessors.

As a result, other expeditions followed and visited the same sec-



tion, trading with the Indians, and now and then kidnapping some of them. The war with France having ended for the time, James I. of England warmly supported a plan for colonizing America on an extensive scale. He saw the prospect not only of gain for his subjects, but a safe field of adventure and enterprise for his idle soldiers.

And so it came about that on April 20th, 1606, he issued letters-patent to Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Somers, Richard Hakluyt,\* Edward Maria Wingfield, Captain Gosnold, and others, by which they were given all the land on the American coast between latitudes 34° and 45° north, and including all the lands situated within a hundred miles of the shore.

These patents or grants called for the formation of two companies, the northern and southern. The directors of the southern company lived in London, and their enterprise was therefore known by that name, while those of the northern company resided in Plymouth, and that organization became the Plymouth Company. The grant of the London Company embraced all the coast from 34° to 38°, or from Cape Fear to the Rappahannock River, which domain was known as South Virginia. The territory of the Plymouth Company, called North Virginia, extended from 41° to 45°, or from near the mouth of the Hudson to the eastern point of Maine.

Now that England had taken the important step that was to give her the strongest of all footholds in America, we must not overlook the work done by her great rival, France. Samuel de Champlain (*sham-playn'*), of the French navy, was commissioned by his king (Henry IV) lieutenant-general of Canada, for which country he sailed, March 15th, 1603, accompanied by Pontgravé, who was interested in the fur-trade. Ascending the St. Lawrence in May, they anchored at Tadousac, at the mouth of the Saguenay, whence they proceeded in a smaller boat past the great red rock, now crowned by

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SAMUEL DE CHAMPLAIN

The London and Plymouth Companies

Champlain becomes Lieutenant-General of Canada, 1603

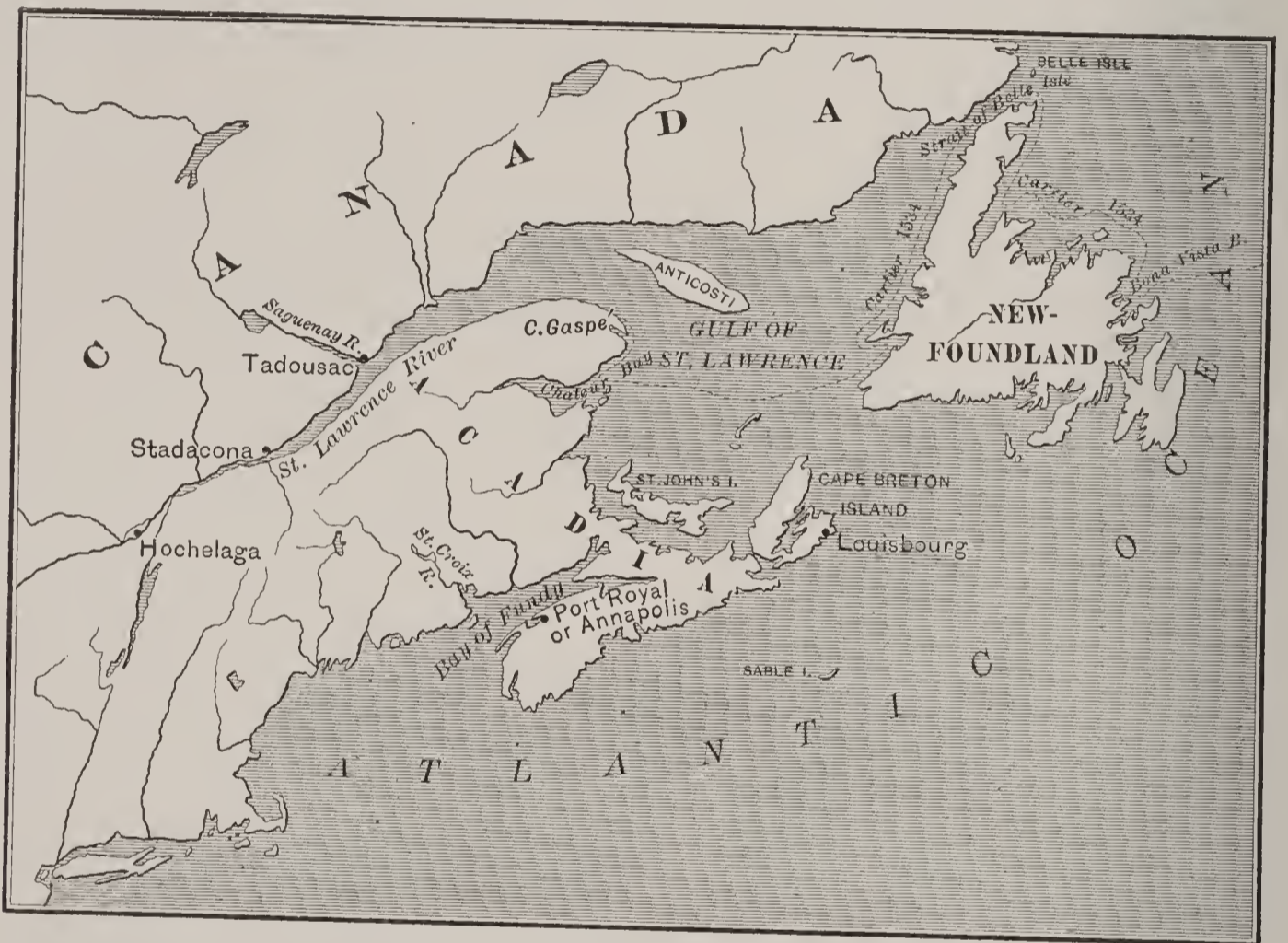
\* Hakluyt (*hak'-loot*) was a clergyman, and notable in his day as the compiler of a collection of voyages and records of the discoveries of English navigators. He died in 1616 and was buried in Westminster Abbey, London. The Hakluyt Society, founded in 1846, perpetuates his name and work, in preserving the records of geographical discovery, and in issuing well-edited reprints of the work of early navigators.

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 —

De  
 Monts'  
 Colony  
 on the  
 Bay of  
 Fundy

the citadel of Quebec, thence onward to the rapids, near the present city of Montreal. Champlain returned home in the autumn, and published an account of his voyage, which attracted much attention.

When Champlain reached France, he found that the king had made a leading Huguenot, the Sieur de Monts (*mōn*), viceroy over six degrees of latitude in America, extending from the St. Lawrence southward to the latitude of Cape May. The region was named Acadia, and De Monts sailed thither with four vessels in March, 1604, Champlain acting as his pilot. Accompanying the expedition



ACADIA AND THE WATER-HIGHWAY TO CANADA

were a number of artisans and laborers, together with the celebrated early French historian, Marc Lescarbot,\* and the Baron Poutrincourt. The expedition did not steer for the St. Lawrence, but for the Acadian (Nova Scotian) peninsula, as De Monts decided to make his settlement farther to the southward. Accordingly, the emigrants entered the Bay of Fundy, and anchored in a harbor on the northern shore of the peninsula. There a settlement was begun to which the

\* Lescarbot (*lā-kar-bo'*) is chiefly known by his "*Histoire de Nouvelle France*," published in France in 1609, which gives an account not only of the French colony in Acadia, but also of Cartier's voyages to Canada, and of Laudonnière's expedition to Florida.

name of Port Royal was given. It was afterwards known as Annapolis, Nova Scotia, so-called in honor of Queen Anne. De Monts and the main body of the emigrants passed the winter on an island in the St. Croix River, the present boundary between Maine and New Brunswick. The weather was so severe that half of them perished before spring, when the survivors made their way to Port Royal and joined the colony there, which had meanwhile been recruited from France by another batch of colonists, under Pontgravé.

French settlement in the Bay of Fundy survived for a number of years, but it was sorely crippled by dissensions between rival governors and harassed by the aggressive English colonists on the New England coast. In 1613, Captain Samuel Argall, an English freebooter, plundered the French settlements in Acadia and burned Port Royal, on the plea that they were intrusions upon the domain of the North and South Virginia Company.

De Monts had no wish to contest the matter with that powerful corporation, and, in the summer of 1608, obtaining a new charter, he proceeded with Champlain, who was now to become the real founder of Canada, to his old winter quarters at Tadousac, at the mouth of the Saguenay. There Champlain left De Monts and planted a colony on the St. Lawrence, on the site of the present city of Quebec, the first permanent French settlement in America. In the following summer, Champlain penetrated the Indian country and discovered the beautiful lake which bears his name. The settlements thus begun took root, and, with varying fortunes, waned and flourished for a period of one hundred and fifty years, until the conquest, in 1759, when they passed under the flag of Britain. The French from the first secured the friendship of their Indian neighbors of the Algonquin or Huron tribe, in which they were aided by the Jesuit missionaries, who were far-seeing, long-suffering, and devoted to their self-appointed task. That tribal alliance, however, cost the colony dear, since it provoked the ire of the Iroquois confederacy, which became a constant menace to the French.\*

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Founding of  
Quebec,  
1608

\* Champlain, while on a visit, in 1615, to the Huron country, on the Georgian Bay, was induced by the Hurons to take part with them in an attack on the Iroquois, in the Mohawk Valley, New York State. This was fraught with lamentable consequences to the French Colony on the St. Lawrence, as well as to the Huron nation, which, in 1648-49, was almost entirely wiped out of existence by the demoniac fury of the Iroquois. For an account of the latter, see Parkman's narrative, also the article, by G. Mercer Adam, on "The Georgian Bay and the Muskoka Lakes," in *Picturesque Canada*.

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JAMES I

We have now reached a period when we must tell about the first lasting English colony in America. The domain of the Plymouth, or North Virginia, Company lay between the forty-first and forty-fifth degrees, and that of the London, or South Virginia, Company between the thirty-fourth and thirty-eighth degrees of north latitude. This left three degrees between North and South Virginia, and neither party was allowed to settle within one hundred miles of each other in the intervening space.

King James reserved to himself the right to name a resident council for the several colonies, each of which selected its own presiding officer. They could fill any vacancies that occurred, but no clergyman was allowed to act as president. The laws

made by this council were subject to revision or change by the king and council in England. It was provided that for five years all property should be held in common, and the established religion in the colony was to be that of the Church of England.

In May, 1606, the Plymouth Company sent out a ship which explored a part of the coast of Maine and took back a favorable report. Another followed in August, but was captured by the Spaniards. The Plymouth Company included some of the most famous names in England. Among them were Sir John Popham, Lord Chief Justice, who condemned Sir Walter Raleigh to death, his brother George, and Sir Ferdinando Gorges (*Gor'jes*). In the early summer of 1607, a hundred emigrants, under Governor George Popham, sailed for America. They landed on a desolate spot, near the mouth of the Kennebec, where they erected a few log huts and a rude fort. It was too late to plant any crops, and the Indians were so sullen that all the emigrants except a contingent of forty-five sailed away in the ships that had brought them over.

The  
 Popham  
 Colony,  
 1607

The winter which followed was one of the severest for a region at the time noted for its semi-arctic climate. The streams were frozen almost solid, and shut out all possibility of fishing, while the snow lay in such enormous drifts in the forests that no one could engage in hunting. Little was visible of their cabins save the tops of the chimneys, from which the thin smoke curled upward among the leaf-

less trees. In the depth of the terrible winter, the storehouse in which they had placed their scant provisions, caught fire, and was burned to ashes, with most of their supplies. The privations brought on disease and the death of a number, among whom was the Chief Justice's brother, Governor Popham.

When it looked as if all must perish, a ship arrived with provisions and the news that Chief Justice Popham and another principal leader of the enterprise were dead. The tidings, and their own intolerable

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THE POPHAM COLONISTS

hardships, so discouraged the emigrants, that they bade good-by to the dismal solitudes and returned to England with the ship. They took with them so disheartening an account of the country and their experience there that for a long time no further attempt was made to plant an English colony in the region. All that the Plymouth Company did was to fish in the waters along the shore, and keep up a fitful trade with the natives.

In December, 1606, the London Company sent out three vessels from Blackwall, England. They were the *Susan Constant*, of one hundred tons, the *God-Speed*, of forty, and the *Discovery*, a pinnace of twenty tons. The emigrants numbered one hundred and five men,

The Expedition  
sent out  
by the  
London  
Company,  
1606

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CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH

and were unaccompanied by women. Captain Christopher Newport had command of the vessels, and his orders were to land on Roanoke Island, the site of the Lost Colony which disappeared twenty years

before. The season was cold and tempestuous, and the men who composed this famous company had a no less stormy time of it among themselves. A large number of them were adventurers, whose last thought was that of honest labor. Probably less than thirty were mechanics, who were ambitious to make a home for themselves in the New World. But among the colonists was one of the most remarkable men of those who figure in the history of our coun-

try. He was an individual who, to-day, has not hundreds merely, but thousands of namesakes throughout the United States. Who among us has not heard the name of John Smith?

Captain  
 John  
 Smith

Happy would the historian be to-day if he knew the whole truth about this particular John Smith, for the facts of his career would make an interesting story indeed. If half the adventures he told about himself were true, he had one of the most extraordinary experiences that ever befell an adventurer. There is little doubt that Smith was a great braggart and loved to relate his exploits, some of which, it is to be feared, have slight foundation in fact. Nevertheless, he was brave, honest, full of enterprise, and had more brains than any man connected with the expedition sent to South Virginia; and, though many of the people hated him, the time quickly came when all saw his worth and were glad to lean upon him. But for John Smith, the first permanent English settlement in America would not have been made when and where it was.

Smith's  
 Euro-  
 pean Ad-  
 ventures

Smith at that time was under thirty years of age, but, young as he was, he had become famous on account of his wonderful adventures. He was such a wild, headstrong youth, that his English friends gave him a small sum of money to get rid of him. Quite ready to leave England, he went to France as the servant of a nobleman, who soon, however, turned him adrift. Meanwhile, he had grown to be a big sturdy lad, and, enlisting in the army engaged in the wars in the Low Countries, he proved himself a valiant soldier, and came back to England when nineteen years old. His next act was to build himself a

cabin in the heart of a forest, where he studied military tactics, and in the open glades of the forest became an expert horseman.

One day he dashed away on his steed and enlisted in the Christian army which was engaged in a desperate war with the Turks, who were striving to force their way into Hungary. At Marseilles (*mar-sālz'*) Smith embarked for Italy in a ship filled with Roman Catholic pilgrims. By and by a fierce storm arose, and the pilgrims, believing that it was an expression of God's anger because they were voyaging with a heretic, caught up Smith and flung him overboard. He was a powerful swimmer, and breasted his way over the mountainous billows to an island, from which he was taken in a French vessel to Alexandria.

Soon afterwards he joined the German army which was fighting the Turks in Transylvania, and quickly won renown among a host of fighters. While besieging a city, the most famous warrior of the Mussulmans, desirous of entertaining the ladies, challenged the Christian army to produce a man that dared to meet him in single combat. Smith put forward his claim, and was granted the honor of appearing as champion of his people. In the presence of an immense multitude the combat took place on horseback, each man being clad in mail, and using the lances of the knights of the olden time.

The combatants met in furious onslaught, and both showed consummate skill and courage, but the prowess of the Christian prevailed, the Turk was unhorsed and slain, and his head carried into the Christian camp. Two other Turks, burning to avenge the death of their leader, entered the lists against Smith, and he killed them both. It was the fate of war, however, that soon after this great fight Smith should be taken prisoner by the Turks. He was sold to a Pacha, or ruler, who sent him to Constantinople as a slave for his mistress, whom he was anxious to marry. She became interested in the adventures of the handsome young Christian, and, in the hope of securing his release, sent him to her brother in the Crimea. But that relative, instead of sharing her tender sympathy, treated the captive with great cruelty. He placed an iron collar around his neck and made him toil daily like a slave.

One day, when Smith was threshing wheat, with his master sitting near and berating him, he turned suddenly upon the Turk and "threshed him to death with the flail." Hastily donning the clothes of his late master, he leaped on his horse and fled from the place.

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Smith's  
reputed  
Prowess

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He was pursued, but, with the start gained, and the fleetness of his steed, he escaped from the country, and, after many other stirring adventures, found his way back to England in 1604. There the prospect of further adventure led him to join the expedition of the English colonists to South Virginia.

Smith was so much the superior of every one of his companions, and was so outspoken and brusque in manner, that he was heartily disliked by his jealous fellow-adventurers. An absurd charge was made against him, to the effect that he was plotting to murder the members of the council and make himself king of Virginia. He was held a prisoner under this accusation, for which, it would seem, there was in truth but little foundation.

While sailing northward along the American coast in quest of Roanoke Island, the ships were caught in a furious storm, which drove them into Chesapeake Bay, the headlands of which they named Cape Henry and Cape Charles, in honor of the then Prince of Wales and his brother. The king had forbidden the opening of the box containing the sealed instructions until they sighted land, and the pioneers now learned for the first time the names of the men who were to compose the resident council. They were: Bartholomew Gosnold, John Smith, Edward Wingfield, Christopher Newport, John Ratcliffe, John Martin, and George Kendall. The other six were indignant at the selection of Smith, and several asserted that they would not sit with him; but cooler counsels prevailed.

Found-  
 ing of  
 James-  
 town,  
 May  
 13th,  
 1607

The wearied voyagers crossed the wide mouth of the Chesapeake, and landed at a point which was so pleasing in its wealth of fragrant flowers, its soft breezes, and soothing quiet, that they named it Point Comfort. Then, after resting a day or two, they sailed up a broad placid river which, in honor of their king, they called the James. At a point about forty miles from the mouth they chose a place on an island, or peninsula, and, going ashore, began the settlement of Jamestown, May 13th, 1607. This became the first permanent English colony planted in America.

The government was organized by the selection of Wingfield as president of the council. He was bitterly envious of Smith, and not having withdrawn his charges, and wishing to be rid of him, he proposed that he could save himself by returning to England with Newport. Smith, however, rejected the proposition, and after a while was permitted to take his seat at the council-board.





## CHAPTER IX

### THE COLONIAL HISTORY OF VIRGINIA

[*Authorities:* The interesting and thrilling story of settlement in the ancient colony of Virginia may partly be read in early contemporary annals, such as Purchas's "His Pilgrimage," and Smith's "True Relation and Generall Historie," and partly in the modern biographies of Captain John Smith, Sir Walter Raleigh, and Nathaniel Bacon; in the story of Rolfe and Pocahontas; as well as in the recent monographs in the "American Commonwealth Series:" Cooke's "Virginia," and Browne's "Maryland." See, also, Drake's "The Making of Virginia and the Middle Colonies," together with Lodge's "English Colonies in America," and the general histories of the United States.]



It was the general belief in Europe, at the time of the founding of Jamestown, that the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea, lay only a comparatively short distance to the westward, and that if any of the large streams flowing into the Atlantic were ascended, they would be found to connect with the greater ocean. This was a curious belief, since there are few rivers in the world with two widely separated outlets. South America has one such stream—the Rio Negro—but there is none in North America.

The pioneers at Jamestown had been ordered to look into the matter, so while most of them were felling trees and putting up cabins, Captain Newport, John Smith, and some twenty others ascended the river in boats, to make what might be called a preliminary investigation. They had heard of a great chief, Powhatan (*Pow-ha-tan'*) who lived near the spot where Richmond now stands, and there the white men paid him a visit. His lodge, or "palace," was an imposing one, being much larger than is generally seen among the Indians, with an abundance of boughs, bark, skins, and saplings. A number of modest lodges surrounding the kingly residence were occupied by

The  
Indian  
Chief  
Pow-  
hatan, of  
Vir-  
ginia

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POWHATAN'S COUNTRY

the chief advisers of the dusky monarch, and luxuriant fields of Indian corn were growing near.

Powhatan received his visitors kindly, but some of his chiefs looked with disfavor on the intrusion of the white men. This inland voyage of the little party extended for one hundred and fifty miles, and several other tribes were visited. Many gaudy trinkets were distributed, while the delighted Indians in turn gave their visitors corn, game, and small fruits. On the voyage down the James, the observant Englishmen were disquieted to observe that the red men were scowling and unfriendly. The explanation of this was found when the explorers reached Jamestown.

President Wingfield had managed matters badly during the several weeks that Newport and his companions were absent. He was so envious of Smith that he stopped the work on the little fort which the latter had recommended should be built, Smith's purpose being as much to keep the men occupied, as to secure a defense against enemies. The settlers had become embroiled with the Indians, who attacked them, killing a boy and wounding several men. This caused all haste to be made in completing the fort, while sentinels were kept actively on duty day and night.

Captain Newport returned to England, June 21st, 1607, for more immigrants and supplies. He left a pinnace for the use of the settlers, whose situation at this time was anything but cheering. The provisions were nearly gone, and the Indians had become so hostile that it was almost impossible to procure food from them. The majority of immigrants did not know how to cultivate the soil, and those who did were too lazy to work. The summer heat was over-

powering, the water unwholesome, and a noxious exhalation rose from the surrounding swamps, which caused so much sickness that, two weeks after the departure of Captain Newport, there was hardly a well person in the colony.

In the midst of these sufferings it was discovered that President Wingfield had kept back delicacies from the sick and was himself living upon them. The anger against him was so intense that he was deposed, and John Ratcliffe elected in his place. This man was as great a hypocrite as Wingfield, and totally lacking in force of character. He was soon glad to resign, and all turned to Smith, who had kept his sturdy health, and shown the energy of half a dozen men. He was chosen president, and from that time forward, so long as he remained in the colony, he was its leading spirit.

Captain John Smith proved himself to be a ruler who ruled. Had he not been such, the entire body of settlers would have probably perished. He governed with a rod of iron. He declared that no well man should have a mouthful of food until he earned it by work. He stopped the wrangling, was himself cheerful and hopeful, toiled as hard as any, was honest and unselfish, gave his whole energy for the well-being of the sufferers, and frightened the Indians into bringing in food. In time, the weather became cool, the general health improved, and the settlers were able to shoot plenty of game in the woods. Thus the selection of Captain John Smith as president of the council proved the salvation of the colony.

Smith now decided to make another exploration of the surrounding country. Winter was nigh at hand, and he set out to ascend the Chickahominy in a single boat, with five or six companions. When the water became too shallow to use the craft, he left it in charge of two men, instructing them to keep away from shore. They hardly waited until Smith was out of sight when they landed and began hunting. Prowling Indians killed one, and the other barely escaped with his life.

Meanwhile, Smith himself got into a somewhat serious scrape. He took with him two white men and two Indians to serve as guides, and ascended twenty miles further in a canoe. The water became so shallow that, with one of the warriors as his companion, he plunged into the tangled woods and ardently engaged in a hunt for game. Unsuspected by Smith, a large party of Indians had been watching and stealthily following him, and before he knew of his

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Smith's  
 Capable  
 Administration  
 saves the  
 Colony

Capture  
 of Smith  
 by the  
 Indians

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danger the surrounding forest was alive with enemies. They had killed the two men left in charge of the canoe, and sent their arrows whizzing after the valiant Englishman, who, however, had been in too many perilous situations to lose his presence of mind. Walking slowly backward, he loaded and discharged his old firelock as rapidly as he could, and brought down a couple of his assailants. Although slightly wounded, he was in the act of reloading, when he sank to his knees in a spongy bog, and, before he could extricate himself, the Indians rushed forward and made him prisoner.

Smith understood the superstitious nature of the red men and was shrewd enough to appeal to it. He made the most of his little pocket compass, with its tiny darting needle, and indulged in mysterious gestures, which so impressed the simple-minded folk that, instead of putting him to death on the spot, they exhibited him in several villages, and finally took him before the great war-chief, Powhatan, for his disposal.

While awaiting his fate, Smith was allowed to send a letter by a couple of messengers to Jamestown. This act so impressed the red men, when they were made to see that the letter "spoke" to the settlers, that they were filled with greater awe than before.

Despite the tact shown by Smith, the council summoned by Powhatan decided that the prisoner must die. Two big stones were placed in front of the chieftain, and Smith, with his hands tied behind him, was brought forward, and laid on his back, with his head resting on the stones. Two brawny warriors advanced, each with a huge club, and were about to dash out his brains, when Pocahontas (*po-ka-hon'tas*), the beautiful young daughter of Powhatan, rushed from beside her father, and kneeling with her arms about the captain's neck, begged the chief to spare his life. Powhatan, who devotedly loved his child, was so touched by her appeal, that he not only spared Smith, but sent him to Jamestown in charge of an escort.

Smith  
 saved by  
 Pocahontas

The story of John Smith and Pocahontas is one of the most pleasing and romantic in the early history of our country, and no account of the colony of Virginia would be complete without it. Since Smith did not make the episode known until years afterwards, when his dusky friend was dead—and even then it was doubted on account of his fondness for bragging—many believe that the interesting adventure never occurred, but it must have had some foundation in fact.

In any case, it will do no harm to give the doughty fellow credit for the stirring experience.

Smith had been absent for about six weeks from Jamestown, and when he returned he found matters in a sad condition. The little church had been burned, and the devoted minister held services under the shelter of the trees. Only forty persons were left alive, and the most robust members were about to abandon the settlement

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CAPTURE OF JOHN SMITH BY THE INDIANS

and flee in the pinnace. The cheeriness of Smith, his energy and his tact, caused the design to be abandoned, so that again, it may be said, he saved the colony from ruin.

Nothing short of stern, unflinching, rigorous rule was able to avert destruction. This aroused so much hatred among the malcontents that they charged Smith with murder, because of the death of his companions on the Chickahominy, and, incredible as it may seem, would have put him to death, had not Captain Newport at this crit-

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TION AND  
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Arrival  
of  
Captain  
New-  
port,  
1608

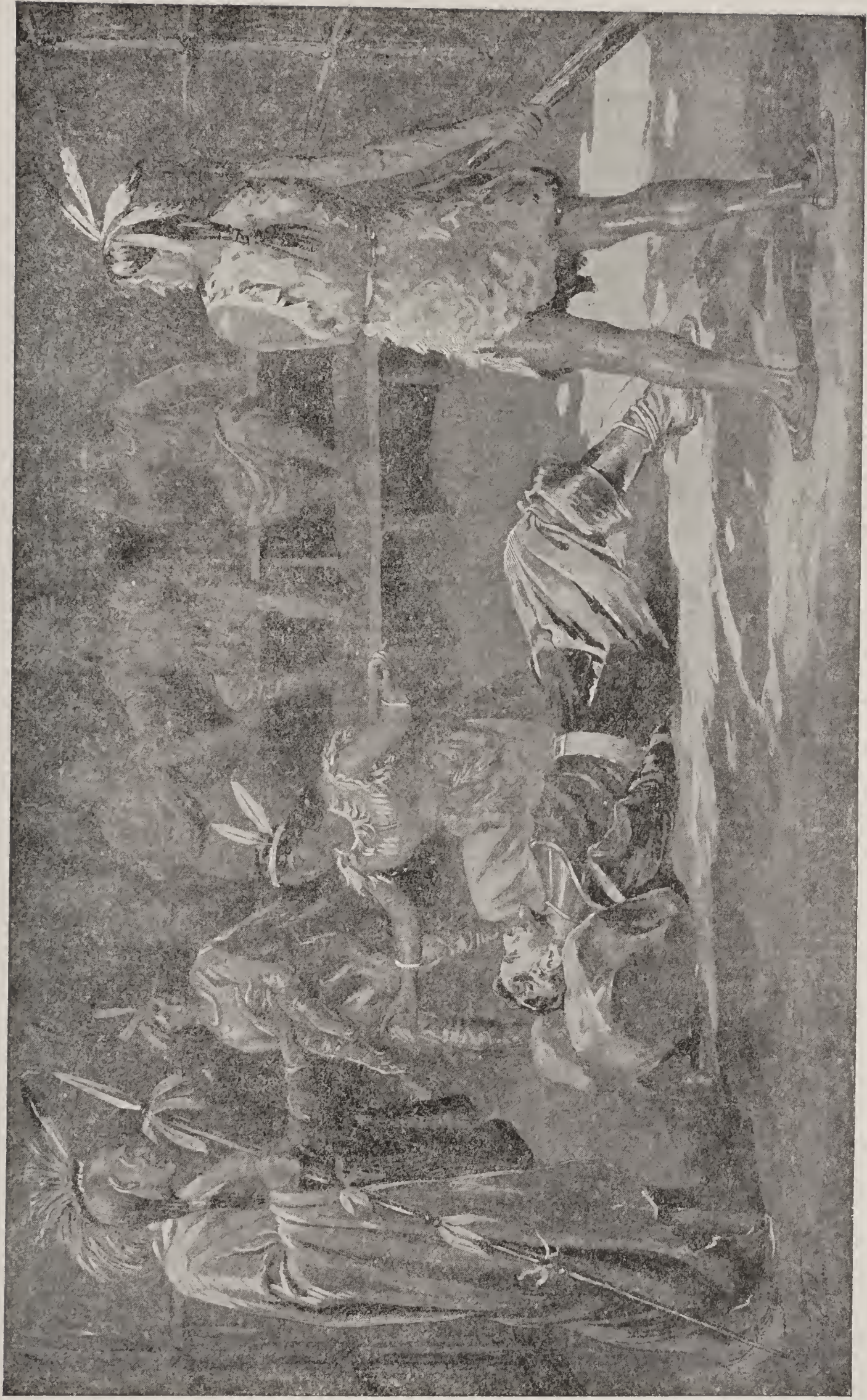
ical juncture arrived from England. This was early in 1608, and though the immigrants which he brought were of no better character than those that preceded them, his arrival was the occasion of much joy. Of the one hundred and twenty men with him, there were not a half-dozen who were of assistance in reviving the colony. They were chiefly adventurers and "gentlemen," who had the tramp's horror of work, yet were eaten up with a frenzy for gold. They persuaded Captain Newport to load his vessel with worthless yellow earth (pyrites), under the belief that it was the long looked-for precious ore, and that all who had a share in its gathering would be millionaires for the remainder of their days. Deep was their chagrin when it was tested by mineral experts in London.

The second vessel of Captain Newport was delayed so long in the West Indies by bad weather that it did not reach Jamestown until the following spring. When it returned to England, some time later, it carried a noteworthy cargo, consisting of a valuable shipment of cedar, while among the passengers were the malignant enemies of John Smith, who from that time forward ruled without opposition.

Smith sailed up many of the streams flowing into Chesapeake Bay and made a map of the explored region, which is an excellent one, and is still preserved in London. The captain, however, lost patience when Newport came again with seventy immigrants as worthless as those that had come before. Furthermore, the London Council ordered Smith to send back ten thousand dollars' worth of commodities; a lump of gold, the product of Virginia; to find a passage to the South Sea; and to learn all about the lost colony of Roanoke. Smith's reply to these absurd instructions was that all the settlers would starve to death, but for the aid of the Indians; that the immigrants sent over were not only good for nothing, but a burden upon the community. "I entreat you rather," Smith wrote to the Council, "to send but thirty carpenters, husbandmen, gardeners, fishermen, blacksmiths, masons, and diggers of trees' roots, well provided, rather than a thousand such as we have."

A new  
Charter  
granted,  
May 23d,  
1609

The Council in London saw that a change was necessary in the management of the Virginia colony, which from the first had been a continual expense. The interest of some of the foremost men in England was enlisted, and King James granted them a new charter, May 23d, 1609. The grant included all the land two hundred miles north and south of Point Comfort, and all the islands within a



POCAHONTAS SAVING THE LIFE OF JOHN SMITH

FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY JOSEPH LAUBER

PERIOD II  
 COLONIZA-  
 TION AND  
 SETTLE-  
 MENT  
 1602  
 TO  
 1758

hundred miles of the coast, with the Pacific Ocean as the western boundary.

Among the duties of the Council in London was the naming of the rulers in Virginia. The malcontents, whom Smith had treated so severely, were on the other side of the Atlantic, and they made their influence felt to the extent of selecting a new president, in the person of Lord De la Warr,\* who, fortunately, was worthy of the responsible trust.

The new company fitted out nine ships, with five hundred immigrants, and an abundance of stores. They sailed for Virginia in June, 1609, under command of Captain Newport. Lord De la Warr was not ready to go with the fleet, and Sir Thomas Gates, his deputy, Sir George Somers, admiral of Virginia, and Captain Newport, were commissioned to administer the government until the arrival of Lord De la Warr. Unfortunately, the question of precedence among the three commissioners was not fixed, so Somers and Gates agreed to sail in the ship with Newport, and leave the matter to be settled afterwards.

Scamps  
 and Va-  
 grants as  
 Colonists

The *Sea-Venture*, as she was called, was caught in a hurricane, separated from the rest of the fleet, and wrecked on one of the Bermuda islands. A second vessel went down; but the other seven reached Jamestown, with a large number of domestic fowls, goats, sheep, swine, and horses, and the worst set of vagrants with which poor Virginia was ever afflicted. Many of the young men had been so vicious at home that, as a last hope, their friends shipped them to America, where it was thought they might be compelled to be good. Others had run away from England to escape punishment for their misdemeanors, while a large number were dissolute gentlemen or broken-down tradesmen.

Never were the fine character and personal bearing of John Smith manifested more strikingly than at this trying crisis, when, had he been lacking in courage and resource, the colony would have been engulfed in ruin. Since the three men appointed to govern Jamestown did not put in an appearance, the "gentlemen" proceeded to select their own officers, whereupon Smith informed them that he

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\* Thomas Sackville-West, Lord De la Warr, second governor of Virginia, died at sea in 1618, on his way out to the colony. In his earlier visits to Virginia, he is said to have explored the estuary and river which bear his name—the Delaware, since also applied to the State of Delaware.



considered it his duty to maintain his own rule until the arrival of the regularly appointed council, regardless of their views.

Not only did Smith succeed in this, but he held the vicious in check by continually devising new explorations, and finding something at all times for them to do. Thus he preserved fair discipline and order, which no one else could have done, until autumn, when he was so seriously injured by an accidental explosion of gunpowder, that he was forced to go to England for surgical treatment. It was a misfortune for Virginia that he never returned. George Percy was left as governor-in-charge. He was a man of good character, but so lacking in firmness that he proved a failure.

The winter which followed was the most calamitous in the history of the colony. The men indulged in every excess, ate up the remaining provisions, and treated the Indians so brutally that they became bitterly hostile. They formed a plot for massacring every one of the white men, and would have done so had not Pocahontas hurried to Jamestown, through storm and darkness, with a warning to Percy, whose preparations against attack prevented it being made. Saved from a violent death, they however fell a prey to disease and famine which fastened their fatal grip upon the wretched settlers, and they died by the score. They even resorted to cannibalism, and the dead far outnumbered the living. Of the five hundred whom Smith left behind, only sixty were alive at the end of six months. This fearful era in the early history of Virginia is known as "the Starving Time."

Meanwhile, the commissioners and their fellow-voyagers, who had been wrecked in the Bermudas, contrived to build two small vessels, in which they embarked for Virginia, where they arrived on the 23d of May, 1610. Governor Gates, who, it was agreed, should assume charge of affairs, was so shocked at the sights which met his gaze in Jamestown that he believed the only way of saving the miserable beings that remained was to abandon the settlement and take them to the English fishing-stations of Newfoundland. He, therefore, distributed them among the four pinnaces in the river, together with a scanty supply of provisions. Then, with sad hearts, they turned their backs, as they believed forever, upon Jamestown, the scene of so much suffering and sorrow, praying only that they might live long enough to reach some spot where friends would minister to their wants.

PERIOD II  
 COLONIZATION AND  
 SETTLEMENT  
 1620  
 TO  
 1758

Smith  
 Returns  
 to  
 England,  
 1609

The  
 Starving  
 Time,  
 1609-10

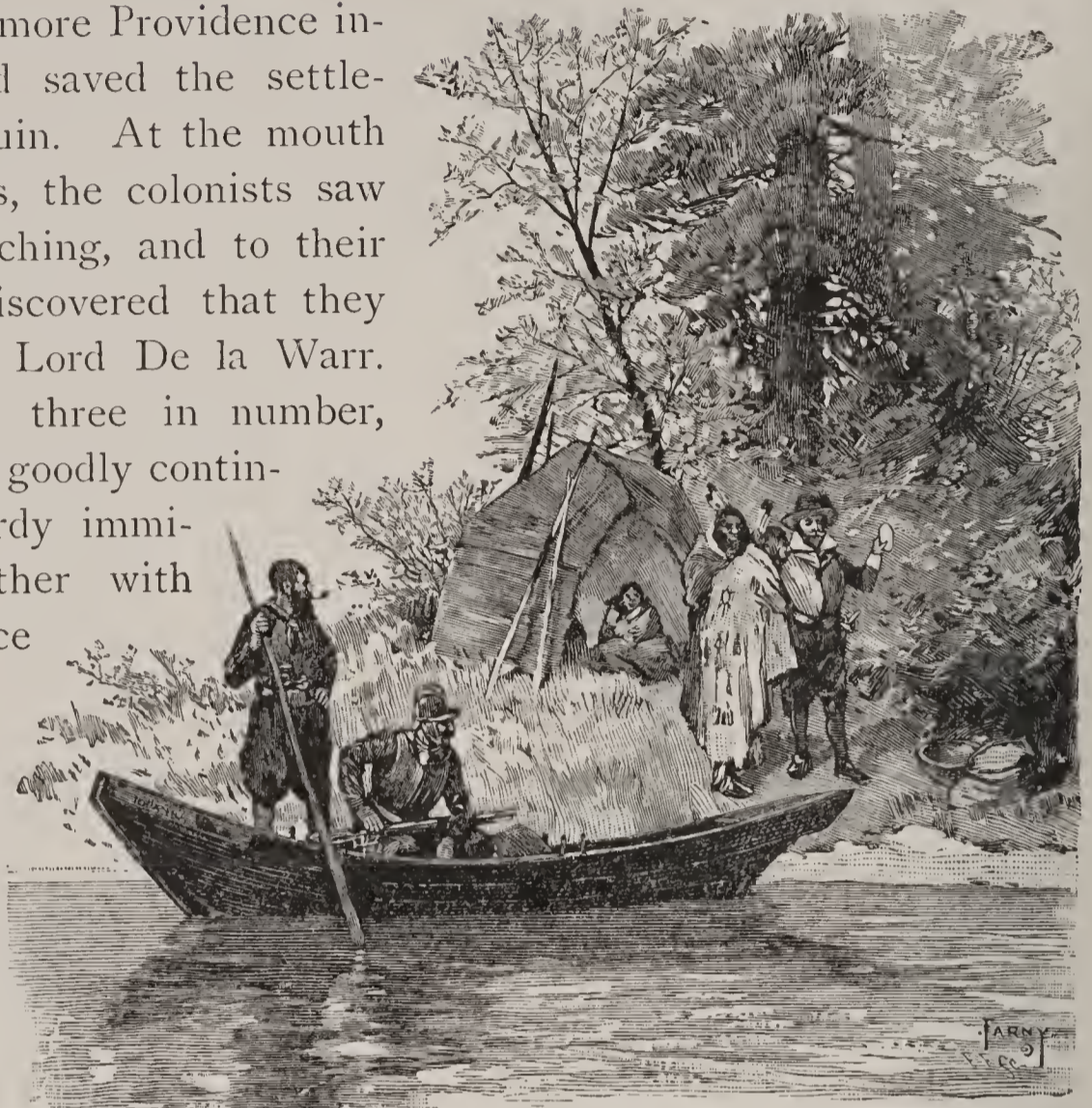
PERIOD II  
COLONIZATION AND  
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1620  
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1758

Arrival  
of Lord  
De la  
Warr

But once more Providence interposed, and saved the settlement from ruin. At the mouth of the James, the colonists saw ships approaching, and to their great joy discovered that they belonged to Lord De la Warr. The vessels, three in number, contained a goodly contingent of sturdy immigrants, together with an abundance of provisions and other needful supplies. De la Warr himself was on board, and he showed himself to be one of the best and wisest rulers that colonial Virginia

new unfinished church and joined in thanking God for His great mercy. As their songs of praise rang through the forest arches, a number of Indians were seen peeping from behind the trees, and listening and looking with wonder upon the strange scene.

Lord De la Warr commanded the respect and confidence of all by his admirable though brief administration; but his health failed, and he was compelled to sail for England in the spring of 1611. Percy once more assumed the reins of government; but Sir Thomas Dale, arriving soon after with supplies, became governor, and ruled wisely and well. More immigrants, and now of an excellent class, were sent over, and for the first time Virginia took on an air of prosperity. When Gates assumed the governorship, Dale ascended the James River and planted settlements where Richmond now stands, and at the mouth of the Appomattox River. These offshoots flourished,



SMITH TRADING WITH THE INDIANS

ever had. Gladly all turned about and made their way back to Jamestown, where they gathered in the

and Gates and Dale wrought in harmony, while the colonists showed enterprise, industry, and an appreciation of their advantages.

A third charter was now granted to the Company, which permitted its powers to be divided in an equitable manner among all the members. An important feature of this charter allowed every man to cultivate three acres of the soil for his personal use. Until then the land had been tilled in common, so that the lazy lived upon the industrious. Now the real prosperity of the colony began.

Tobacco had been introduced into England some years before, and it became so popular that nearly everybody in Jamestown turned his attention to its cultivation. The prices realized in the English market upon the product were so good that an ample profit was afforded, and the tilling of corn and the other cereals was, in consequence, neglected. Even the streets of Jamestown were piled up with the big green leaves, and the council was obliged to restrict its cultivation.

In a previous chapter, it will be recalled, mention was made of Captain Argall, the freebooter, who burned the French settlements in Acadia. Previous to undertaking that lawless expedition, he went on a cruise up the James River. He invited Pocahontas on board his vessel, when, in accordance with the Spanish rule, he made her a prisoner and took her to Jamestown. He expected her father to ransom her with a large quantity of corn; but the furious Powhatan refused to treat with the pirate, and prepared to go to war.

During these stormy weeks, when so grave a danger hung over Jamestown, John Rolfe, who belonged to a good English family, fell in love with Pocahontas, and she reciprocated his affection. She was a pagan, and he a Christian, but their love for each other was none the less tender and true. He strove to explain, as far as he could, the mysteries of his faith to her, and she was an apt pupil. She accepted the Christian religion and asked to be baptized.

In the quaint little chapel of Jamestown, whose columns were shaggy pine trunks from the forest, whose pews were of fragrant cedar, and whose pulpit and communion-table were of black walnut, the dusky maiden knelt before the font "hewn hollow between like a canoe," and, uttering the responses in broken English, was baptized and given the name of Rebecca.

The marriage of Rolfe and Pocahontas took place in April, 1613. Powhatan readily consented to the alliance, and sent his brother to give away his daughter, in accordance with the Anglican ritual. It

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A Third Charter granted, 1611-1612

Marriage of Pocahontas, April, 1613

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 TION AND  
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was a memorable day, as may be supposed, in the annals of Jamestown, with a touching beauty all its own. The windows were hung with festoons of evergreens, amid which gleamed sweet wild flowers and crimson holly berries. A cloth of spotless white linen covered the communion-table, and on it stood bread from the wheat-fields and wine from the native grapes.

It may be doubted whether a single adult in Jamestown was absent from the ceremony. Sir Thomas Gates beamed with happiness, while the dusky countenances of the brothers of Pocahontas and of other youths and maidens of the forest glowed with sympathetic and abounding pleasure.

When the bride and groom slowly entered the church, she was seen to be dressed in a simple tunic of white muslin, and her shapely arms were bare to the shoulder. Her rich robe, which she herself had embroidered, was a present from Sir Thomas Dale. Her stately head, with its wealth of raven hair, was encircled by a fillet, filled with the brilliant plumage of birds, and holding in its fastenings a fleecy veil; while her wrists and ankles were girdled with a few simple articles of jewelry. Pocahontas was very beautiful, but showed a becoming modesty and simplicity throughout the impressive and touching ceremony.

Naturally, the bride was the most interesting personage in the church, but the groom was entitled to compliment, for he had a manly figure and pleasing countenance. He was attired as an English cavalier, and wore a short sword upon his thigh as an emblem of distinction. Standing upon the chancel steps, where there was no railing, the minister with impressive voice and manner read the marriage service of the Anglican church which made the European and the American husband and wife.

This happy union brought peace, and made Powhatan the friend of the settlers for the remainder of his life. When Governor Dale sailed for England, in 1616, Rolfe and "Lady Rebecca" (for was she not the daughter of a king?) and a number of their friends went with him. She received marked attentions from the court and the highest dignitaries in the kingdom. One of her happy experiences, during the year she spent in England, was a meeting with Captain John Smith, whom she called "father," and who was as delighted to meet her as she was pleased to see him.

Death  
 of Poca-  
 hontas,  
 1617

When Pocahontas was making ready to return to America, she un-



FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY JOSEPH LAUBER

MARRIAGE OF POCAHONTAS

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 TION AND  
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happily fell ill and died. Her son, Thomas Rolfe, became one of the leading citizens of Virginia, and there is no prouder lineage to-day in the Old Dominion than that which leads back through the centuries to the dusky daughter of Powhatan.

When Dale embarked for England, he left Argall as deputy governor; but he was a rogue, and escaped only by flight the execution of the order of arrest sent across the ocean. George Yeardley then became governor, and showed himself to be so excellent a ruler and so just a man that the prosperity of the colony brightened. During his administration, in 1619, the London Company sent out one hundred poor but respectable young women, who were anxious to seek their fortunes in the New World. No visitors ever received a more cordial welcome, and they were not kept waiting for husbands. Each man who found favor in the eyes of one of the lasses could wed her only by paying the price of her passage, which was a certain number of pounds of tobacco. Other young women continued to arrive, with this happy result, that the settlers, who all along had harbored the intention of returning at some time to England, now gave up that purpose and came to look upon Virginia as their home, where all their hopes and interests now centred.

Introduc-  
 tion of  
 African  
 Slavery,  
 1619

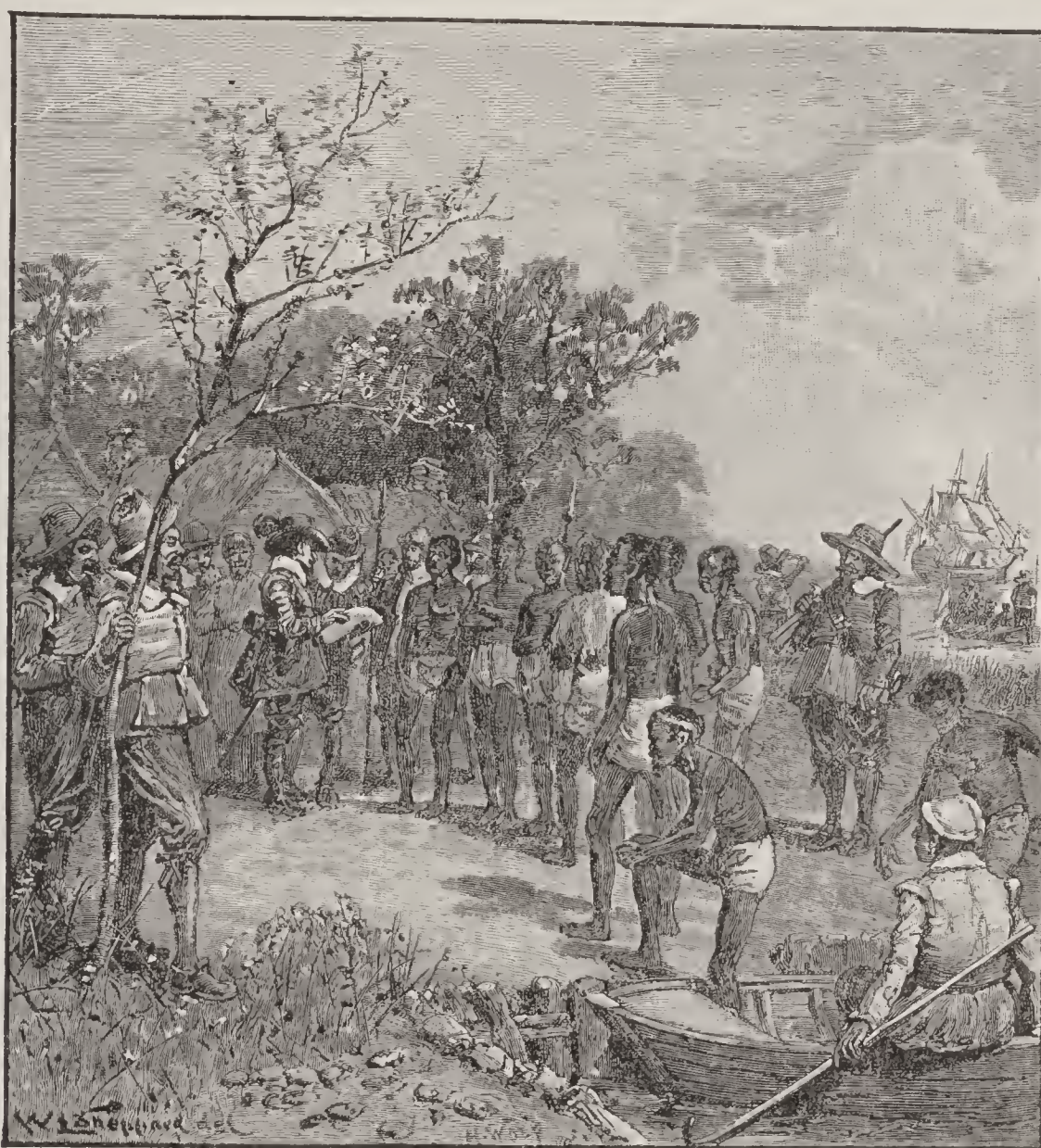
It was in the same year (1619), that another vessel sailed up the James, with a very different cargo. She had some twenty negroes who had been kidnapped by a Dutch captain on the coast of Guinea, in Africa. He brought the wretched beings to Jamestown with the hope of selling them as slaves. The settlers, who were absorbed in the cultivation of tobacco, gladly paid the price demanded for this human freight, and thus it was that the baleful institution of African slavery was introduced into this country.

The wise and thoughtful Yeardley saw that the settlers were longing for the same freedom that their fellow-subjects enjoyed in England. With the consent of the London Council, he made a radical change in the political system then prevailing, by dividing the settlements into eleven boroughs, each of which had two representatives chosen by the people. These representatives, or burgesses, formed with the governor and council the colonial government. The London authorities now gave a written constitution to the colony. It required that all laws passed by the Virginian council should be sent to England, where they could be ratified or rejected, while the laws made in England could not become operative in America until

approved by the local body. This council, which met at Jamestown, in June, 1619, was called the House of Burgesses, and it became the first legislative assembly to perform its functions in the New World.

Powhatan, the friend of the settlers, died, and was succeeded by his brother Opechankano, a treacherous chief, who hated the English intensely and began plotting their destruction. He nursed his schemes with great cunning and skill, meanwhile deceiving the

PERIOD II  
COLONIZATION AND SETTLEMENT  
1602  
TO  
1758



INTRODUCTION OF AFRICAN SLAVERY

settlers by his friendly professions, waiting months and years to complete his fell designs. In March, 1622, he was ready to deal the blow which was to strike terror to the heart of the colony. Disaster fell upon the settlements along the James with the suddenness of the lightning stroke. Men were shot down in the fields; mothers and their babes were tomahawked; and death in its most violent forms raged for more than a hundred miles along both sides of the river. Within one hour after the first war-whoop rang out

Indian  
Mas-  
sacre,  
March  
22d, 1622

PERIOD II  
 COLONIZA-  
 TION AND  
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 1602  
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through the forest, four hundred men, women, and children fell victims to the Indian greed of blood.

Jamestown escaped through the favor of a Christian native, who learned of the intended massacre late on the evening preceding its occurrence. He hurried to the settlement, where preparations were



CHARLES I

hastily made and messengers sent out to warn the plantations. Most of these were so remote that it was impossible to reach them in time; but the majority of the colonists beat back their assailants and were saved. The Indians were made to suffer fearful punishment for this outrage. The infuriated settlers now became the aggressors. Every man who knew how to handle a gun took the field, and the savages were hunted down with merciless rigor. They were slaughtered right and left and driven

into the depths of the wilderness, the chief, Opechankano, narrowly escaping with his life. Twenty years happily passed before there was any more trouble with the red men.

When the stricken colony again took heart, King James became displeased at the growth of republican sentiment in Virginia. The people there had a way of speaking their mind very plainly, and some of them were bold enough to think that the privileges accorded to them were no more than their rights. So, in October, 1623, the monarch replaced the charter with another, much less liberal in its provisions. The government was lodged in the hands of the governor and twelve deputies to be appointed by the king, all of whom had to reside in England, while the executive power in Virginia was vested in a council of twelve, named by the governor and his colleagues, but the appointments had first to receive the king's assent.

The House of Burgesses refused to accept this charter; but the king persisted, and cancelled the patent of the colony, which once more became a royal province. The king, however, made an unexpectedly wise use of his power; but before he could complete a number of reforms he had in view he died, March 27th, 1625, and was succeeded by his son, Charles I. This monarch gave back to Virginia its favorite governor, Sir George Yeardley, he who had established the House of Burgesses, but, to the grief of all, he died two years

An  
 Illiberal  
 Charter,  
 1623

Death of  
 King  
 James,  
 March  
 27th,  
 1625



afterwards. Most of the governors who were at the head of affairs during the next half-century were good, and Virginia prospered.

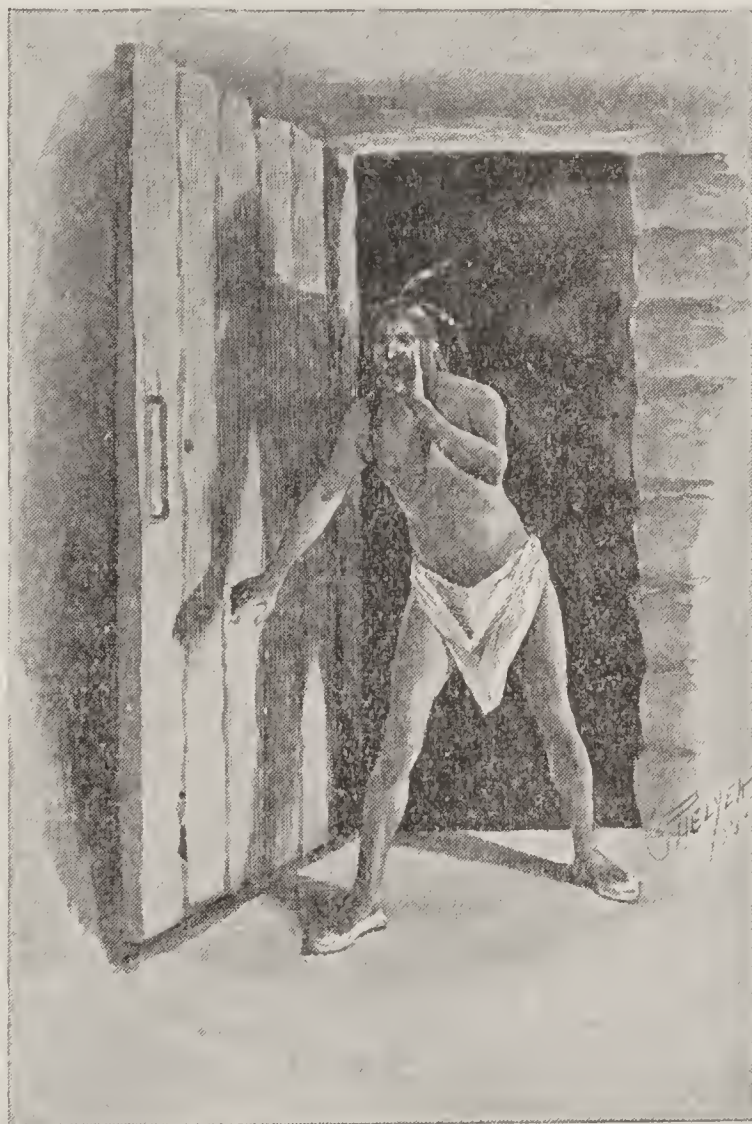
Some years after this, Opechankano, in spite of the lesson that had been taught him, and the loss of hundreds of his warriors, again dared the anger of the settlers. An Indian, we know, however, is revengeful by nature, and this chief nursed his ire for nearly twenty years. He had now become a very old man, more than fourscore and ten years of age, but the fire of hatred burned as fiercely in his breast as when he first buried his tomahawk in the head of the innocent babe and in the heart of the pleading mother.

The second outbreak occurred April 18th, 1644. Three hundred colonists were slain, when the remainder rallied and fell upon their dusky foes with the same relentless fury as before. Opechankano was taken prisoner, and died in Jamestown while a captive. The Indians, as the price of peace, gave up a large tract of land and withdrew still farther from the neighborhood of the settlements, where at that time the colonists numbered twenty thousand. Virginia did not hesitate to show her loyalty to the royal house of England during the troublous times of Cromwell. When Charles I. was beheaded, the Virginians recognized his exiled son as the lawful sovereign, and were the last subjects to submit to the commonwealth which succeeded the now discredited monarchy.

With the view of bringing the colony to a sense of its duty, Cromwell, in 1652, sent a well-manned fleet to Virginia. With the threat of dire things that would be done if she held out, the commissioners offered such liberal concessions for the simple declaration of alle-

PERIOD II  
COLONIZATION AND SETTLEMENT  
1602  
TO  
1758

Second Indian Massacre, April 18th, 1644



THE WARNING

PERIOD II  
 COLONIZATION AND  
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 1602  
 TO  
 1758



OLIVER CROMWELL

giance that they were accepted. Charles II. ascended the throne in 1660, and in remembrance of the loyalty of the Virginians he ordered the arms of the province to be quartered with those of England, Scotland, and Ireland, as an independent member of the empire.

It is because of this fact that Virginia received the title of, and became known as, the "Old Dominion." Sir William Berkeley, who showed his adherence to the English monarchy by accepting his commission from the exiled prince instead of from Cromwell, was reelected governor, and his second commission was signed by the same hand, which now ruled as Charles II. of England. As Berkeley grew older he became bigoted, tyrannical, and heartless. In one of his reports these

words occur: "I thank God there are no free schools nor printing in Virginia, and I hope we shall not have them these hundred years; for learning has brought heresy and disobedience and sects into the world, and printing has divulged them and libels against the best government. God keep us from both!"

The  
 Navigation Act,  
 1660

The Navigation Act bore vexatiously upon Virginia. This required that all colonial commerce, whether of exports or imports, should be carried in British ships: it also heavily taxed the trade between the colonies, and forbade the exportation of tobacco to any country save England. But despite all this, Virginia, in 1670, had a population of forty thousand persons, including two thousand slaves, while eighty ships were engaged in the tobacco trade. The militia numbered eight thousand; there was a fort on the Potomac, one on the York, another on the Rappahannock, and two on the James.

Virginia  
 from  
 the Res-  
 toration  
 to the  
 English  
 Revolution

Founded in 1660, the Assembly of Virginia prevented for sixteen years the election of any new members, preserving its own power of adjournment and coming together. In 1673, the king gave all of Virginia to the Earl of Arlington and Lord Culpeper for the term of thirty-one years. The alarmed colonists sent a protest to the king, but without avail. Naturally, two parties were the outgrowth of this state of affairs. One consisted of Governor Berkeley and his followers, who were staunch royalists, and who oppressed the colonists in every way possible; the other was composed of those who suffered





THE DISCOVERY OF THE HUDSON

from this injustice, including the more thoughtful members of the council, who saw ruin and civil war at hand.

The tyranny of Berkeley and his pliant council became intolerable. Appeals to the king being useless, the colonists in their desperation were on the point of revolting, when the pretext for which they longed presented itself. The Indians invaded Virginia from the north, and everywhere spread death and consternation. Sir Henry Chicheley, the lieutenant-governor, made his preparations in the spring of 1675 to march against them. He had gathered a force of five hundred men, and all was ready, when orders were received from Governor Berkeley disbanding the volunteers. The exasperated settlers obeyed. The charge was made, doubtless



CHARLES II

with truth, that the governor was anxious to keep the monopoly of the beaver trade with the Indians, and meant to favor them, regardless of the safety of the people. The savages became bolder than ever, and slew men, women, and children with the ferocity which they had shown when led by the fierce Opechankano.

Nathaniel Bacon, a brave and popular young planter, who owned several holdings on the James, felt that something must be done or the exposed settlers would perish. He and a number of his friends asked the governor for leave to arm themselves, but this Berkeley refused. Bacon denounced his action, and told his neighbors that he was ready to lead them against the raiding savages without the governor's leave. He declared further, that on news reaching him of the first outrage he would call for volunteers to punish their enemies.

The next tidings that came to Bacon's ears was that the Indians had raided one of his own plantations near Richmond, and killed a servant and his overseer. To the excited colonists who now gathered, Bacon again denounced the governor, and declared that the choice was left of sitting down and waiting for the Indians to tomahawk them all, or to defend themselves.

The Virginians responded almost to a man, and placed Bacon at their head. He asked the governor for a commission, but it was denied. Then Bacon marched against the Indians without the for-

PERIOD II  
COLONIZATION AND SETTLEMENT  
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1758

Bacon's Rebellion, 1675-76

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 TION AND  
 SETTLE-  
 MENT  
 1602  
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 1758

mality of a commission. Berkeley turned purple with anger, and proclaimed Bacon a rebel, and ordered him to disperse his men. Bacon told those who were alarmed at the governor's proclamation that they were at liberty to go home. So many timidly did so that the young Virginian was left with but fifty-seven volunteers. With those, however, he set out to punish the marauders.

Meanwhile, the furious Berkeley did not content himself with words, but at the head of a troop of horse started in pursuit of Bacon. Before he came up with the rebels a messenger overtook the governor with news that the lower settlements had revolted. This "fire in the rear" compelled Berkeley to turn back and give his attention to matters of more importance. When he reached Jamestown, he found the clamor so vehement for a reduction of taxes and the dissolution of the assembly, that, loth as he was to do so, he was obliged to grant both demands.

Bacon  
 elected a  
 Burgess,  
 and made  
 Com-  
 mander-  
 in-Chief

During these stirring days, Bacon was striking telling blows against the Indians. He almost rooted out the offending tribe, after which he returned and disbanded his company. In the election which followed, Bacon was chosen to a seat in the House of Burgesses from Henrico county, and was elected commander-in-chief of the militia; but Berkeley, still full of animus, refused to sign the commission. Bacon, having retired to his plantation, was followed by several hundred friends, who, despite the governor's action, proclaimed him the lawful commander-in-chief. Backed in this imposing fashion, Bacon led his force to Jamestown, and demanded of the governor that he should no longer delay to sign the commission.

Alter-  
 cation  
 with the  
 Governor

The humiliation was too deep to be borne. Striding out in front of the insurgents, the savage Berkeley smote his breast and shouted: "Shoot! shoot! if you wish! I offer you a fair mark!" Bacon approached, and bowing respectfully, said: "Not a hair of your head, sir, shall be harmed; I have come for a commission that we may take measures to save our lives from the Indians."

The governor became cooler after a time, and, urged by his friends, signed the commission, as well as ratified the acts of the House of Burgesses, by which the right of voting was restored to every free-man in the province, guilty magistrates were punished, and a number of reform measures made effective. It is worth noting that all this was done exactly one hundred years before the signing of the Declaration of Independence.

The Indians having renewed their outrages, Bacon placed himself at the head of the Virginian forces and once more marched against them. Hardly had he set out, when the faithless Berkeley crossed the York River into Gloucester (*glos'ter*) county, and proclaimed Bacon a traitor. He also gathered his friends around him, and

PERIOD II  
COLONIZATION AND  
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1602  
TO  
1758



“SHOOT! SHOOT! IF YOU WISH”

among them a large number of slaves, to whom he promised freedom and plenty of plunder for their help in punishing the rebels.

Bacon felt that the governor had pushed him into a revolution. He asked the Virginians to meet at the Middle Plantations—now Williamsburg—to decide what should be done. They came together at noon on a sultry August day, and continued their earnest session until midnight. All pledged themselves to support their leader in his movement against the Indians and to prevent civil war. Among the prominent men who took part in this assemblage was John Washington, great-grandfather of GEORGE WASHINGTON. Another was William Drummond, first governor of North Carolina, who proposed that the departure of Governor Berkeley from Jamestown should be declared an abdication or giving up of the government. This decla-

Con-  
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Colon-  
ists

PERIOD II  
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 TION AND  
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James-  
 town  
 given to  
 the  
 Flames

ration was made, and Bacon and four other members of the provincial council issued writs for the election of an assembly to provide for a new government.

At this critical juncture an unexpected piece of good fortune came to the governor. Five English ships and ten sloops arrived. Upon these Berkeley embarked his motley company of adventurers, slaves, sailors, and even Indians, sailed for Jamestown, and again proclaimed Bacon a traitor. The latter had just returned from a successful campaign against the Indians. In command of his followers he marched to Jamestown, when the cowardly governor skurried on board the boats again, and Bacon and his followers entered Jamestown. Not knowing how soon they would be driven out, a council of war was held, at which it was decided to burn the place to prevent its affording shelter to the obnoxious royalists. Drummond, who owned one of the finest residences in the village, applied the torch to his own dwelling. All that remains to-day of the first English settlement planted in America are the ruins of the church tower and a few tombstones in the graveyard near-by.

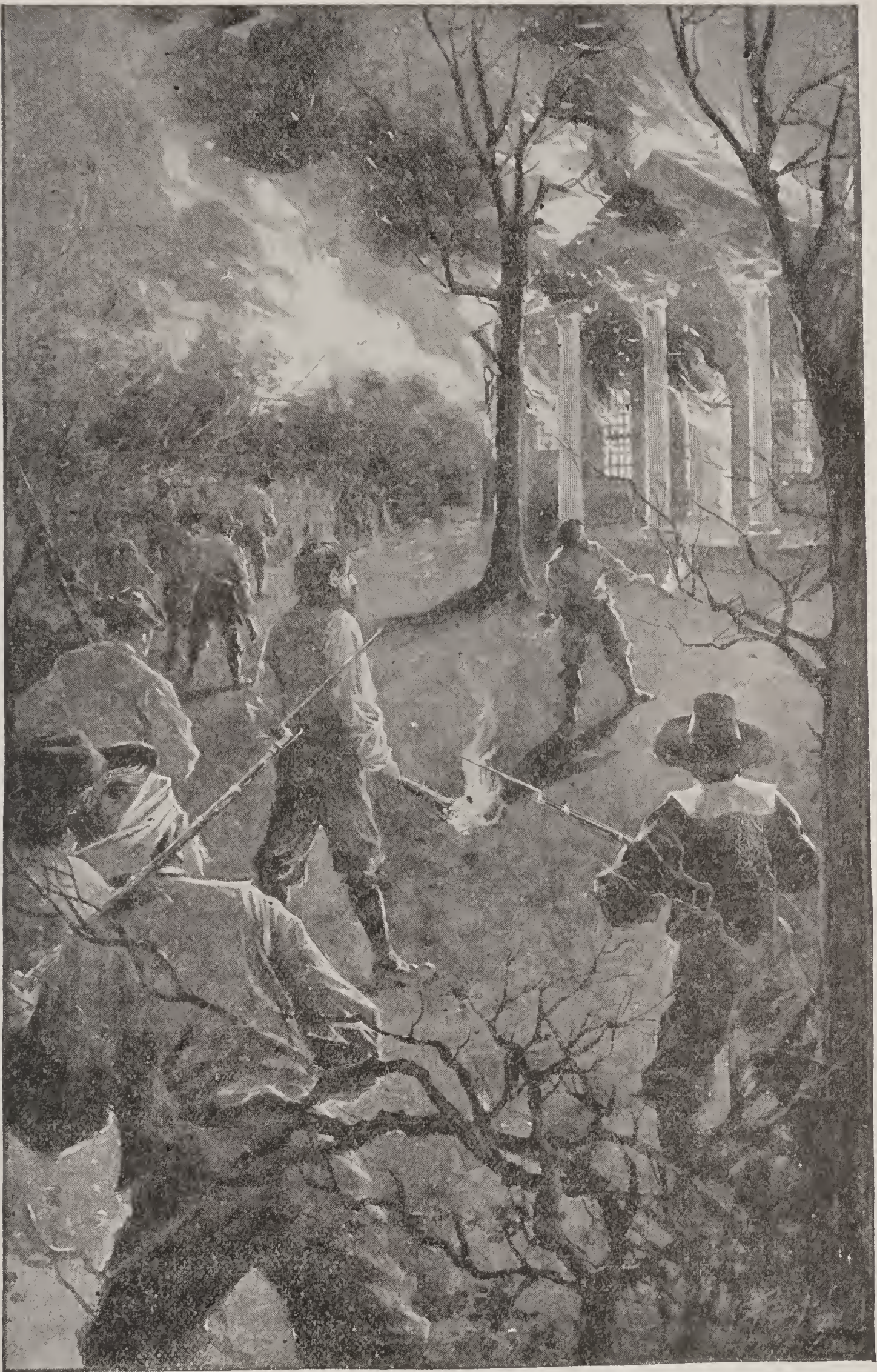
Death of  
 Bacon,  
 Oct. 11th,  
 1676

Many of Berkeley's supporters now deserted, and joined Bacon, who determined to cross the Chesapeake and drive the royalists out of Virginia. When everything promised success to the insurgents, Bacon was seized with a malignant fever and died, October 11th, 1676. There was no one fitted to succeed him, and the rebellion quickly ended. Before the close of the month Berkeley was again at the head of the government, and displayed much malignity in punishing those who had taken part in the insurrection. Drummond and twenty-one others were hanged, three died in prison, and five, condemned to death, effected their escape. Even Berkeley's supporters protested, and King Charles ordered the executions to stop. "The old fool has taken more lives in that naked country," said the monarch, "than I have done here for the murder of my father." Berkeley was recalled in the following spring. Upon his departure the colonists lighted bonfires and fired cannon to express their joy. Berkeley was severely condemned in England for his brutalities, and soon died of mortification and chagrin.

Colonel  
 Jeffrey's  
 Rule,  
 1677-  
 1678

Colonel Herbert Jeffreys now arrived as the successor of Berkeley, and he and Admiral Sir John Berry and Colonel Morrison were appointed commissioners to inquire into the facts regarding the late rebellion and to adjust affairs. Something resembling order was re-





FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY C. M. RALYEA

BURNING OF JAMESTOWN

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 1758

Cul-  
 peper's  
 Rule,  
 1680-  
 1684

established, only the most guilty of the insurgents being punished, after which a general amnesty was declared.

Lord Culpeper, one of the king's favorites, to whom the province had been leased for thirty-one years, was now appointed governor, with a salary double that paid to any predecessor. Nevertheless, the earl remained at home for three years, having little fancy for the office given to him, and indeed never would have set out for America had not the king ordered him to do so. He stayed in Virginia through the summer, during which he lived the life of a profligate, plundered the colonists right and left, and robbed them of many of their dearest privileges, after which he returned to England, to expend in riotous living the money he had stolen from the people. He was sent back to the colony in 1682, and renewed his former excesses, or rather surpassed them, and another insurrection broke out. His reports of the occurrences caused the king to issue orders for the hanging of the leading insurgents. When, however, the monarch learned the truth, he recalled the grant to Culpeper and Arlington, and Virginia once more became a royal province.

The Old Dominion was doomed to suffer a blight from bad rulers. Lord Howard of Effingham, the successor of Culpeper, was as avaricious as a miser and totally lacking in moral principle. When the tension became so great that the people in their desperation were about to appeal to arms again, news arrived of the death of King Charles and the accession of his brother, the Duke of York. The colonists sent Philip Leedwell to England to lay their case before the king. He arrived at about the time that William and Mary were placed on the throne. Although Effingham held the title, and drew the salary as governor for several years, he was not allowed to return to Virginia.

Francis Nicholson next became lieutenant-governor of the province. He had learned much from his troublous experiences in New York, and now made an excellent ruler. He manifested such enlightened, statesman-like views and instituted so many reforms and improvements, that the House of Burgesses gratefully presented him with three hundred pounds beyond his official salary. Nicholson gave one-half of it towards the founding of the William and Mary College, the second-oldest educational institution in the country.

Found-  
 ing of  
 William  
 and  
 Mary  
 College,  
 1693

Nicholson, after a two-years' lease of office, returned to England, probably in hope of the promotion which he had earned, and Sir

Edmund Andros, in 1692, came over as his successor, bringing the charter of the William and Mary College with him. He, too, had profited by experience, and, on the whole, made a good governor.\*

From this time forward, until the middle of the eighteenth century, Virginia advanced in prosperity and extended her population. Joist Hite, in 1732, took up forty thousand acres, near the site of Winchester, and settled it with a colony from Pennsylvania. Those who came after them penetrated beyond the mountains, a number making their homes in the valley of the Monongahela. Between 1700 and 1750, the population in Virginia increased nearly fivefold. Williamsburg became the capital, and there, in 1736, William Parks began the publication of a weekly newspaper. The towns of Richmond and Petersburg were laid out by William Byrd, and Norfolk, Fredericksburg, and Falmouth were incorporated, while new counties were formed, and the prosperity of the historic royal province of Virginia continued without serious check.

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Governor Andros, 1692-1698

\* Sir Edmund Andros (*b.* 1637, *d.* 1714) was a protégé of the Duke of York, afterwards James II., and, though personally of an unblemished character, he upheld the claims and gave effect to the arbitrary policy of his royal but tyrannous master. We shall meet with him again in the next chapter, in connection with English rule in New York, of which colony he was governor from 1674 to 1682. He became governor of New England in 1686, but, three years afterwards, the Boston magistracy deposed and imprisoned him, and sent him for trial to England. There he was released, and later on, as we have seen, was appointed governor of Virginia. In 1698, he was recalled to England, and subsequently represented the Crown in one of the Channel Islands.





## CHAPTER X.

### *THE COLONIAL HISTORY OF NEW YORK.*

[*Authorities:* The annals of so important a centre as New York can, of course, only briefly be touched upon within the compass of a single chapter in the present narrative. For the minutæ of the history, social as well as political, of Manhattan and the Middle Colonies, the reader must necessarily be referred to special and local compilations. Perhaps the most comprehensive of these is Mary Lamb's "History of New York," a mine of information respecting the origin and later development of the Metropolis from Hudson's discovery of the region, through the period of Dutch and early English rule down to recent times. Stone's "New York City," Schuyler's "Colonial New York," O'Callaghan's "New Netherlands," and Lossing's "Empire State," give delightful glimpses of the social and economic condition of the New Netherlands, with much interesting lore concerning New Amsterdam especially, and the contiguous region, southward among the Swedish colonies on the Atlantic, and northward among the Dutch settlements on the Hudson. Many quaint pictures of early social life and modes of government on the banks of the Hudson will also be found in Elting's "Dutch Village Communities," in the series of Johns Hopkins' University Studies, and in Gen. James Grant Wilson's "Memorial History of the City of New York."]



Street-Scene New Amsterdam.

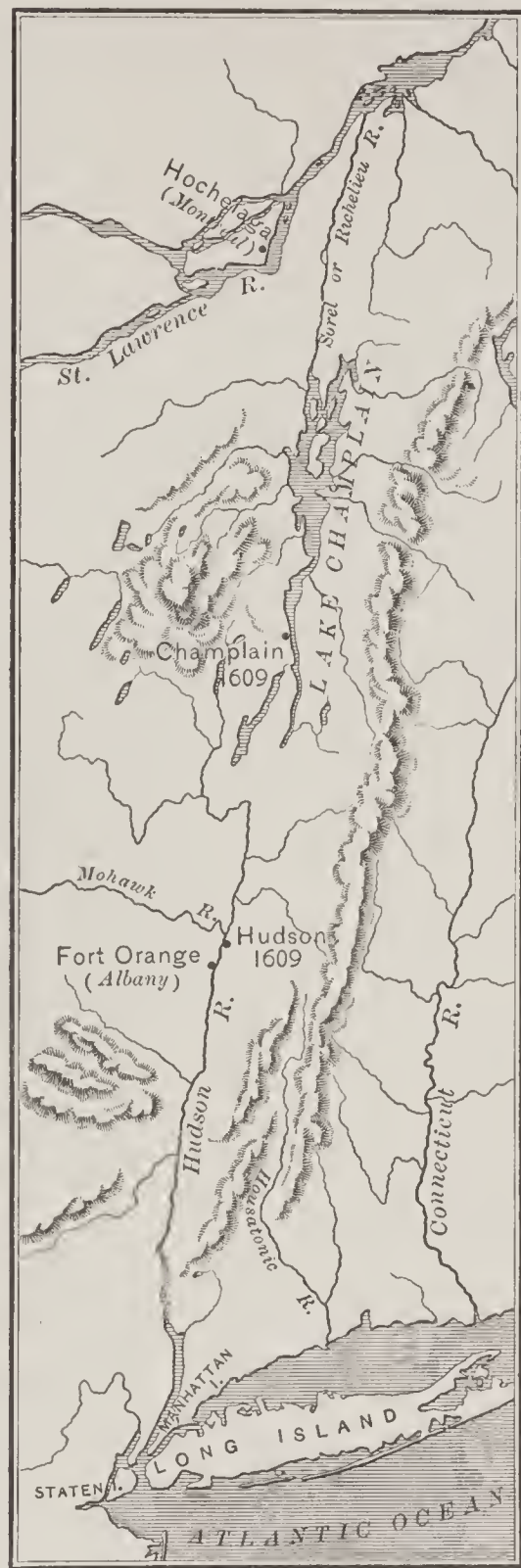
IT has been deemed best, in relating the history of the thirteen original colonies, to do so in the order in which they were settled. We have traced the account of Virginia from the first settlement within its borders down to the middle of the eighteenth century; but although no reference has been made to the other colonies, the reader will bear in mind that during that period (somewhat less than a hundred and fifty years) twelve other colonies had been planted within the present limits of the United States. Most of them were vigorous and flourishing. Naturally, too, the interests of these colonies became interwoven with each other, and, as will be seen when the mutterings of Revolution were heard through the land, they were drawn still closer,

and the citizens became brothers, with the same hopes and aspirations stirring the hearts of all.

Now, if the student of this history will let his mind run back to the year 1609, he will recall the fact that the Old Dominion was like a feeble and dwindling youth. An accident to John Smith, the Father of Virginia, as he has been called, compelled him to return to England for surgical treatment. Left without his vigorous and wise rule, the miserable colony was fast hastening to decay. Seaward rolled the turbulent Atlantic, while north, west, and south stretched an unbroken wilderness, peopled by wild beasts and equally wild red men. Nor must it be forgotten that Jamestown at that time was the only English colony within the present limits of the United States.

At that period, Holland had become the greatest maritime nation in the world. Her vessels ploughed every known sea, carrying brooms at their mastheads to show that they swept the ocean; but the sturdy Dutchmen were of a frugal mind. They cared little for the glory of discovering new lands, but cared a good deal for the profits that might be gained from such discoveries. Thus it was that when it became clear that a vast field for trade could be cultivated in America, the Dutch began to feel an interest in the new country.

The Dutch East India Company was formed about the beginning of the seventeenth century. It was a very wealthy corporation, composed, in the main, of the leading merchants of Amsterdam. To them went Captain Henry Hudson, who had hitherto made a couple of unsuccessful attempts to find a polar passage to India for a company of London merchants. Hudson was an able navigator, with a



HISTORIC WATERWAYS

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Holland during the Seventeenth Century

The Dutch East India Company

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The  
 voyage  
 of the  
 "Half  
 Moon,"  
 1608

special fondness for adventure ; and so when he made his appeal, he met with little trouble in persuading the directors of the Dutch East India Company that an arctic passage could be found by sailing to the northeast, that is, round the north of Europe instead of round the north of America.

Hudson was furnished with a small vessel of ninety tons, manned by an excellent crew. She was named the *Half Moon*, and left Texel in April, 1608, for Nova Zembla. After bumping about among the icebergs, which, as he proceeded on his way, increased in size and number, he was compelled once more to turn back. Then he tried the northwest passage, but was foiled as before, and now heading southward, sighted the coast of Maine in July, 1609. After repairing his battered vessel, he pushed on, still southward, touched at Cape Cod, and finally reached the headlands of Virginia. There he probably heard that the English had made a settlement, for he now turned northward, and entered the harbor of New York early in the beautiful autumnal month of September.

Here he saw the broad, noble stream, the "Rhine of America," flowing into the bay. Confident in his own mind that it was a strait connecting with the Indian Ocean, he ascended it a short distance and anchored. Hardly had he done so when the natives swarmed around the *Half Moon* in their canoes, all making friendly signs, and eager to go on board. Hudson, however, because of his former experience with Indians, was suspicious, and kept them at a distance. The vessel continued leisurely up stream, and was a great cause of wonder to the dusky people who had never seen or imagined so amazing a sight.

Ascent  
 of the  
 Hudson  
 by the  
 "Half  
 Moon"

This was the first time a white man had ever looked upon this river, now one of the most famous in the world, and the sail of the *Half Moon* up the stream was a romantic experience to both the Dutch and the English sailors. By and by, Hudson noticed that the river was narrowing and the water freshening—two facts which proved that he had not yet discovered the longed-for passage to India. He sailed up the river to the vicinity of where Albany now stands, returning at the same tardy pace, often dropping anchor a number of times and bartering with the Indians.

It will be understood that although Captain Hudson was an Englishman, he sailed under the Dutch flag, and he, therefore, took possession of all that he discovered in the name of the States-General

of Holland. It was thus that that country acquired its well-founded claim to the present State of New York.

The fate of Hudson was a mournful one. His discovery made him so famous that his king would not permit him to leave England ex-

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HENRY HUDSON, THE NAVIGATOR

cept on another mission of discovery. In the spring of 1610, he sailed on his fourth voyage in search of a northwest passage. He passed through the strait and into the immense bay named after him. He spent several months in that region of snow and ice and desola-

The  
 Fate of  
 Captain  
 Hudson,  
 1610

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tion, where the sufferings of himself and crew were so great that he decided to leave several behind. Dreading that this might happen, they mutinied, and placed Hudson, his son, and seven men in an open shallop, then turned them adrift, and they were never heard of again.

In the following spring the *Half Moon* returned to England, laden with trinkets and gew-gaws, and was again sent back to the country of the Hudson to trade for peltries with the Indians. The island of Manhattan was selected as the central mart, to which the furs of the bear, beaver, otter, and other animals were to be brought for shipment. In the autumn of 1613, the Dutchmen erected a number of rude cabins for their shelter, and these formed the germ of the present great commercial metropolis of the New World.



SEAL OF NEW NETHERLAND

Cabins  
 erected  
 by the  
 Dutch on  
 Man-  
 hattan  
 Island,  
 1613

The Dutchmen were not slow in learning the value of that part of the country. They explored Long Island Sound, Narragansett Bay, and the region beyond Boston harbor. Block Island was named in honor of Captain Adrien Block, who made these explorations. On the 11th of October, 1614, the States-General of Holland granted a charter to a company of Amsterdam merchants, by which they were given exclusive privileges of trade, for a period of three years, in the province of New Netherland, the designated name of the land lying between the parallels of 40° and 45° north.

This grant, it will be noted, included all of New England, a claim which Great Britain was certain to dispute. A settlement was made in 1615, on a small island below Albany, where a post was erected called Fort Orange. The cabins on Manhattan Island increased in number until it gave promise of soon becoming a town. The Dutch who began penetrating the Mohawk valley showed their wisdom by making a treaty of peace with the Iroquois or Five Nations, the most powerful tribal league that ever existed.

For-  
 mation  
 of the  
 Dutch  
 West  
 India  
 Com-  
 pany,  
 1621

The Dutch West India Company was formed in 1621, and was one of the most important trading enterprises, if perhaps we except the East India Company, ever known. It was a colossal monopoly, with imperial powers that were to last for twenty-two years, and which gave it the exclusive right to colonize, govern, and trade on the coast of Africa, from the tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good



Hope, and over the entire unoccupied coast of America from Newfoundland to the Straits of Magellan.

The fleet of this enormous corporation consisted of thirty-two vessels of war, eighteen armed sloops, and many merchant ships. New Netherland, naturally, fell under the administration of the Company, and in March, 1623, it fitted out a vessel, named the *New Netherland*, designed for trade in the country of the same name. It was a staunch, well-found ship, like the people who launched her, and took out as colonists one hundred and ten men, women, and children, comprising thirty families. They were plentifully provided with domestic animals and agricultural implements. These settlers, known as "Walloons," had been driven from Holland by cruel perse-

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PURCHASE OF MANHATTAN ISLAND

cution, in consequence of their religious beliefs. The old country homes of these voluntary exiles had been in the southern part of the Netherlands, most of whose population were Roman Catholics. The Walloons were of French origin, and were now seeking an abiding-place where they could worship God as they thought right.

Captain Cornelius Jacobsen May, of Hoern, had charge of the ship and was ordered to remain in New Netherland, as first director or governor. The immigrants, a frugal, thrifty people, landed near the fort on Castle Island in May, 1624. They had come with the expectation of doing manual labor, and they set to work with a will. They went in different directions—some proceeded south, towards the Delaware River, some went towards Connecticut; while others went to the western end of Long Island, or Walloon's Bay (now known as Wallabout Bay), and where, it may be said, the city of

The Walloons

Settlements made by the Walloons

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 1758

Brooklyn was founded. A party of them settled on the present site of Albany, which they named Fort Orange; while a small company



A DUTCH WINDMILL

made their homes on the eastern side of the Delaware, a short distance below where the city of Philadelphia now stands. The Delaware was called the South River, to distinguish it from the North River, or Hudson, a name which is still in use.

Cheering news soon reached the directors of the Company in Amsterdam. The first ship which arrived at that port from the colony across the Atlantic brought ten thousand dollars' worth of furs, with the glad news that the people were pleased

with their distant home and were thriving. The Company lost no time in sending out more emigrants, always plentifully provided with domestic animals, seeds, and agricultural implements.

Captain May was governor until 1625, when William Verhult succeeded him, while Peter Minuit took charge in May, 1626. The latter is generally looked upon as the first real governor of New Netherland. He made Manhattan the chief commercial and administrative site, and brought all the settlements under one government. He bought Manhattan Island from the Indians for a lot of trinkets, worth, it is said, about twenty dollars. A fort was staked out at the lower point of the island, where the "Battery" afterwards stood, and was named Fort Amsterdam, and the town which grew up around it was called New Amsterdam. Thus it will be seen that while the English colony was bravely struggling and gaining ground in Virginia, the Dutch one in New York was making steady, if slow, progress. The latter were the right kind of people for pioneers, and their progress at the beginning was attended by no such dreadful scenes and drawbacks as afflicted their neighbors to the southward.

But mistakes were made, and one of the greatest committed was

The  
 Early  
 Gov-  
 ernors of  
 New  
 Nether-  
 land

that of the commissioner at Fort Orange. He allowed the Mohican Indians to persuade him to help them in a war against the Mohawks. He and a number who went with him on the war-path were killed. Foreseeing the terrible consequences of this blunder (for the Mohawks belonged to the Iroquois league), Governor Minuit ordered nearly all the settlers to join him at Manhattan, leaving only a small garrison at Fort Orange. The governor wisely understood the need of keeping on good terms with this powerful confederation of red men.

New Amsterdam grew slowly. Two years after Minuit became governor, the population was less than three hundred; but affairs were prosperous, and a good and growing trade was carried on with the Indians. With the view of increasing immigration, the Company, in 1629, adopted what is known as the "patroon system." This decreed that any member of the Company who should plant a colony of fifty persons, all more than fifteen years old, in New Netherland, should be patroon, or master, of the territory of which he took possession. In other words, he would own the land and rule the people, just as if they were one family of which he was the head. He could establish courts and magistrates in all the villages and towns which might grow up. He was the highest in authority, and appeals could be taken from his decision only to the director-general of New Netherland. By paying a small tax, he could use all lands, rivers, and woods lying within and adjacent to his own domain, and could also trade wherever the Company did. His written consent was necessary before a man or woman servant could leave his service (no matter how badly treated), previous to the end of the time for which such servant had been engaged. The Company bound itself to protect the patroons in all their privileges, and these manorial estates might be sixteen miles in length, if lying on one side of a river, or eight miles if on both sides. Another requirement was that the land should be first bought of the Indians, and that none of the occupants of the holdings should be taxed during the first ten years of their tenancy. This was the patroon system, a relic of the feudal ages, and it never ought to have been planted upon American soil. These first legalized lordships in the New World gave rise to a class of wealthy landowners, whose names—such as the Van Rensselaers, Schuylers, Courtlandts, and others—are familiar in the mouths of New Yorkers to-day.

The shrewd burghers in old Amsterdam did not let these golden

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Peter  
Minuit,  
1626-  
1632

The  
Patroon  
System

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opportunities slip by unimproved. They took time by the forelock, and more than one of them bought tracts in America before the act creating the patroons had become law. The most notable instance was that of Kiliaen van Rensselaer, one of the directors, who, through the commissary at Fort Orange, purchased a large area on the western side of the Hudson, to which he afterwards added immense terri-



WOUTER VAN TWILLER

tory. The greedy patroons made haste to take up valuable tracts, not only in New Netherland, but in New Jersey and Delaware, and their eagerness to profit through the trade with the Indians led to so vigorous a rivalry that the Company had to check the unseemly practice, and the no less unseemly wrangle to which it gave rise.

Governor  
 Wouter  
 Van  
 Twiller,  
 1633-  
 1637

Governor Minuit was suspected of favoring the patroons, and was in consequence recalled in 1632. He was succeeded, in the following year, by Wouter Van Twiller, a fat blockhead, lacking even

ordinary ability. One of the most lively narratives ever written is the "Knickerbocker History of New York," by Washington Irving, in which Governor Van Twiller is the central figure. Of course the pictures drawn by the gifted author are exaggerated; and yet it seems hard to exaggerate such a character as the stupid Van Twiller. Irving's description of this personage is so amusing as to warrant its introduction here. It is as follows:

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"He was exactly five feet six inches high, and six feet five inches in circumference. His head was a perfect sphere, and of such stupendous dimensions that dame Nature, with all her sex's ingenuity, would have been puzzled to construct a neck capable of supporting it; wherefore she wisely declined the attempt, and settled it firmly on the top of his backbone, just between his shoulders. His legs were very short, but sturdy in proportion to the weight they had to sustain; so that, when erect, he had not a little the appearance of a beer-barrel on skids. His face, that infallible index of the mind, presented a vast expanse, unfurrowed by any of those lines and angles which disfigure the human countenance with what is termed expression. Two small gray eyes twinkled feebly in the midst, like two stars of lesser magnitude in a hazy firmament; and his full-fed cheeks, which seemed to have taken toll of everything that went into his mouth, were curiously mottled and streaked with dusky red, like a Spitzenberg apple. His habits were as regular as his person. He daily took his four stated meals, appropriating exactly an hour to each; he smoked and doubted eight hours, and he slept the remaining twelve of the four-and-twenty."

New Netherland prospered, even with this good-natured dolt at the head of affairs; but he was recalled in 1637, and William Kieft (*keeft*) became his successor. Kieft was a peppery, quarrelsome, avaricious man, quick to resent any insult to his dignity, or any encroachment upon the province of New Netherland. Finding soon that a party of English had settled on the northwestern end of Long Island, he promptly drove them away. Learning, too, that a number of English immigrants from New Haven had built a factory on the Delaware, the governor burned the property, and captured the emigrants. In fact, Kieft was continually in hot water; and several times New Netherland was on the point of revolting against his doings. Nevertheless, though a bad man, he did the province much good, after its long stagnation under Van Twiller.

Governor  
 William  
 Kieft,  
 1637-  
 1646

## PERIOD II

## COLONIZATION AND SETTLEMENT

1602  
TO  
1758

## Settlement in Delaware by the Swedes

Peter Minuit, the first governor, felt anything but friendly toward Holland because of its treatment of him, and in 1638, he led a party of Swedes and Finns to Delaware Bay, where they bought land from the Indians and erected a fort which was named Christina, in honor of the infant queen of Sweden. Governor Kieft looked upon these doings as an invasion of Dutch territory, but was afraid to drive out the people, and the settlement increased until it numbered a hundred families, who were located a short distance below the present site of Philadelphia.

As if the quarrels at home were not enough, trouble soon broke out with the Indians. Many outrages were committed by the Dutch settlers as well as by the Mohawks. Kieft de-



PETER STUYVESANT'S HOUSE

termined to destroy the whole tribe of the latter, and one night, in the winter of 1643, his men attacked a Mohawk village, on the present site of Hoboken, and killed nearly every warrior, squaw, and child, within its bounds. This cruel and impolitic act had its grim sequel; for other bands of this powerful tribe retaliated in the most fearful manner. They laid cabins, hamlets, and villages in ashes until the terrified settlers sued for peace. The truce, however, lasted but a little while, when war began again and continued for two years. Finally, peace was established in 1645, and all joined in the general thanksgiving. Governor Kieft was blamed for the shocking occurrences, and, to the joy of every one, he was recalled in 1646. He sailed the following year for Holland, but the vessel was wrecked on the coast of Wales and he was drowned.

## Governor Peter Stuyvesant

The successor of Kieft was Peter Stuyvesant (*sti'-ve-sant*). He was a gallant Dutch soldier, and had lost a leg in the service of his country. At the time of his appointment he was forty-four years old, of inflexible will, a strict disciplinarian, fond of pomp, but withal



*P. Stuyvesant*

PETER STUYVESANT, DIRECTOR-GENERAL OF NEW NETHERLAND

PERIOD II  
 COLONIZA-  
 TION AND  
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 MENT  
 1602  
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Stuyve-  
 sant's  
 Char-  
 acter and  
 Rule

just and honest. His artificial leg was clamped around with a number of silver rings, a circumstance which caused him to be called (when he was beyond hearing) "Old Silver Leg." He was received with the firing of guns and shouts of welcome when he landed one bright morning, in May, 1647, for the people were so tired of Kieft that they were ready to welcome any one.

Stuyvesant was a despot, but he meant well, and did good service in New Netherland; for he was wise, and could not fail to benefit the country that had been ruled so ill. One of his first acts was to persuade the people to abolish the monopoly that had existed in trade. He looked after the morals of the inhabitants, restricted the sale of liquor to the Indians, and infused a new energy into commerce and industry. He was, moreover, so just and considerate in his treatment of the red men that he soon won their confidence.

Stuyvesant was watchful of the encroachments of his neighbors, north and south. He sent a protest to the English governor in Boston against the settlement of his people within Dutch territory. In reply he was invited to meet the governor and talk over matters.

A Dutch vessel anchored in the harbor of New Haven, the waters of which belonged to the English. She had not paid her dues in New Amsterdam. In defiance of law, the governor caused her seizure, whereupon the settlers arrested three of Stuyvesant's servants, and threw them into prison. He demanded their release, but no attention was paid to his request. Then he asked that they might be set free, and this, too, was refused. Thereupon, the governor wrote home for instructions. The Dutch West India Company replied by telling him to get on without quarrelling with his neighbors. The advice was good; but it was not what the fiery governor expected, and it cannot be supposed that he was pleased with it.

Unwilling to yield his claims, Stuyvesant saw but one recourse left to him: he proposed to submit the dispute to arbitration. This was done, and the decision was in favor of the English, most of the territory in question being awarded to them.

The governor now turned his attention to the intruders in New Sweden, as the country occupied by the Swedes on both sides of the Delaware was called. Their governor was named Printz, and his temper was as fiery as that of Stuyvesant, while his size and strength were like those of Hercules. He treated the few Dutch settlers in the territory with great harshness, but allowed them to hold one petty



military post, called Fort Nassau, just above the Schuylkill, (*skool'kil*) because it was not high enough to the Swedish settlements to cause annoyance.

Stuyvesant now built Fort Casimir, on the site of New Castle. Printz stormed, but did nothing. He was recalled, and Rysingh, a new governor, took his place. The latter was scarcely installed in office when he proceeded to capture Fort Casimir, and then "Old Silver Leg" stamped about, and denounced the pestilent Swedes. In

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1758



A DUTCH HOUSEHOLD

"Old Silver Leg" and the Swedes

the spring of 1655 he sent a strong force to the Delaware, which recaptured Fort Casimir and took Fort Christina. Thus ended Swedish rule in America.

The Swedes, however, stayed on in the country, becoming first Dutch and then English subjects, being evidently as well suited with the one rule as with the other.

End of Swedish Rule in America, 1655

When Stuyvesant returned from his expedition to the south, he

PERIOD II  
 COLONIZA-  
 TION AND  
 SETTLE-  
 MENT  
 1602  
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 1758

**The  
 Knicker-  
 bockers**

found that trouble had broken out with the Indians. As usual, the first outrage was committed by the white people, and a massacre of them followed; but the governor soon established peace, after which the history ran on uneventfully for a number of years.

There was a quaint simplicity, a thrift, neatness, and honest look about those old Dutch households that gave them an attractiveness seen nowhere else. Life was like a mellow dream. The sturdy burghers sat in their porches in mild weather, and within doors, when the air was keen, in front of their broad fireplaces, and placidly smoked their long-stemmed pipes, and drank their home-brewed ale, while the deft fingers of the housewife plied the knitting-needles or were busy with the spinning-wheel. Early rising was not a virtue among the Knickerbockers, but in summer they went to bed at sunset. The fashionable hours for parties during winter were from three to six o'clock. This gave time for evening devotions and the preparations for bed at seven.

All the male members smoked, and would sit slowly puffing and looking dreamily into the fire for hours, without speaking a word. The floor was as clean as a pin, and strewn with white sand, with odd but pretty designs wrought by the broom of the housewife. Hospitality was universal, and all believed in good cheer. Contentment and happiness reigned everywhere.

**The  
 Govern-  
 or's  
 Rule  
 Chal-  
 enged**

But among these kindly, stolid Hollanders were progressive men who chafed under the arbitrary rule of Stuyvesant, and, in their resentment, sometimes declared that they would be quite willing to try an English governor by way of a change. Their own ruler was impatient with the growing republicanism, and felt that his knowledge of the best way to rule the colony surpassed the combined wisdom of all the rest.

In 1653, two deputies from each village of the colony came together in convention in New Amsterdam, much to the disgust of Stuyvesant, who, however, could frame no pretext for preventing the meeting. These deputies dared to demand that no new law should be passed, and no person appointed to office, without the consent of the people themselves. When the demand was presented to Stuyvesant he flew into a passion, and told his callers that any set of men who thought they knew enough to govern themselves were so many fools.

The citizens presumed to argue the question with the governor,

whereupon he dissolved the assembly, curtly notifying the members that his authority came from God and the West India Company. The latter, on being appealed to, sustained the doughty governor in all his claims.

But great changes came in the course of a few years. Charles II. assigned to his brother James, Duke of York, all of New Netherland, including a part of Connecticut, and also Long Island. The English monarch had no moral right to this territory, but it was a case of might making right. Four ships-of-war, carrying four hun-

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Capture of New Amsterdam by the English, 1664



THE DUTCH TRADING WITH THE INDIANS

dred and fifty soldiers, under command of Colonel Richard Nicolls, arrived before New Amsterdam in the latter part of August, 1664.

Stuyvesant had been warned of what was coming, and he strove with might and main to rouse the Dutchmen to resistance. He stamped back and forth through the streets of New Amsterdam, swinging his cane about his head, cursing the rascally English, and calling upon his countrymen to rally and drive them back into the sea. But his anger was vain. The Dutchmen believed that the impending change would prove a good thing, and they refused to raise a hand to defend the town.

Interrupted Regime of the Dutch Directors-General

It almost broke the governor's heart to yield; and even when he

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New Am-  
 ster-  
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 New  
 York

saw that no force could be gathered for defence, he refused to consider the summons to surrender, declaring that he would rather die than submit to the English. But the hour came when he saw that his course was madness, and he had no choice left. The English offered conciliatory terms, but accompanied by the threat that, if he declined them, the troops would be landed and would take possession of the town. So at last he submitted, and the surrender was signed.

The total population of New Amsterdam at that time was about fifteen hundred. Its name was changed to New York, in honor of the Duke of York. The remainder of the province received the same name, while Fort Orange became Albany, to commemorate the Duke's Scottish title. Colonel Nicolls was proclaimed deputy-governor, and the citizens puffed their pipes and took the oath of allegiance, much as they would have taken a draught of "nut-brown ale" from their massive pewter mugs.

Governor  
 Love-  
 lace's  
 Rule,  
 1668-74

For a time, the English rule was so liberal and indulgent that the people were glad that the change had come. The villagers were allowed to choose their own magistrates, and the Navigation Act was suspended for six months, during which free trade prevailed with the ports of Holland. At Nicolls' request, he was relieved of the governorship of New York, and was succeeded by Colonel Francis Lovelace, who arrived in 1668. Fully acquainted with the wants of the colony, his rule was moderate and wise, and the contentment and prosperity continued. War now broke out between France and England on the one hand and the Netherlands on the other. This was in 1672, and in the month of August, a Dutch fleet of twenty-three ships, with a large force of men, anchored in the outer bay of New York. The citizens of the town welcomed their countrymen as liberators, for they had grown dissatisfied with the English rule. Governor Lovelace was absent on a visit to Governor Winthrop, of Connecticut, and an express was sent after him. Colonel Manning, in command of the fort, called for volunteers, but none responded. He did all he could to gain time, until the Dutch lost patience and opened fire on the fort, which killed and wounded several men. The sparse but plucky garrison returned the fire, and six hundred Dutch soldiers were landed, who were joined by four hundred citizens in arms. The landing took place near where Trinity Church, Broadway, now stands, and the force was advancing to the attack, when Manning surrendered.



FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY J. GLEESON

STUYVESANT'S VAIN APPEAL

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New  
 York  
 once  
 more  
 changes  
 Rulers

And so, once more, on the 9th of August, 1673, the flag of the Dutch republic waved over Fort Amsterdam. The name of the town was changed to New Orange, in compliment to William, Prince of Orange, and the outlying portions of New Netherland speedily submitted. Grim old Peter Stuyvesant at this time must have been the happiest man in the whole province.

Anthony Colve, the new governor, was a wide-awake and energetic man, who took sharp steps to bring the remainder of the province to submission, and, at the same time, proceeded to put the lumbering old fort into good condition for defence. He was busy at this work, when in May, 1674, two men came in from the province of Connecticut with news that a treaty of peace had been signed between England and Holland, by the terms of which, the province of New Netherland was ceded to England. The Dutchmen of the town were so angry that they seized the bearers of the evil tidings and cast them into prison. The news, though unpalatable, was, however, true. The treaty had really been made, and all of the Dutch possessions in America passed again into the possession of England. Once more New Netherland changed hands, and New York remained an English colony until the Revolution.

New  
 York  
 ceded to  
 England

These changes of rule had caused so much confusion within the boundaries of the Duke of York's grant, that a new patent was issued in June, 1674. This embraced all the territory west of the Connecticut River to the eastern shore of the Delaware, including Long Island and a portion of Maine. Sir Edmund Andros was now appointed governor of New York, and he received the formal surrender of the province in the month of October.

Rule of  
 Governor  
 Andros

Andros at that time was under forty years of age. He had shown himself to be a brave and able soldier. He possessed a fine education, and his personal character was without stain; but in his zeal to carry out the wishes of his royal master he proved himself one of the most oppressive of tyrants. He remained at the head of affairs for eight years, during which, in spite of his harshness, the colony prospered.

The right of representation was given to the people in 1683, and Colonel Thomas Dongan, a mild and enlightened Roman Catholic, arrived in August as governor of the province. He sympathized with the popular desire for greater freedom, and on the 17th of October, 1683, a legislative assembly met in session in Fort James, at

New York. Seventeen representatives were present, and this first General Assembly of the Province of New York was in session three weeks, during which fourteen acts were passed and assented to by

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LANDING OF THE ENGLISH AT NEW AMSTERDAM

the governor and his council. The first and most important was "The Charter of Liberties and Privileges, granted by His Royal Highness to the Inhabitants of New York and its Dependencies."

This date is memorable in the early history of New York, and

The  
 First  
 General  
 As-  
 sembly  
 of the  
 Province  
 of New  
 York,  
 1683

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The  
 Charter  
 of  
 Liberties  
 and  
 Privileges



ANDROS

Fortunes  
 of New  
 York,  
 during  
 the  
 English  
 Revolution  
 of  
 1688-89

the act named is an historical one. Its provisions secured religious freedom; the abolishment of martial law and of the quartering of seamen and soldiers on the inhabitants against their will; and placed a restraint on the levying of taxes without the consent of the Assembly. It, moreover, gave to every freeholder and freeman the right to vote without hindrance, and guaranteed to all accused of wrong-doing the right of trial by a jury of twelve men.

Naturally, high hopes were raised by this Charter of Liberties, but they were not fulfilled, for when the Duke of York,\* in 1685, became king, he broke the pledges he had made. He ordered the levying of a direct tax, abolished the printing-press, and took steps to force the Papal religion upon the colony. Dongan, although himself a Roman Catholic, bravely opposed the bigoted

monarch, won the gratitude of the citizens, and in the spring of 1688 was ordered to surrender his government to Andros, whose authority extended over New York and New England. Andros left Francis Nicholson, a lieutenant of the army, to act as lieutenant-governor of New York.

News reached this country in April, 1689, of the dethronement of James II. and the accession of William and Mary. Andros and his political associates were seized in Boston and sent to England. A popular uprising took place in New York, where the government was in the hands of Nicholson, Councillor Frederick Phillips, Stephen van Courtlandt, and Nicholas Bayard. New York by this time had grown to be a city of 5,000 population, with a variety of religions and nationalities. Since England was now (1689) at war with France, it was decided to fortify the place against the French. The

\* The Duke of York was the son of Charles I. and brother of Charles II. When the latter died, in 1685, the Duke of York succeeded to the English throne as James II. On his accession, he promised to maintain the established government, both in Church and State, a promise he immediately broke by his fanatical zeal for Roman Catholicism, which led him to fill the army with Roman Catholic officers, in violation of the Test Act, and to make an illegal use of the dispensing power. As a protest against these acts, his brief rule was chequered by two insurrections—Argyle's and Monmouth's—and terminated by the Revolution of 1688, which placed William and Mary on the throne.



council showed so much hesitation in regard to this that Jacob Leisler (*lice'ler*), one of the militia captains, was placed at the head of affairs. There was some dissatisfaction with his appointment; but the rumor of an approaching French fleet strengthened his position. Six captains and four hundred men agreed in writing to hold the fort for the Prince of Orange, or whomsoever he should appoint governor. News came that the sovereigns William and Mary confirmed temporarily the appointments of all Protestants holding office; but Nicholson was so distrusted that, in a furious pet, he sailed for England.

Leisler and his friends were now masters of the city. He appointed his own collector, and so alarmed his associate councillors that they withdrew, and for more than a year Leisler was the supreme ruler of the town. Finally, Henry Sloughter (*slaw'ter*), one of the king's favorites, was made governor of New York, but did not sail until a year after his appointment. Major Ingoldsby, one of his officers, arrived January 29, 1691, several weeks before Sloughter, and ordered Leisler to surrender the fort. When Leisler asked him for his authority, he was unable to produce any. The captain thereupon refused to recognize him, but offered every courtesy to Ingoldsby and his troops, even to the extent of providing them quarters in the fort. The offer was declined, and little happened until the 19th of March, when Governor Sloughter himself arrived.

Preparations were about to be made to attack the fort, when Leisler surrendered. The governor ordered the trial of Leisler and his council, on the charge of murder and treason. Leisler and his son-in-law, Milborne, refused to appear until the grave question was settled whether the king's letter had not given him the formal authority which he had assumed. The question was turned over to the governor and council, who decided that no such authority was granted by the king's letter. Leisler, Milborne, and six others, were found guilty and sentenced to death. Following the advice of the judges, however, the governor reprieved them till the wishes of the king could be learned.

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JAMES II

Arrival of Governor Sloughter, 1691

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Hanging  
 of Leisler and  
 Milborne,  
 1691

Leisler's vigorous measures had made many bitter enemies, who now resorted to a base artifice to bring about his ruin. Failing after repeated efforts to persuade the governor to sign the death-warrant, they gave him a dinner at which he was plied with wine until he was intoxicated. In that condition, he was led to sign the death-warrant of Leisler and Milborne. When the governor became sober, he found to his horror that the two had been executed.



A TEMPERANCE LESSON

Death of  
 Governor  
 Slough-  
 ter

Two months later, Governor Slughter died so suddenly that many suspected that he was poisoned; but his death was probably due to excessive indulgence in liquor. Some years later, the English parliament reversed the attainder pronounced upon Leisler, and paid back all the expenses which his estate had borne. Every possible reparation was made, and the verdict of history is that he and Milborne were judicially murdered.

Benjamin Fletcher succeeded Slughter. He had a violent temper, was avaricious, dishonest, and wholly lacking in tact. Through-

out his administration of seven years, the embers of hatred caused by the execution of Leisler glowed and burned, and at one time threatened to break into the flames of civil war. So when the Earl of Bellomont became governor in 1698, he found public affairs in a bad plight, but set to work with vigor to improve them. He won the confidence of all the people, and gave them a good administration.

The most notable incident connected with the rule of Bellomont was the career of William Kidd, the pirate. The crime of piracy grew to alarming proportions during the latter part of the seventeenth century. The English government tried to repress the evil, but could not do so, and a company was formed to effect it. This

association was composed of a number of English noblemen, among whom was Governor Bellomont. Kidd was known to be a skilful sailor and a daring fighter, and the galley which was fitted out for him, and named the *Adventure*, was placed under his command.

Kidd did fine service in destroying pirates, and after a time found himself in command of one hundred and fifty men, among whom were a number of as vicious criminals as could be found anywhere in the world. He now felt strong enough to attack the pirates of the Indian Ocean, and in February sailed for the coast of Madagascar. It was a long voyage, and on the way thither and for many months after, Kidd cruised back and forth without exchanging a shot with a pirate. Then he made up his mind to turn freebooter himself.

Thus it was that one of the most famous pirates in history began his evil career. The *Adventure* was fully armed and respected no flag. Kidd and his crew were after plunder, and it mattered little to them who became their victims. He roamed over the ocean, from India to the coasts of South America, among the West India Islands, and northward to the vicinity of his home. He was a cruel man, who, if tradition can be trusted, committed not a few murders, when there was neither pretext nor excuse for doing so. For one of these, he was at last brought to trial and, as we shall see, suffered for his crime, though the plea is made for him that his victim on that occasion was being punished as a mutineer.

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GOVERNOR BELLOMONT

Bellomont's Administration, 1698-1701

William Kidd, the Pirate

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**Kidd's  
 reputed  
 Buried  
 Treasure**

The belief has been general for many years that Kidd buried immense sums of money and treasure at points on the Atlantic coast, and especially on Long Island and in New Jersey. Hundreds of people have searched for these treasures, and no doubt hundreds more will do so. Within a mile of where the writer of this is penning these lines, a party of men, some years ago, almost dug away a small island in Shark River, under the belief that they had struck the spot where an enormous amount of treasure had been buried by the famous freebooter. They found a few pennies, which investigation proved had been placed there by some waggish neighbor, but nothing of any buried wealth, nor is any authentic instance known of money thus buried being found by other persons.

Kidd was foolhardy enough to sail into the port of Boston, under the belief that the wealth at his command would purchase his safety. The charge has been made that Governor Bellomont and others high in authority shared the ill-gotten gains of the pirate; but when orders came from England for Kidd's arrest they were carried out, and he was sent to England, where he was executed in 1701.

One of the strange facts connected with the colonial history of our country is that the English monarchs appointed as governor so many men who possessed no fitness for the high office. Some of them were a little above the grade of idiots, and many were rogues, who ought to have spent their lives in a penitentiary. Few of the colonies escaped this affliction. It is therefore not strange if, at times, we find some of these governors lying under an uncomfortable and more or less justifiable suspicion.

**Governor  
 Hyde's  
 Es-  
 capades**

Sir Edward Hyde became governor of New York after the death of the Earl of Bellomont, and ruled for seven years. He was one of the most despicable of men; so arrant a knave, indeed, that it may be doubted whether he would have been appointed had he not been the uncle of Queen Anne. What would be thought to-day of the governor of a colony appearing repeatedly on the streets and at public assemblies in the dress of a woman? That is what Governor Hyde did, on the plea that it was proper for him to do so because the ruler of England was a woman. He was so despised that the queen recalled him in 1708. His creditors put him in prison for debt, where he would have died, had not the death of his father made him Lord Cornbury. The English law does not permit a peer of the realm to be arrested for debt, and so he escaped further humiliation.

Lord Lovelace succeeded Hyde, and did fairly well until his death, in May, 1709. He was followed successively by Robert Hunter, William Burnet, and John Montgomery. During the administration of the first named, Queen Anne's war occurred, an account of which will be given in another chapter. Hunter retired in 1719. His successor was a son of the famous Bishop of Salisbury. He cultivated friendly relations with the Indians, and was popular because of his geniality. He was transferred to the governorship of Massachusetts, in 1727. His administration was uneventful, and, dying in 1731, he was succeeded by the senior member of council, Rip Van Dam, until the arrival of Colonel William Cosby, in August, 1732.

The sole ambition of Cosby was to make all the money possible while the opportunity was in his hands. He demanded of Van Dam one-half the salary he had received while acting as governor. Van Dam said he would consent to this if Cosby would pay him one-half the perquisites of his office from the time of his appointment until his arrival. Cosby refused the proposition and sued Van Dam in the Supreme Court, where the majority of the judges were the personal friends of the governor. The council decided against Van Dam, and Chief-Justice Morris decided against the governor, who thereupon displaced the Chief-Justice without consulting his council.

This high-handed course caused great indignation. In 1725, William Bradford had established the first public newspaper in New York. It was he who, in 1693, set up the first printing-house in the province. His paper was called *The New York Weekly Gazette*, and was the organ of the government. An apprentice and business partner with Bradford, named John Peter Zenger, was now induced to establish an opposition paper, through which the growing sentiment of democracy might find expression. Van Dam was the financial backer of *The New York Weekly Journal*, which made its appearance in November, 1733.

As might be supposed, *The Journal* hotly attacked the governor and his supporters. It did so with biting vigor, and made serious charges which cut the deeper because they had a foundation in fact. The governor and his friends affected to treat these attacks with indifference; but at the end of a year they were roused to action. By order of the governor and council, Zenger's papers, containing the exasperating articles, were publicly burned by the common hangman, and he was arrested and thrown into prison on the charge of libel-

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Early  
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 Newspapers

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ling the government. The Grand Jury, however, refused to find an indictment, but Zenger was held by adopting another course, which was such a defiance of right and decency that the sympathy for Zenger and contempt for the governor became universal.

The Lib-  
 erty of  
 the Press  
 Vindi-  
 cated

The master-stroke of the accused was in engaging the venerable Andrew Hamilton, of Philadelphia, as his counsel. He was, at the period, the most eminent lawyer in the colonies, and although past three-score and ten, and quite infirm, he willingly undertook without fee the defence of the persecuted journalist. He did this with masterly skill, and despite the fact that the judge charged strongly against Zenger, the jury were absent from the room for only a few minutes when they returned with a verdict of "not guilty." The decision was received with expressions of delight, and Hamilton was lifted upon the shoulders of some of the enthusiastic citizens and carried out of the court-room amid the hurrahs of the people. It was a notable victory for the liberty of the press.

Governor Cosby was humiliated by his defeat, but there was no help for him. It was he who had made the attack and met with repulse. He died in March, 1736, and was succeeded by George Clark, the oldest member of the council, whose character was much the same as that of his predecessor. The most notable event of his administration was the "Negro Plot" of New York.

Alleged  
 Negro  
 Plots,  
 1740-41

In the winter of 1740-1741, a number of incendiary fires occurred in the city, and suspicion was turned against the negro slaves, a large number of whom were then in the metropolis. In such cases, prejudice or mere hearsay is sufficient to implant in the public mind a suspicion of guilt. Although there was not the slightest evidence against the negroes, a panic ensued, during which four white people and eighteen negroes were hanged, and eleven of the latter burned to death at the stake. On the spot where the City Hall stands, three negroes were burned at the same time, while many were transported to the West Indies before the senseless panic subsided. From this time forward until the French and Indian war, the events in New York are of little public importance.



## CHAPTER XI

### *THE COLONIAL HISTORY OF NEW ENGLAND*

[*Authorities* : The literature is naturally extensive that enters into details respecting the early colonization and methods of government among the Puritan Commonwealths of New England. Around this cradle of the liberties of the New World the American intellect has taken pride in weaving literary garlands, to add to its historic and religious lustre. How richly this section of our country has been treated of and illustrated, the following important works bear ample witness : Palfrey's "History of New England," Ellis's "Puritan Age and Rule," Campbell's "The Puritan in Holland, England, and America," Baird's "Huguenot Emigration to America," Bliss's "Colonial Times," Goodwin's "Pilgrim Republic," Fiske's "The Beginnings of New England," and Drake's "The Making of New England." Nor was New England settlement without contemporary pens to throw light upon its early life, as is evidenced in the publication of works such as Cotton Mather's "Magnalia," Winthrop's "New England," and Bradford's "History of the Plymouth Plantation."]



"Welcomes Englishman!"

HERE are several words whose meaning is often confused by the students of history. We have often heard the names "Puritans," "Pilgrims," "Independents," "Separatists," and "Non-conformists" used as if they referred to the same persons, but this use is not strictly correct.

**The  
English  
Puri-  
tans**

During the sixteenth century a marked difference of views arose among the members of the Church of England, or, as it is sometimes termed, the Episcopal Church. A large number of that ecclesiastical body were dissatisfied because some of the ceremonies and practices of the Roman Catholic faith were retained, and they insisted that all should be removed,—in other words, that the Church should be purified of them. More than one clergyman refused to conform to the requirements of the new order of things. These people were called "Non-conformists," and in derision were styled "Puritans." A Puritan was a member

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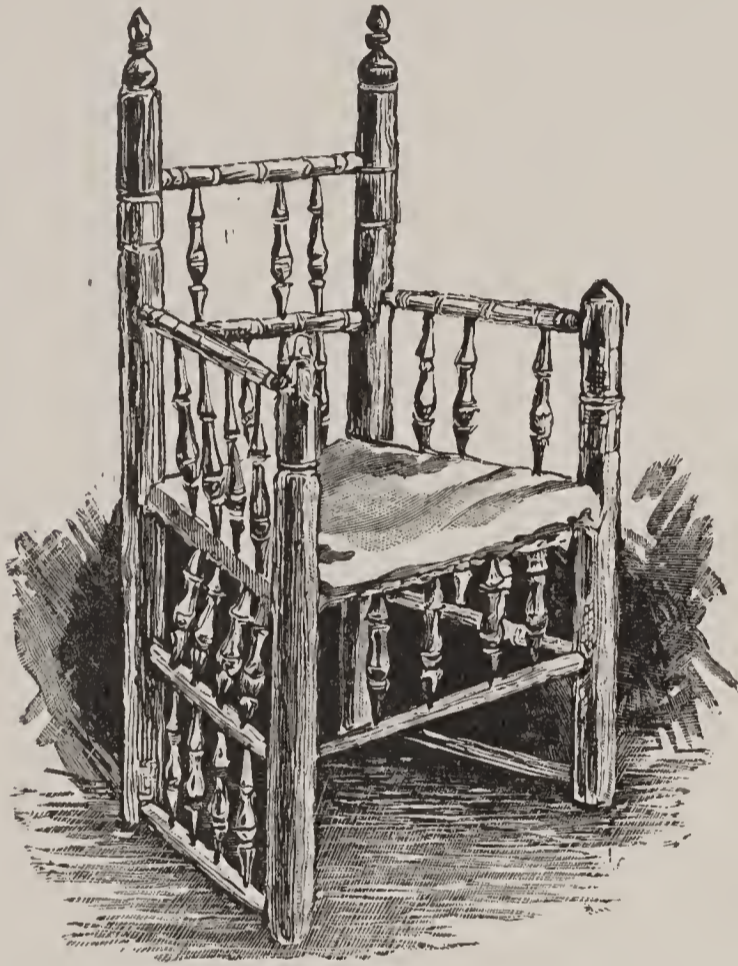
The  
 Sects

of the Church of England, who demanded and strove for certain changes in public worship but did not withdraw from the Church.

But there were others who were so dissatisfied that they left the Church and worshipped apart. These persons were known as "Independents," or "Separatists," and, like the Puritans, of course were Non-conformists. It may be well, perhaps, to bear in mind, that while

the Puritans, Non-conformists, Separatists, and Independents held to the same belief, the first two named stayed within the Church, while the Independents or Separatists withdrew from it.

These people were cruelly persecuted because of their faith; but they bore their sufferings meekly, believing that when James came to the throne of England he would treat them with justice. In some cases, when the persecution was too great to be borne, the Independents emigrated to Holland, where religious freedom existed for all.



ELDER BREWSTER'S CHAIR

King  
 James I

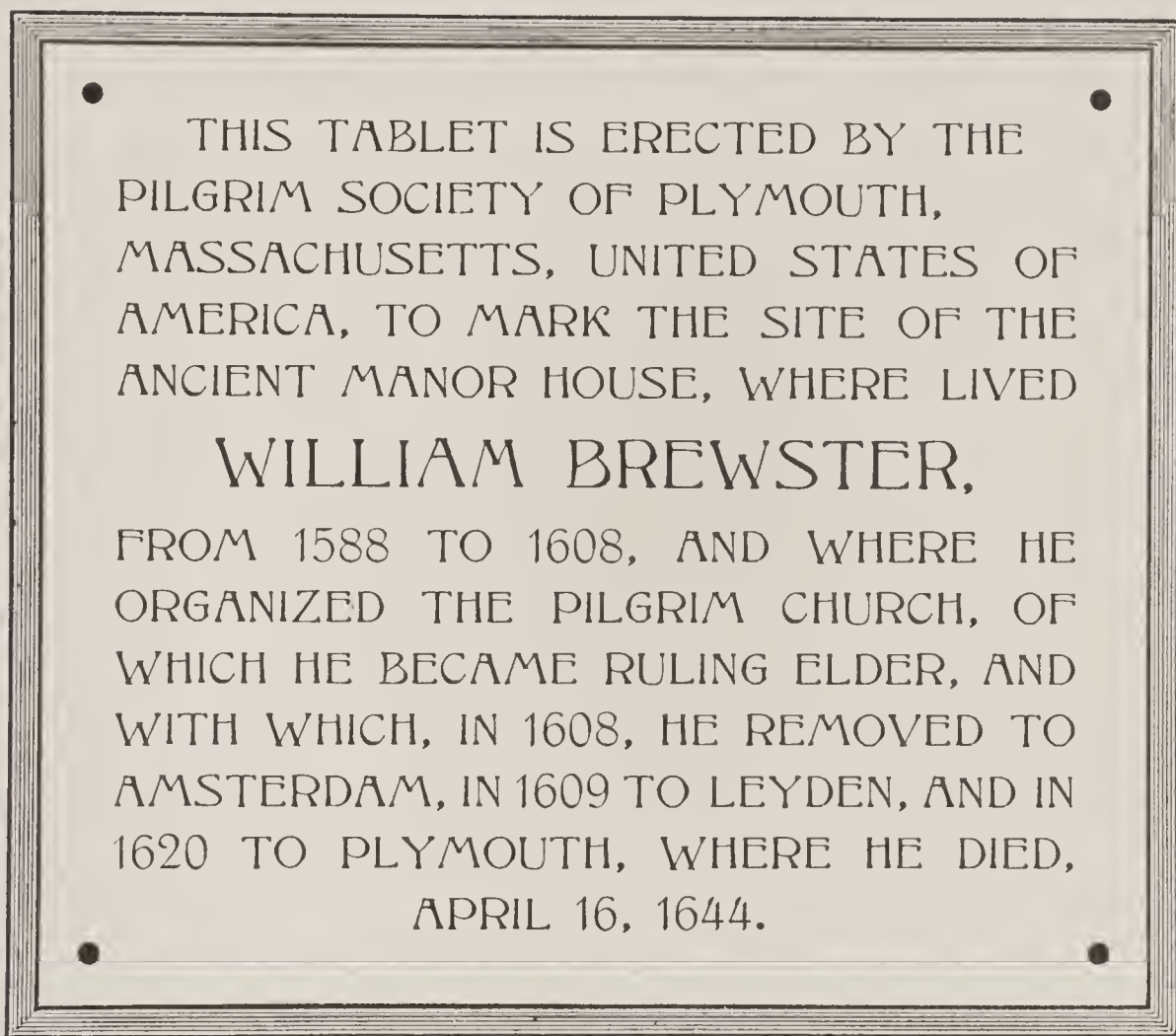
A wretched disappointment came to the sufferers when Queen Elizabeth died and James I. became king. One of England's best historians has written of this monarch: "He was cunning, covetous, wasteful, idle, drunken, greedy, dirty, cowardly, a great swearer, and the most conceited man on earth." What good could be expected from such a ruler? Yet the religious discussions, which arose partly out of James's assumption of "Divine Right" to rule, led to the appointment of a learned commission of profound scholars to make the translation of the Bible since almost exclusively used throughout the Protestant world until the late Revised Version appeared.

Meanwhile, the Separatists who had emigrated to Holland were steadily increasing in number through the accessions of their persecuted brethren. They united themselves at Leyden, in Holland, where their upright and godly lives won the respect of their Dutch



neighbors. The eloquent John Robinson was their pastor, and William Brewster \* their chief elder. Although freed from persecution, they could not feel contented, surrounded as they were by those who spoke another tongue, and whose customs and manner of living were so different from their own. They longed to go elsewhere, and nothing was more natural, therefore, than that their hearts should go out in longing to the New World. They discussed the project of removing thither, and strove to consider and duly weigh every difficulty

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TABLET ERECTED AT SCROOBY, NOTTS

which they were likely to have to face. It was the subject of many prayers, with the decision that it was the will of God that they should emigrate to America.

The Council of Plymouth received its charter in 1620, thereby

\* THE BREWSTER TABLET.—An interesting memorial was, in the summer of 1895, erected at Scrooby, Nottinghamshire, England, by the Pilgrim Society of Plymouth, Mass., to mark the site of the English home of William Brewster, the founder and one of the ruling elders of the Pilgrim Church of New England. Brewster, while in England, was one of the illustrious sufferers for conscience' sake, and, after his liberation from jail he removed to Holland, then to the New World in the *Mayflower*. A transcript of the commemorating tablet, which is affixed to a farmhouse at Scrooby, on the site of Brewster's ancient manor-house, is shown on this page.

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King  
 James  
 and the  
 Puritans

superseding the original Plymouth Company, but while the negotiation was under way, two agents of the Leyden congregation visited England, with the request that they should be allowed to settle within the territory of the Plymouth Company, and asking a guarantee from the king of religious freedom. The king refused a written promise, but assured them that they should not be disturbed so long as they gave no public offence. His royal word, as we know, was worthless; but since nothing better could be gained, the exiles decided to take the risk.

A joint-stock association, with a number of London merchants, was formed. By its terms all profits were to be reserved for seven years, at the end of which period everything was to be divided proportionately among the shareholders. Those who were too poor to pay cash for their passage were to pay the debt in the form of labor or other services.

The Pilgrims—as they soon came to be called, because of their wanderings—showed prudence and worldly wisdom in all the steps of this important movement. The negotiations occupied several years, and when completed, it was arranged that “the youngest and strongest” members should go to America, under the spiritual charge of Elder Brewster, and that Mr. John Robinson, a zealous clergyman, and the remainder should follow a year later, provided the reports from the other side of the Atlantic were favorable. The *Mayflower*, of one hundred and eighty tons burden, and the *Speedwell*, of sixty tons, were bought, the latter in Holland, to carry the members of the congregation that could go to England, where the *Mayflower* was moored in the Thames, taking in its cargo of stores for the voyage. The parting between the friends and coreligionists was of a solemn and impressive nature.

Sailing  
 of the  
 “May-  
 flower,”  
 Sept.  
 6th, 1620

The two ships soon set out; but the *Speedwell* was found to be leaky and unseaworthy. Her passengers were, however, transferred to the *Mayflower*, while the *Speedwell* remained behind at London. Early in September, 1620, the *Mayflower* sailed from Plymouth, carrying, besides her crew, over one hundred persons with which to found a colony in the New World.

The voyage of the *Mayflower* was in its issue one of the most noted undertakings in history. For over two months the little vessel was tossed about on the stormy Atlantic, oftentimes in such danger that a number urged turning about, as did the mutinous mariners of Co-



FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY J. STEEPLE DAVIS

SIGNING THE COMPACT ON THE "MAYFLOWER"

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lumbus; but the majority were stout-hearted and had fully "counted the cost," so the vessel kept on. Finally, on the 9th of November, the low, sandy peninsula of Cape Cod was sighted, and all gave thanks to God. As we can well understand, the principal theme on ship-board was the new country, and what they all expected to do when they reached it. Naturally, there was some difference of opinion as to the best form of government to be adopted, and again the Pilgrims showed their wisdom by drawing up the following instrument in the cabin of the *Mayflower*, which was signed by the forty-one adult male emigrants:

Cove-  
nant for  
the Good  
Govern-  
ment of  
the  
Colony

"In the name of God, Amen. We whose names are here under-written, the loyal subjects of our dread sovereign, King James, by the grace of God, of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith, etc., having undertaken, for the glory of God, and advancement of the Christian faith, and honor of our king and country, a voyage to plant the first colony in the northern parts of Virginia, do, by these presents, solemnly and mutually, in the presence of God and of one another, covenant and combine ourselves together into a civil body politic for our better ordering and preservation, and in furtherance of the ends aforesaid; and by virtue hereof to enact, constitute, and frame just and equal laws, ordinances, acts, constitutions, and offices, from time to time as shall be thought most meet and convenient for the general good of the colony; unto which we promise all due submission and obedience. In witness whereof we have hereunto subscribed our names at Cape Cod, the 11th of November, in the year of the reign of our sovereign lord, King James, of England, France, and Ireland, the eighteenth, and of Scotland the fifty-fourth, Anno Domini 1620."

Governor  
Carver,  
and  
Miles  
Standish

On the voyage across there had been one death and one birth, so that the original number remained the same. John Carver was chosen governor for the first year, and in doubt whether the best spot had been selected for settlement, Captain Miles Standish and a number of men were sent ashore to spy out the country.

It was no easy task. The weather was intensely cold, and the snow was driven in their faces by the furious wind as the explorers tramped through the deep sand. Standish was a little fellow, with "a long yellow beard," but as full of sturdy heroism and integrity as was John Smith, of Virginia. He was a soldier by profession, and though not a member of the Independent Church, he liked the sim-

ple, honest ways of the Pilgrims, and gladly went with them to America.

The party had not tramped far when they caught sight of a number of Indians curiously watching them from a distance. Standish

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MILES STANDISH'S SWORD

beckoned them to approach, but the white men whom they had met before were kidnappers and the warriors discreetly kept at a distance.

While wandering along the beach an iron utensil was found, which must have belonged to some earlier visitors, since the Indians knew nothing about the manufacture of iron. Near-by, the appearance of the ground showed that something had been buried, and, upon digging down, several bushels of Indian corn were discovered where the owners had hidden it. The supply was most welcome to the Pilgrims, and Standish took it all, but it was far from his thoughts to steal it. He would have been glad to pay for it, then and there, but that was impossible, for the Indians could not be induced to come near. Six

months later, however, Standish met the owners, and honestly paid them in full.

More than a month was spent in searching for the right locality for settlement, which at last was found. On Monday, December 11th (Old Style, or December 21st, New Style), Miles Standish and a few companions went ashore, the remainder on the *Mayflower* following a couple of weeks later. They began building a number of cabins and a storehouse, enclosing all with strong, high palisades as a protection against Indians and

Landing of the Pilgrims, Dec. 21st, 1620



POT AND PLATTER OF MILES STANDISH

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wild beasts, and using oiled paper for glass in the windows. The ground was staked off, and the company divided into nineteen families.



MILES STANDISH'S HOUSE

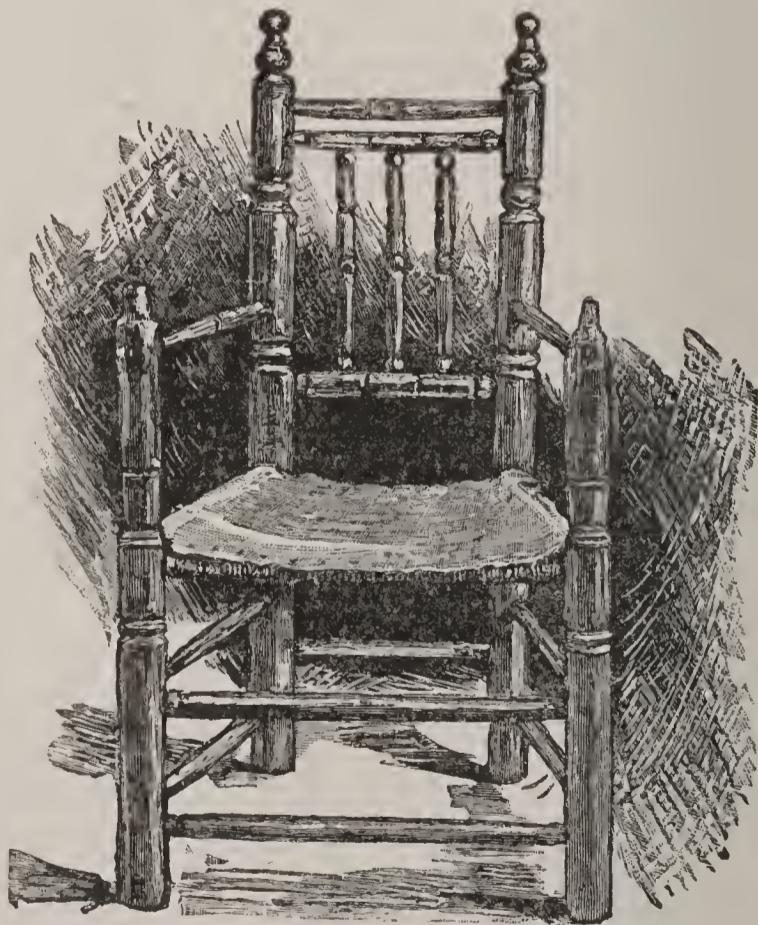
Thus were laid the foundations of the first permanent settlement in New England, which was named Plymouth, in remembrance of the port from which they sailed in England.

It will be borne in mind that at this time the Jamestown colony in Virginia was thirteen years old, and that the Dutch had erected several cabins and built a fort on Manhattan Island

seven years before the arrival of the Pilgrims, while the weak Spanish colony at St. Augustine, in Florida, was more than half-a-century old.

Sufferings  
of the  
Plymouth  
colonists

It was fortunate that the New England pioneers were rugged, strong, and inspired by an unshakable faith in their mission in the New World; for they were soon tested to the utmost extent of human endurance. Their food was scant, and not all of it wholesome; they had no delicacies, and the weather was severe, even for New England, where the winters are sometimes of an arctic severity. A number of the Pilgrims were compelled to stay on board the *Mayflower*, where the food and accommodation were so poor that sickness soon showed itself. When spring came, ailments of the lungs, and kindred diseases, had carried off forty-



GOVERNOR CARVER'S CHAIR

four of their number. At one time, indeed, there were only seven well persons in the whole company. Governor Carver's son was among the first victims, and the governor himself died in April, his sorrowing wife soon following him to the grave. William Bradford was chosen governor, and held the office for a number of years. To him, more perhaps than to any other human instrument, were due the sterling character and final success of the Plymouth colony.

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**Governor  
William  
Bradford**



VISIT OF SAMOSET

The settlers held the savages in great dread, and they were, therefore, delighted one day, in early spring, when a fine-looking Indian stalked out of the woods, and, with his dusky face aglow, repeated several times, in a distinct voice, "Welcome, Englishmen! welcome!" The astonished white men received him cordially, and he showed a wish to be friendly. His name was Samoset, and he had picked up a few words of English from some fishermen on the coast of Maine. He belonged to the Wampanoag tribe of Indians, and was treated so kindly that a few days later he came back with his chief, Massasoit,

**Visit of  
Mas-  
sasoit  
and  
Samoset,  
1621**

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whose reception was of the most generous nature, and so won his good-will, that he made a treaty of peace with the whites, which was not broken for more than a generation.

As the summer advanced, the condition of the colonists brightened. Their health mended, the land yielded to cultivation, the forest abounded with game, and fish were plentiful in the streams. The *Mayflower*, which had returned to England shortly before Governor Carver died, brought over more immigrants. Friendly relations with most of the Indians were maintained, though the watchful Standish knew that many of them could not be trusted. The Narragansetts were the most hostile tribe, and numbered several thousand warriors. They had looked with sullen faces upon the coming of the white men. They refused to sign a treaty of peace with them, and soon prepared to take the war-path.

The  
 Message  
 of Ca-  
 nonicus,  
 and its  
 Retort,  
 1622

To show their contempt of the intruders, Canonicus, the Narragansett chief, sent Governor Bradford a bundle of arrows inclosed in a rattlesnake skin. This so plainly meant a declaration of war that the doughty governor did not for a moment mistake its purport. He immediately filled the snake-skin with powder and balls and sent it back to the chief, who read its message aright: "Powder and ball are what we will give you; come on!" But Canonicus was too frightened to accept the challenge, and the colonists were not molested for some time.

But the most certain of all events was that the whites very soon would give the savages good cause for enmity. A rich but dissatisfied member of the Plymouth Company sent over sixty unmarried men, to plant a settlement at Weymouth, on the shores of Massachusetts Bay. They were idle, dissipated, and vicious; and, too lazy to work themselves, began plundering the neighboring Indians. This incensed the savages, who formed a scheme to kill, not only the guilty, but all the white people in the country.

Miles  
 Standish  
 saves  
 the  
 Wey-  
 mouth  
 Settle-  
 ment,  
 1623

The plot was laid as carefully as was that of Opechankano in Virginia about the same time, and would have succeeded had not, as in that case, warning been given by a friendly Indian. It was Massasoit who revealed the peril to the settlers in Massachusetts, and he took care to do it in time. Miles Standish was therefore sent with eight soldiers to protect the imperilled Englishmen at Weymouth. A brisk fight followed, and a chief and several of his warriors were killed. Standish carried the head of the chief on a pole to Ply-



mouth, where it was displayed on the palisades of the fort. When the devout Robinson at Leyden received news of the affair, he expressed his gratitude to God, but at the same time spoke of his regret that Standish had forgotten to convert some of the Indians before shooting them.

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Although the Weymouth colony was saved, it soon fell apart, and the worst members returned to England. The plan of toiling and holding all things in common did not work satisfactorily, and in 1623 the experiment was tried of allotting a certain area of land to each settler. The result was so excellent, that, as in Virginia, the old method was never used again.

Some of the troubles endured by the first settlers in Massachusetts were of a sectarian character. They longed to bring over Mr. Robinson, their Leyden pastor. He was regarded as the head of the Non-conformist movement, even though he remained in Holland. To please the Crown, and in the hope of securing gain, the Plymouth Company opposed the removal of Mr. Robinson to America, and that good man never saw the beloved church that had been planted on the other side of the Atlantic. With a view to bringing the Pilgrims under the control of the Church of England, John Lyford, a hypocritical preacher, was sent to the colony by the intriguers. He found an ally in John Oldham, a member of the community who had a "grievance." The real business of the two was suspected, and Bradford, Brewster, and Winslow soon brought home the proof to the evil men, who confessed. Oldham was banished, but Lyford fairly bellowed his penitence and was allowed to stay. He was soon detected at his tricks again, and was deposed from the ministry and sent away from Plymouth, returning to the colony some years later to be, however, pardoned again.

Lyford  
 and  
 Oldham

Rev. John White, of Trinity Church, Dorchester, England, sought to plant a fishing colony at Cape Ann, on the present site of Gloucester, but the attempt was a failure. Subsequently, however, a company was formed, in 1628, and a tract of land was purchased, which extended from three miles north of the Merrimac River to three miles south of the Charles River. The westward boundary of the tract, as was the rule, was made the Pacific Ocean. What a long ribbon of land that would have been, could it have been extended to its boundary, three thousand miles away!

In the summer of the year named, the Company sent a number of

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Formation of  
the  
Massachusetts  
Bay  
Colony,  
1629

immigrants to make a settlement in their territory. Among them was John Endicott, who was commissioned governor, or general manager of the colony. It is probable that at that time there were a few other scattered settlements in New England, though there is no trustworthy record of them.

Endicott was one of the strictest of Puritans. He named the new settlement Salem, and it is said that once he ordered a may-pole cut down, because it savored of "godless amusements." Other persons, some of whom were rich and influential, joined the company, and in March, 1629, they were granted a royal charter, creating them a corporation, with the name of "The Governor and Company of the Massachusetts Bay, in New England." The king viewed the enterprise as a trading one, and yielded all jurisdiction. The government



JOHN WINTHROP

was invested in a governor, deputy, and eighteen assistants or magistrates, elected annually by the stockholders of the company. The freemen were to meet in general assembly no fewer than four times a year, in order to legislate for the colony. It should be remembered that the Massachusetts Bay Colony was founded by Puritans, while that at Plymouth was composed of Independents.

Governor  
Winthrop

John Winthrop was now chosen governor. He was a wealthy lawyer, of the highest social position, and a learned and courtly man. He sacrificed much in order to become a pioneer in one of the grandest movements for settlement in the New World. Associated with him were many persons of prominence, and several who were notable for their wealth. It may be said that the Massachusetts Bay Colony was launched with prospects that guaranteed its success from the first.

Winthrop and his companions, consisting of three hundred families, arrived at Salem, June 12th, 1630. That which met his eyes was not of an encouraging character, for before him was neither a church nor a town. A somewhat pretentious house awaited his occupancy, while the other dwellings consisted of a few miserable hovels. Disease had been busy, and soon attacked the new-comers, carrying off by autumn two hundred out of the one thousand arrivals. The lack of food became so distressing that Governor Winthrop ap-

plied to New Plymouth for help, and the response was prompt and generous. In February, 1631, a ship arrived from England with an abundance of stores, and joy and plenty reigned. Governor Winthrop expressed the feelings of the majority of his associates, when he wrote to his wife across the ocean that he had never enjoyed more peace and contentment of mind than in Massachusetts.

The devout governor did not content himself with settling down at Salem. Some of his people began putting up huts at Charlestown,

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Founding of Charlestown and other localities



GOVERNOR JOHN ENDICOTT

where several had already been erected by Endicott's people. Others located at Roxbury, Cambridge, Watertown, and Dorchester.

Towards the close of 1630, a party from Charlestown settled on the present site of Boston. The Indians called the peninsula Shawmut, which means "the place of many springs." It will be found that this name, like that of Samoset, Massasoit, and other noted Indians, who had to do with the early history of Massachusetts, has since been treasured. Three hills composed the peninsula, and for a time

Founding of Boston, 1630

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it was called Trimountain, but the name Boston was given in remembrance of the native town of many of the immigrants in Lincolnshire. A large number of people arrived during the season, and the place rapidly increased in population. By 1634, there were eight separate settlements in Massachusetts, and the colony advanced more rapidly than did that at Plymouth. Winthrop was re-elected governor, and disappointed the hopes of no one, for his wisdom was as notable as his personal character was exalted. He cultivated friendship with the Indians, as did Bradford at Plymouth; and many a time have the chiefs and sachems from tribes hundreds of miles distant dined at his table. The red men knew him as a just person, who always spoke with a "single tongue."

Winthrop was a good neighbor, too, to the other colonies. Traveling in those times could not be done by stages any more than by railway. Vessels passed up and down the coast; but a journey inland was of necessity made on foot. Winthrop, who was in rugged health and in the prime of life, walked more than once from Boston to Plymouth, to call upon Governor Bradford, and he sent a request to the authorities of New Netherland to meet him in a friendly talk over the settlement of a part of the Connecticut valley.

Although immigration to Massachusetts lagged for a time, it soon received a powerful impetus from the intense persecution of the Puritans in England. In 1635, more than three thousand settlers, including many men of wealth and distinction, came to Massachusetts. The government and discipline at Plymouth, and at Massachusetts (as Winthrop's Massachusetts Bay Colony was called), were very rigid. In the latter, no one could be an officer of the government who was not a member of some church. This union of church and state caused much dissatisfaction, which was not quieted until the union was dissolved, in 1665.

It is worthy of note that the first person hanged at Plymouth was one of the *Mayflower's* passengers. His name was John Billinton, and he had been a troublesome person from the beginning. The first offence in the colony was committed by him in 1621. He resisted the command of the captain, with so violent a manner and speech, that he was punished by having his neck and heels tied together. Governor Bradford, in his "History of Plymouth Plantation," thus refers to the melancholy circumstance of his execution:

The  
 First  
 Person  
 Exe-  
 cuted at  
 Ply-  
 mouth,  
 1630

"This year (1630) John Billinton, ye elder (one that came over

with ye first), was arraigned, and both by grand and petie jurie found guilty of willful murder, by plaine and notorious evidence. And was for the same accordingly executed. This, as it was ye first execution amongst them, so was it a matter of great sadnes unto them. They used all due means about his triale, and tooke ye advice of Mr. Winthrop and others ye ablest gentle-men in ye Bay of ye Massachusets, that were then new-ly come over, who concured with them yt he ought to dye, and ye land to be purged from blood. He and some of his had been often punished for miscariags before, being one of ye profanest families amongst them. They came from London, and I know not by what freinds shuffled into their company. His facte was, that he way-laid a yong-man, one John New-comin (about a former quarele), and shote him with a gune, whereof he dyed."

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The ancient Hubbard, in his "History of New England," says: "The murtherer expected that, either for want of power to execute for capital offences, or for want of people to increase the plantations, he (Billinton) should have his life spared; but justice otherwise determined, and rewarded him, the first murtherer of his neighbour there, with the deserved punishment of death for a warning."

The ship *Lion* arrived at Boston, early in the year 1631, with additions to the colony. Among the latter were Roger Williams and his wife. Williams was a Welsh Puritan, and was born about the beginning of the seventeenth century. He was eloquent and able, and, like many a pioneer of thought, was in advance of his times. He was liked at first, and was elected teacher in the church at Boston. He, however, declined the honor, it is said because the church people would not publicly repent for having communion with the Church of England. Williams declared further that conscience should be supreme, and that the magistrates had no right to inflict punishment for Sabbath desecration, or for setting at defiance any one of the first four commandments. He violently opposed the union of church and state, and it was inevitable that he should give offence in Boston. So he withdrew to Salem, where he was chosen minister.

Advent  
of  
Roger  
Williams

Williams became more zealous than ever in asserting his peculiar views. He maintained with vehemence that the king had no right to grant any land in America until after paying the Indians, the rightful owners, for the same; nor had the civil power, he said, moral warrant for interfering with a person's religious faith. The young preacher went to the extreme in urging his views, and in pleading for

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Banish-  
 ment of  
 Wil-  
 liams,  
 1635

tolerance became intolerant himself. His insistence that no settler had a right to his land until after payment to the aboriginal owners touched the Puritans in the most sensitive spot. The governor and his assistants carefully read the essay which Williams wrote respecting the Indian titles, and were so offended that they ordered him to appear at the next general court for censure. He obeyed, and explained that the essay was written for the private reading of the governor of Plymouth, and the matter was dropped for a while.

But a man like Williams is irrepressible, and after a time the authorities lost patience with him. Sentence of banishment was pronounced against him in 1635, in the following words: "It is therefore ordered that the said Mr. Williams shall depart out of this jurisdiction within six weeks now next ensuing, which, if he neglect to perform, it shall be lawful for the governor and two of the magistrates to send him to some place out of this jurisdiction, not to return any more without licence from the court."

The friends of Williams were indignant. Edward Winslow was then governor of Plymouth and strongly sympathized with him, while a number of men in the two colonies declared that, if the preacher were banished, they would become his companions in exile. The magistrates thought to calm the excitement by informing Williams that he could stay in Salem until the following spring. Thereupon Williams preached his unwelcome doctrines with greater persistence than ever. There is reason to suspect that he had formed a plan for the founding of a new colony in the wilderness, so that the sentence of banishment was not held in special dread. Be that as it may, the preacher's course became so intolerable that Governor Haynes determined to send him back to England. Williams refused to appear before the magistrates at Boston, and they sent a pinnace to Salem with a warrant to Captain Underhill to capture and put him on board a vessel about to sail for the motherland.

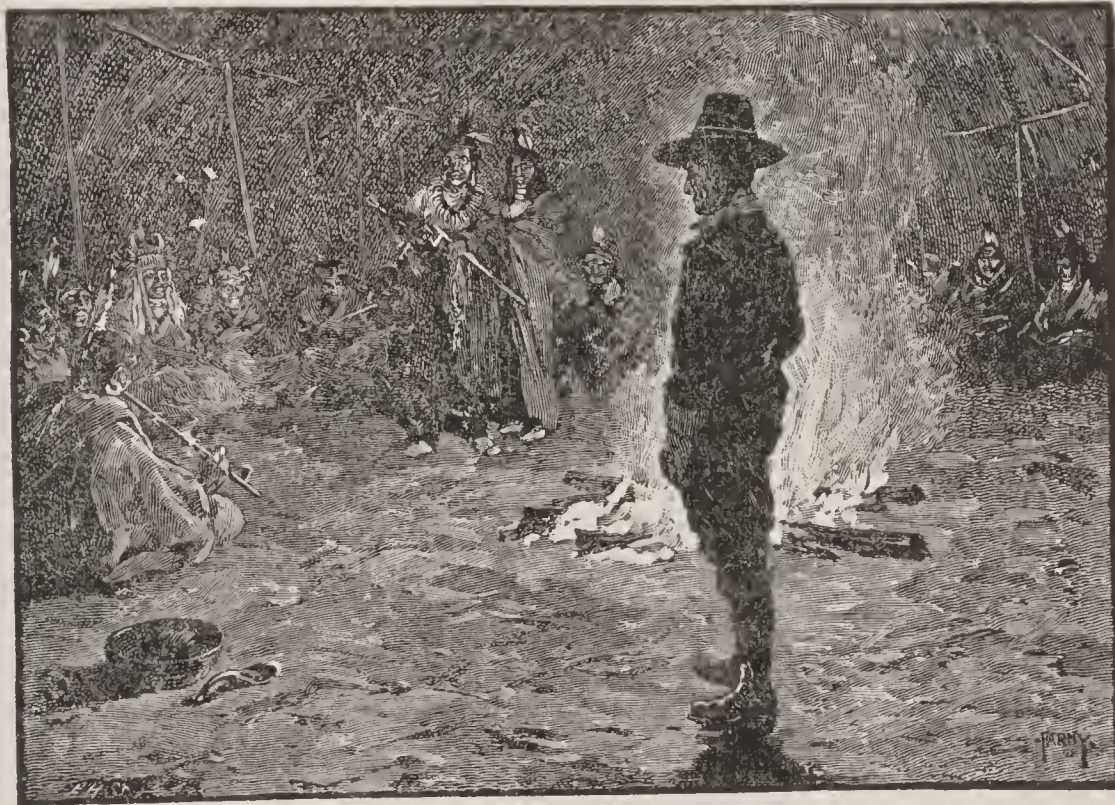
Captain Underhill set out to obey the order; but upon reaching Salem he discovered that some one had warned Williams, and he had fled. This "friend in need" was no less a person than ex-Governor Winthrop, who was strongly attached to Williams. With the warning secretly sent, Williams was at the same time counselled to enter the Narragansett country and throw himself upon the generosity of the Indians, many of whom knew and liked the honest preacher.

Williams accepted this advice. On a wintry night, when the

ground was covered with snow, he kissed his wife and two children good-by, and strode off in the darkness, staff in hand, a scrip over his shoulders, and with the cutting wind moaning through the leafless branches overhead. Tramping sturdily forward, the exile made his way to the lodge of the venerable chief Massasoit, who welcomed him warmly, and gave him a large tract of land on the Seekonk River. Canonicus, the chieftain who, years before, had sent the bundle of arrows, wrapped about with rattlesnake skin, to Governor Bradford, was equally cordial, and remained the devoted friend of the exile.

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With the coming of spring, Williams and five other persons from



ROGER WILLIAMS IN EXILE

Salem, who had joined him, began building a house; but a gentle reminder came from Governor Winslow, of Plymouth, that they were within the boundary of the Plymouth grant, adding that, to avoid all possible trouble, it would be well to move a little farther west, where they would be outside of both domains. So Williams and his friends pursued their course down the Seekonk into an expansion of the stream, where they landed on what is still known as "Roger Williams' Rock," and began the settlement, in the summer of 1636, of a town which, in acknowledgment of God's goodness, was named Providence.

First Settlement in Rhode Island by Roger Williams, at Providence, 1636

This city, which in time became one of the most important in New England, was not the first settlement in the region south of Massa-

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chusetts. In 1633, the Dutch erected Fort Good Hope, near the present city of Hartford, and the whole of the valley was claimed by the Dutch West India Company. In the autumn of the same year, the Plymouth authorities sent William Holmes by sea to the Connecticut to found a settlement. The Dutch threatened to fire upon him, if he attempted to pass the post. Holmes showed his commission from the governor, and said he must go on, with or without the consent of the fort commandant. Permission was given him, and he put together the framework of a house which he had brought with him, on the site of the town of Windsor, six miles above the fort. The following year, Governor Van Twiller sent a force from New Amsterdam to drive out the intruders; but they held fast, and soon established a profitable trade with the Indians.

First  
 Settle-  
 ment in  
 Con-  
 necticut,  
 1633

This was the first incident in the founding of Connecticut by emigrants from Massachusetts. They went from Dorchester, Newtown, (now Cambridge) Roxbury, and other towns, Wethersfield being founded in the winter of 1635. In the autumn of this year, John Winthrop, the younger son of Governor Winthrop, arrived with a commission as governor of Connecticut, under the patent of Lord Say-and-Seal, Lord Brooke, John Pym, John Hampden, and others.

Young Winthrop, to use a common expression, "meant business." It was his purpose to build a fort at the entrance to the river, but before he could carry out his intention, a Dutch vessel arrived on the same mission. To their amazement, the Dutchmen found a battery of two cannon and a number of armed men awaiting to dispute their landing. The captain of the ship quietly surveyed the ground, and then turned about and set sail again for New Amsterdam. Winthrop named the place Saybrook, in honor of Lords Say and Brooke, and there built a stronghold. The Dutch still held the post at Good Hope, which was their only possession in that region.

Found-  
 ing of  
 Hart-  
 ford,  
 1635-  
 1636

The emigration from Massachusetts was so rapid that Connecticut had a population of nearly three thousand in 1635. In the following June, the whole church at Newtown was removed thither, under charge of the ministers, Thomas Hooker and Samuel Stone. The settlement which they founded was named Hartford, in compliment to Mr. Stone, who was a native of Hertford, England. Springfield was planted a little way up the river, and Windsor and Wethersfield were thus severally named by the pioneers who had selected those sites.





FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY CHARLES KENDRICK

ROGER WILLIAMS PLEADING WITH CANONICUS

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While the settlement of Connecticut was progressing in this vigorous fashion, Roger Williams, over in Rhode Island, was not idle. The freedom of conscience enjoyed at Providence drew many people thither from Boston and other towns in Massachusetts. Williams reserved no political power to himself, but seemed to be actuated solely by the desire to make happy all those around him. He was strenuous in asserting his own views (and it cannot by any means be claimed that all of them were wise); but he and his associates resolutely refrained from interfering with the rights of others. His beloved wife had, ere this, joined him in his wilderness home, and she gladly shared all his toils and trials.

It was impossible for a man with the disposition of Williams to feel any resentment towards Massachusetts because of the harsh treatment he had received at her hands. He had many devoted friends among her people, and, besides, all were his "brothers;" so, when he learned that the Pequod Indians were using their utmost endeavor to persuade the powerful Narragansett tribe to join them in a war against the whites, he did not hesitate as to his course. He made haste to warn Governor Winthrop of the danger, and sent him a map of the country, based on descriptions received from the Indians. Winthrop replied with deep gratitude, and urged Williams to exert his influence to keep the Narragansetts from joining the Pequods in the contemplated war.

Roger Williams prevents the Narragansetts from joining the Pequods in a War upon the Settlements

Williams needed no urging in the matter. It was a long way to the lodge of Canonicus; but leaping into a canoe, he paddled through a storm across Narragansett Bay to the residence of the chieftain, who had but to say the word that would let loose five thousand warriors to spread desolation and death through the Connecticut valley. The preacher knew that he was always welcome; and he strode into the royal wigwam without waiting for an invitation.

But his heart sank when he saw the Pequod messengers from Sassacus, their chief, engaged in appealing to Canonicus; for the expression on the chieftain's face showed that he was hesitating, if he was not already inclined to do as they begged him. The visitor understood the words spoken, and saw the scowls of the Pequods, when they turned towards him, well aware of his errand. But for the restraining presence of Canonicus, they would have, then and there, slain him. It was a crucial test of his nerve; but, without a moment's hesitation, Williams advanced to greet his old friend, and with all the elo-

quence he could command urged him to turn a deaf ear to those that were inducing him to do evil.

The question was considered so important by Canonicus that he took many days to come to a decision. No other white man would have dared to attempt what Williams then did, nor would the Narragansett chieftain have permitted it. He preferred that the preacher should keep away, but he held him in too high an estimation to deny him welcome; and so he listened to all that the good man had to say, even though it was said many times, as was the case with the Pequods.

During those days and nights they as well as Williams were the guests of Canonicus. The preacher, in recalling the incident afterwards, said that he expected to be roused in the night with the Pequod warriors at his throat. Finally he won his great victory: the chieftain told the messengers that he had decided not to go on the war-path against the whites. The chagrined warriors departed, and, afterwards bent their energies in persuading the Mohicans to join them, but they, too, refused. Then the Pequods determined to undertake the horrid work alone.

The Indians followed the usual method of attacking exposed cabins, shooting down men at work in the fields, and slaying their victims when all the chances were against the latter. Many persons were taken prisoners and put to torture. Two-score of the colonists were slain, when the Pequods became so rash as to attack Wethersfield, where they killed seven men, a woman, and a child, and came within an ace of getting possession of the settlement. One thousand hostiles were on the war-path, and the danger of the Connecticut settlements was so imminent that they appealed to Plymouth and Massachusetts for aid.

The response was prompt. About a hundred soldiers, under the command of Captain John Mason, were forthwith sent to Connecticut. A band of Mohicans, under the famous Uncas, joined the soldiers, but proved of little value. Captain John Underhill, in charge of the Connecticut troops (which numbered about the same as those sent from Massachusetts and Plymouth), united with Mason, and after a conference it was decided to attack the Pequods in the rear, by passing through the territory of the Narragansetts.

Three pinnaces, with the troops on board, sailed eastward along the coast, and entered Narragansett Bay, May 20th, as night was closing in. The following day, being the Sabbath, was spent in religious

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The Pequod War, 1637

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 TO  
 1758

devotions, and a storm arising, it delayed for several days the landing of the force. A band of Narragansetts, at Mason's request, now joined him; but when the crisis came, they proved as valueless as the Mohicans. A fortunate mistake of the Pequods greatly helped the white men. The scouts of the enemy had been watching the vessels, as they moved along the coast. After the soldiers disembarked, these vessels sailed back, noting which the Pequods supposed that the armed forces were on board, and reported to their chiefs that the expedition had been abandoned.

Captain Mason timed his advance so as to reach the Pequod stronghold at the close of day, on the 25th. The post, which was a strong one, stood on elevated ground on the banks of the Mystic. It was guarded by palisades inclosing fully an acre of ground. These palisades, or stakes, were high and massive, with pointed tops, and were driven deeply into the earth, so close together that no one could force an entrance between any two of the stakes. Within the inclosure were seventy wigwams, containing most of the men, women, and children of the Pequod tribe, under the command of their dreaded chieftain Sassacus.

Keeping his soldiers carefully out of sight, Captain Mason sent out his scouts to reconnoitre. They returned with the information that the stronghold had two entrances opposite each other, each being guarded by only a few bushes. The Pequods had no suspicion of danger, and it was decided to rush through these openings at the same instant. This method of fighting was new, and anything but agreeable to the Indian allies of the New Englanders. It savored too much of personal danger to suit them. They therefore sneaked off into the woods, and left the pale-faces to conduct matters themselves, and in their own way.

Destruc-  
 tion of  
 the  
 Pequods,  
 1637

Despite the stealthy approach of the soldiers, it was not yet daylight on the morning of the 26th ere a dog near the eastern entrance detected the shadowy figures moving among the trees and began barking. The red-men, who were half-asleep, started up, and shouted that the English were upon them. Captain Mason, seeing that not a moment was to be lost, dashed through the entrance, and at once engaged in a hand-to-hand encounter until his soldiers joined him. Underhill, on the other flank, heard the sounds, and, knowing what they meant, led the attack through the entrance there also.

The Pequods were resolute fighters, and, although caught at great

disadvantage, made such a desperate resistance that the assailants were forced back. A total repulse meant the massacre of all, and fearful that that was about to take place, Mason caught up a burning ember, fanned it into a blaze, and hurled it among the wigwams. The dry bark which covered them instantly broke into a flame which spread rapidly. Underhill, from his side, pursued the same tactics, and within a few minutes the whole inclosure became a roaring con-

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DESTRUCTION OF THE PEQUODS

flagration. The soldiers ran outside, and with loaded guns awaited the appearance of the Pequods, who had the choice of following them or being burnt within their inclosure.

The savages themselves were not more cruel than were the white men to the Pequods caught in this fiery trap. No warrior, squaw, or pappoose was allowed to live. Nearly a thousand were slain, and Captain Mason gave thanks for the privilege of destroying them. Only two of the whites were killed, though a number were wounded. Sassacus was not with his doomed warriors, but in another strong-

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Extermi-  
 nation

hold on the Thames, near the spot where the vessels were to take the white men on board again. While marching thither, the soldiers were attacked by three hundred more Pequods, but Mason got in the rear of his enemies and reached the boats without loss.

The war against this tribe was pressed without mercy. The country was scoured from end to end, and a resisting Pequod was never spared. Wigwams and cornfields were laid waste, and the pursuit kept up until the harried fugitives took refuge in a swamp near Fairfield. When the English appeared, the remaining Pequods surrendered, excepting Sassacus and several of his friends, who escaped to the Mohawks. Of those who submitted, some were sent to the Bermudas, others were enslaved in Connecticut and Massachusetts, while the remainder were absorbed by neighboring tribes. Thus the Pequod tribe, in punishment for its attack upon the settlements, was utterly destroyed.\* For a number of years, New England was safe against all disturbance from the Indians.

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\* It is well that the young reader, who may take pride in the prowess of the early settlers of his country in ridding it of hostile Indians, as related in such narratives as that which recounts the grim incidents of the Pequod war, should remember that much of the Indian blood spilled on this continent was due to the coming to it of the white man, who was the intruder and the invader of the homes and hunting-grounds of the native races of the New World. *We* came to the Indian, not the Indian to us. We were the aggressors. We invaded his country, and we made of it an *aceldama* of blood. Justice, therefore, as well as humanity, calls for the exercise of pity and considerate feeling in reading the account, given in these pages, of the extermination of an entire tribe, such as the Pequods. In the early settlement of Connecticut, as elsewhere, the white man did not always extend the olive-branch to the Indian; and hostilities were often the result of quarrels among rival white settlers. It was so at the outbreak of the Pequod war, which grew out of differences between the Dutch and English settlers in the region, and quickly drew into the struggle, not only the colonists of Connecticut, but the Narragansetts and Mohegans (Mohicans), who were only too eager to take part in rooting out their dread tribal foes, the Pequods. As it has been the fate of some portions of the race to lapse into barbarism, we should like to think that out of barbarism they will yet emerge. In the philanthropies of a coming day, we trust that forces will continually, and more effectively, be employed to restore the Indian to civilization, and to eradicate from his nature those dispositions and tendencies that drag him backward in the path of progress, or, while imitating bad examples set before him, that civilize him out of existence.



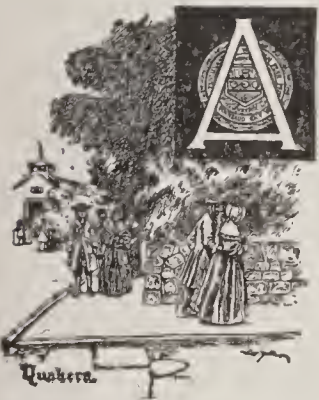


## CHAPTER XII

### THE COLONIAL HISTORY OF NEW ENGLAND

(Continued)

[*Authorities*: In addition to the works cited at the head of the previous chapter, rich illustrative material bearing on the colonization of New England will be found in Winsor's "Memorial History of Boston," in Adams's "Emancipation of Massachusetts," and in two issues of the Johns Hopkins University Studies—Channing's "Town and County Government in the English Colonies of North America," and Andrews's "River Towns of Connecticut." Johnson's "Connecticut," in the American Commonwealth Series, should also be consulted, and Arnold's "History of Rhode Island." Hallowell's "Quaker Invasion of Massachusetts" throws light on the tenets and religious persecution of the Society of Friends, while Upham's "Salem Witchcraft" illuminates the unhappy subject of fanatical frenzy and religious delusion." For the Ann Hutchinson incident, see Adams's "Three Episodes in Massachusetts History."]



STRANGE agitation visited Massachusetts in 1634.

Ann Hutchinson, beautiful of person and brilliant of intellect, and the sister-in-law of a popular preacher in Boston, came to that town, and drew attention to herself by boldly declaring her views, which were similar to those held by Roger Williams.

She had a winning gift of speech, and a wit which delighted every one. In addition to these gifts, she possessed a fair knowledge of medicine, was kind-hearted and attentive to the sick, so that it was little wonder that she became popular.

This remarkable woman advocated what was then known as Antinomianism, a doctrine which insists that a person who wishes to be saved in the world to come must depend upon faith or belief alone, without regard to good works. She affirmed that a pure life was no evidence that one was living acceptably before God, and that the believer is saved, if he be saved at all, by Heaven's grace, no matter what his actions may be.

Ann  
Hutchin-  
son

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 TION AND  
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Banish-  
 ment of  
 Ann  
 Hutchin-  
 son, 1637

Mrs. Hutchinson had been a warm friend of the famous preacher, John Cotton, before they left London; and now, in puritanical Boston, he showed a kind feeling towards the religious enthusiast. So did young Henry Vane, the governor of the commonwealth, and several clergymen; though Rev. John Wheelwright, her brother-in-law, was the only one who dared to advocate her doctrines openly. For this he was censured by the civil authorities, and, protesting, he threatened to appeal to the king. He and his sister-in-law were arraigned on the charge of heresy and, with several of their friends, ordered to quit the neighborhood of Massachusetts Bay. Their departure was not hastened, and, under the leadership of William Coddington and John Clarke, they left Boston with the intention of settling on Delaware Bay. They called on Roger Williams during the journey, and were treated with so winning a hospitality that they accepted his invitation to settle in the land of the Narragansetts, from whom they purchased the island of Aquidneck, now Rhode Island, and in March, 1638, began the settlement of Portsmouth, in its northern part.

William Coddington, who had been a crown magistrate at Salem, was chosen governor of the Rhode Island colony. Thus, in the present little State of Rhode Island, two flourishing settlements were planted. Each had its own government, but they were friendly to one another. Absolute liberty of conscience prevailed, and the persecuted flocked thither from the other colonies. Massachusetts showed her jealousy more than once, and profitable trade between the provinces was in consequence greatly restricted.

Rhode  
 Island  
 Settle-  
 ment,  
 1638

When a confederacy of the New England colonies was formed, the Rhode Island settlements were excluded. Meanwhile, Ann Hutchinson, fearing further persecution by the Plymouth authorities, left her Rhode Island home in 1642, and settled near New Amsterdam, where she was murdered by Indians. She was a widow at the time of her death, and her little daughter, eight years old, was carried away captive. Some years later, the child was recovered, through the humane efforts of the General Court of Massachusetts.

The Rhode Island colonies, having been shut out from the New England confederacy, determined to unite under one government. Roger Williams was sent to England, in the summer of 1643, to obtain a new charter. He received a warm welcome, and the charter he prayed for was issued in March, 1644. It united the towns of



Providence, Portsmouth, and Newport, under the title of "The Incorporation of Providence Plantations in the Narragansett Bay in New England." Williams came back in the summer of that year, the whole town of Providence turning out to greet him. No loving family ever showed more joy over the return of the long absent father than did the settlers, when they saw again the face of him to whom, under heaven, they felt that all their prosperity and happiness were due.

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TO  
1758

Over the border, in the southern part of Connecticut, the New



THE SETTLEMENT OF RHODE ISLAND

Haven settlement was begun about the same time as Rhode Island. Rev. John Davenport, an eloquent Puritan preacher of London, came to America to escape persecution. Two wealthy members of his congregation, Theophilus Eaton and Edward Hopkins, were sharers with him in his voluntary exile. On the site of the present city of New Haven, several cabins were erected and a settlement begun, in the autumn of 1637. The Indians were paid for the land. The colony, in proportion to its numbers, was the richest in America. In

New  
Haven  
Founded  
1637

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1638, the settlement was named New Haven. The high character of these pioneers, their wisdom and liberality, resulted ere long in a rapid increase and much prosperity. Within a few years, Greenwich, Stamford, and Guilford sprang into existence, on the shores of Long Island Sound. The two colonies of Hartford and New Haven, including all the settlements in Connecticut, were united in 1665 under one government.

Union of  
 the Con-  
 necticut  
 Colonies,  
 1665

Having glanced at the first settlements in Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island, we must learn what was done in the way of colonization to the northward. As early as 1623, the Plymouth Company vested in two of its leading members, Sir Ferdinando Gorges and Captain John Mason, all the region lying between the rivers Merrimac and Kennebec, the northern boundary being the St. Lawrence, and the western the Great Lakes. They named the grant Laconia, but some years afterwards they divided the territory between them. Mason took the western part and called it New Hampshire, after the county of Hampshire, in England; while Gorges named his portion Maine, that being the fashion of referring to a stretch of coast or mainland.

Settle-  
 ments in  
 Maine  
 and New  
 Hamp-  
 shire,  
 1630

A number of trading-posts were established along the coast, and some of these in time grew into towns. Among them were Portsmouth, Kittery, Dover, Exeter, and York. As the years passed, the proprietary government of Gorges and Mason became obnoxious to the majority, who leaned towards the puritanism of Massachusetts. At the instance of the dissatisfied ones among them, New Hampshire, in 1641, came under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, and so remained for nearly half a century. Litigation and wrangling followed between the heirs of Mason and the tenants who refused to pay rent. Finally, in 1679, Charles II. made New Hampshire a royal province; but the strife continued, and did not cease until well into the eighteenth century.

William Gorges, nephew of the baronet, came to Maine, and established a regular government at Saco, in March, 1636. The settlements were so sparse and weak that, in 1652–1653, the province passed under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, and so remained until 1820.

The New England colonists gave conscientious attention to religion and the education of their youth. Wherever a settlement was made, a church was erected, and the training of the young carefully looked after. The influence of the preacher, indeed, was felt every-



SETTLEMENTS IN THE NEW ENGLAND COLONIES

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Found-  
 ing of  
 Harvard  
 College,  
 1636

The  
 First  
 Printing  
 Press,  
 1638

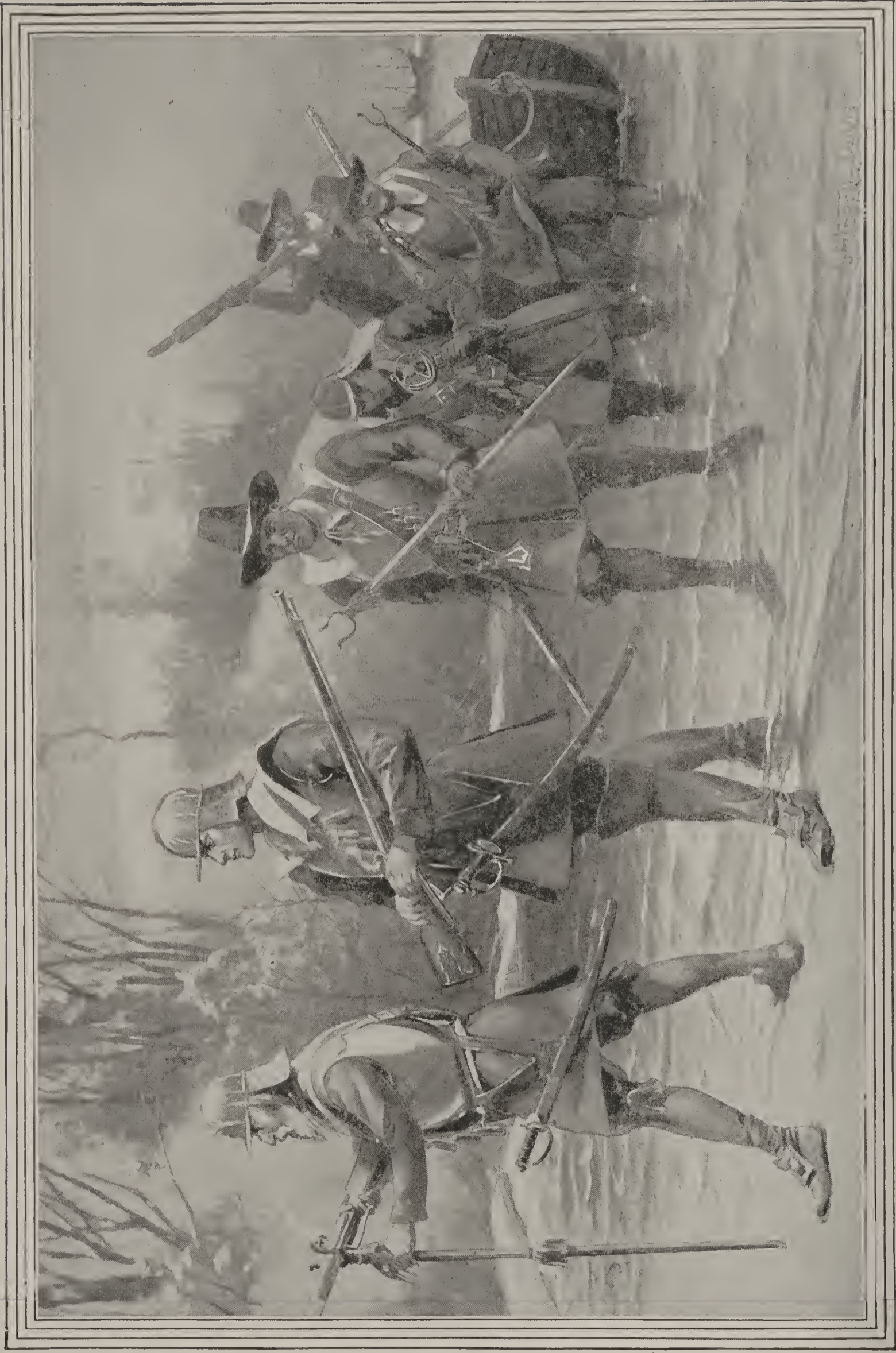
The  
 'Body of  
 Liberties,'  
 1641

where. There were no Sunday-schools in America until the nineteenth century; but the parents were strict with their children, and the preacher was strict with both.

Public schools were at an early period organized in the South and North. We have spoken of the founding of the William and Mary College in Virginia, but early as was its foundation, Massachusetts was more than half a century ahead of that southern colony. In the autumn of 1636, the General Court of Boston voted to appropriate £400 towards the founding of a place of superior education. This was a large sum for those days, and particularly so, since Massachusetts was sorely disturbed by the Pequod war and the disputations which Ann Hutchinson caused; hence the province deserves much credit for the step it then took. The Rev. John Harvard left £800 for the erection of the necessary building at Cambridge—known then as Newton—three miles from Boston. The court, in 1639, ordered the college to be named in honor of the deceased clergyman. The institution was opened in 1638 and incorporated in 1650. A printing press attached to it was the first, and for a long time the only one, in the country. The Rev. Mr. Harvard also left his fine library to the college; but, in 1764, a fire destroyed every book in it with, we believe, but a single exception.

It has been said that those in authority looked closely after the morals of the community. England was so sorely plagued by her domestic troubles that for a long time she paid little attention to her American colonies. However, at the close of 1641, a "Body of Liberties" was passed, by which the legal rights of the citizen were clearly set forth. A hundred fundamental laws were drafted which were read and considered within the following three years in every court in the commonwealth. Such as were not repealed or changed were put in force. Most of these laws were written by Nathaniel Ward, a lawyer, who had been a Puritan clergyman. As years passed, they were revised and nearly all underwent change. Americans of to-day would laugh at any body of law-makers who would attempt now to make such rules for their government. For instance, every well person was compelled to attend church under a heavy penalty; slavery was sanctioned; while among the ten offences punishable with death were witchcraft, idolatry, blasphemy, and treason, either against the commonwealth or the king. Legislation is, of course, necessary for our protection; but hardly any human law can be de-





THE LANDING OF MILES STANDISH

vised for making a person good; and, though much has been said about the rigid morality of the Puritans, it must not be supposed that they were wholly free from vice.

A general court was held in Boston, in 1643, at which were present two commissioners each from Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven. Massachusetts, by virtue of her importance, was represented by the governor, two magistrates, and three deputies. This court took one of the most important steps in our early history by forming a federation of the colonies, under the title of the United Colonies of New England, the object being mutual support in all matters of common weal. This step, as has been said, was an important one, for thousands of the Indians were hostile; the French were encroaching from the east, and the Dutch from the west. The population of New England had grown to twenty-five thousand, distributed among fifty towns and villages, and was steadily increasing. These people's interests were interwoven in commerce, in matters of state, and in religion. The written agreement in the twelve articles of confederation was signed on the 20th of August. It has been shown that the application of the colony of Rhode Island was denied, because in matters of conscience she would not yield to Massachusetts.

Each settlement was undisturbed in its local jurisdiction, and the federal government was vested in eight commissioners, two from each colony, appointed by their respective general courts. These commissioners were to meet once a year, or more frequently should occasion arise, the place of meeting changing regularly from Boston to Hartford, to New Haven and Plymouth, until a central capital should be fixed upon. This confederation lasted until 1684, during which period it was confined to the four colonies named, and during which period, also, the government in the mother country was changed three times. Virginia, meanwhile, strongly sympathized with the monarchy in England, Governor Berkeley going so far as to ask for his commission from the exiled king, and refusing to acknowledge Cromwell as the chief ruler. The opposite sentiment prevailed in New England, which was consequently regarded with friendly interest by the Protector.

A profitable and growing commerce existed between Massachusetts and the West India Islands. One of the results of this trade was the entrance of considerable uncoined gold and silver—known as “bullion”—into the colony. The authorities, in 1651, caused the estab-

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The United Colonies of New England, 1643-1684

The First Coinage in our Country, 1652

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 1758

The  
 New  
 England  
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The  
 Blue  
 Laws

A Kiss  
 and its  
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 quences

lishment of a mint for the coinage of these metals, and in the following year a number of silver coins were struck, of the denomination of threepence, sixpence, and twelvepence, or a shilling. This was the first coinage in our country.

In the preceding pages some reference has been made to the laws and manner of government in New England. Than the Puritans, it is not supposed that a stricter people ever lived. It is said that a man was once tried and censured by the authorities, because, when he returned from church and found his fire had died out, he split a stick of wood with which to rekindle it. It was considered wicked for a husband to kiss his wife on Sunday. Cards and dice were not permitted under any circumstances, and a woman was fined if she cut her hair after the fashion of a man. No Jesuit or Roman Catholic priest was allowed in the colony. In going to and coming from church one must not run nor lag, but walk "reverently." If a person's dress was thought too expensive for his or her income, the wearer of it was warned by the grand jurors, and, if persisted in, was fined.

It is stated that as late almost as the middle of the eighteenth century, the commander of a British man-of-war was publicly flogged (although very mildly and amid much merriment) for kissing his wife when he met her in the street after his return from a long cruise. It is said further that, when about to sail, the captain invited those responsible for his flogging to a dinner aboard ship, as an evidence that he harbored no resentment. The invitation was accepted, and at its conclusion the boatswain and mate, by order of the captain, lashed the magistrates soundly with a knotted cat-o'-nine-tails, and drove them pell-mell over the ship's side into the boat waiting to take them ashore.

The wise and kind-hearted Governor Winthrop had little patience with these absurd laws, and complacently managed to evade their enforcement by many ingenious methods. The pleasing anecdote is told that when it was reported to him that a poor man was in the habit of stealing from his woodpile, the governor remarked with much sternness that he would stop that business very quickly. He summoned the man before him and said: "I understand you are poor, have a large family, and no wood; I've plenty; come whenever you choose and help yourself; you're welcome!" Then, addressing the accusers, the governor added: "Now find him guilty of pilfering, if you can."

It must be borne in mind that from the time when the Puritans





FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY H. A. OGDEN

"WITH THE COMPLIMENTS OF THE CAPTAIN"

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 1758

The  
 Quakers

fled to America to escape persecution, our country has become a refuge for all manner of oppressed people. Among them were at times many pestiferous "cranks," disturbers, and criminals. Some of these wrought so hard to influence those around them, that the Puritans, in self-defence, passed the sternest of repressive measures, and inflexibly enforced them.

When we hear of the persecution of the Friends or Quakers, we are apt to give them our fullest sympathy; for to-day they are among the most peaceable, law-abiding, and God-fearing people that can be found anywhere. But some of them at that early time were veritable thorns in the side of the community. Their zeal carried them to intolerable lengths, several acting as if they were really insane. George Fox was the founder of the sect. It is related of him that he once said of one of his prosecuting magistrates that he "should tremble at the word of the Lord." The justice, in derision, called Fox and his friends "Quakers," and the name has clung to them ever since. Their persecution in England was so violent that, from 1651 to 1657, two thousand, of whom a number died, were imprisoned. Massachusetts knew of them and dreaded their coming.

The Quakers carried liberty of speech to extravagant excess. They openly reviled preachers and magistrates; declared it a sin to pay ministers; that no man, however exalted his station, should be addressed otherwise than as "thee" or "thou;" that it was wicked to say, "good-morning," or "good-evening," since the salutation implied that there were some mornings and evenings that were not good; that they held the exclusive possession of the gifts of the Holy Spirit, and that all other sects were doomed to everlasting punishment. A number of Quaker women appeared on the streets in Boston without clothing, claiming that they did so as a testimony.

The first Quakers to reach this country were Mary Fisher and Anne Austin, who arrived at Boston from the Barbadoes, in July, 1656. They were promptly expelled; but a few weeks afterwards another ship brought five male and four female Quakers. These were hardly given time to set foot on land, when, like their predecessors, they were shipped back to England.

Persecu-  
 tions of  
 the Qua-  
 kers

Well aware that these rigid measures would only fire the zeal of the persecuted people, the United Colonies passed severe laws against them. Massachusetts imposed a penalty of one hundred pounds on any shipmaster who brought a Quaker into the province, and exacted

security for his return to the port whence he came. It was further enacted, that all Quakers should be imprisoned and whipped, that the circulation or custody of a Quaker book should be punishable by a fine of five pounds, and that severe penalties would be imposed upon any one who attempted to befriend the sect or espouse their cause. None of these measures, however, sufficed to keep the Quakers away, and still more severe ones were resorted to. Laws were passed authorizing the cropping of ears, the boring of tongues with

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A GRACIOUS ACT

hot irons, and even adding the extreme penalty of hanging. Mary Clarke, who came from London, was whipped in August, 1657. Christopher Holden and John Copeland, coming back to Salem after being banished to England, were whipped and imprisoned, and the husband and wife who sheltered them were both put in jail. Christopher Holden, John Copeland, and John Rouse, returned a second time after expulsion, whereupon the right ear of each was cut off by the knife of the hangman. This was the only time the cruel sen-

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Decree  
 against  
 the  
 Quakers

tence was ever enforced in New England, and no Quaker ever had his tongue bored through with a hot iron.

The anger against the disturbers deepened, and, to stamp out the sect, Massachusetts now decreed that any Quaker who returned to the province after being twice expelled should suffer death. William Robinson and Marmaduke Stevenson arrived in Boston in the summer of 1659, where they were joined by Nicholas Davis and Mary Dyer. They were immediately arrested and ordered to leave. Davis and Mary Dyer obeyed, but the other two returned and were soon followed by the woman. They were rearrested, brought before the General Court, and having acknowledged that they had returned from banishment, were sentenced to death.

The harshness of this sentence was condemned by many, and a strong guard of soldiers was deemed necessary at the execution, which was fixed for the 27th of October, 1659, on Boston Common. The two men suffered the extreme penalty, but Mary Dyer was given in charge of her son, who had come from Rhode Island to plead for her life. She returned, however, in the following spring, and, refusing to promise to stay out of the colony, was also hanged on Boston Common. In 1661, William Leddra, having returned after banishment, was arrested, tried, convicted, and executed like the others. These four persons were, it is believed, the only Quakers who suffered the death penalty.\*

Plymouth, New Haven, and Connecticut refused to go to such lengths as Massachusetts in their persecution of the Friends. Roger Williams said that the doctrines of the sect were bad, but their perse-

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\* It is difficult nowadays to comprehend the reason for the persecution of the Quakers, or to account even for the hostility towards them, since they were not only a quiet inoffensive people, much as they still are to-day, but were for the most part unaggressive in their religious convictions, and uniformly exemplary in their lives. Some, it is true, as has been shown in the narrative, were actuated by undue zeal, and were apt to be impatient at the exercise of restraining and chastening authority, as well as stubborn in resisting expatriation and exclusion from colonization with their kin. The time was, however, intolerant, and religious persecution rampant. With the death, in 1690, of George Fox, their founder, the zeal of the Society of Friends and the propagandism of the sect waned, and Quakerism has since enjoyed a more reposeful and passive career. The earnestness of its religious life, and the humanity and gentleness of its adherents, coupled with a hatred of war and human slavery, merit for the sect the respect and good-will of their fellow-men. It is a mistaken notion that Quakers reject Christian revelation and the authority of the Scriptures; this they do not, but hold that the latter are to be read and their precepts followed in the light that comes through the promptings and guiding of the Spirit. This is the distinctive doctrine of the Friends.

cution was worse, and he and his people, therefore, did not disturb them. Rhode Island was always a "city of refuge" to those who were persecuted for conscience' sake.

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The cruelty shown to the Quakers brought about a sentiment in



JOHN ELIOT

their favor, especially as the members of the sect became more orderly and careful to observe the law. The wicked provisions against them were repealed in 1661, and a more tolerant spirit prevailed. Good men saw that it was in better accord with the sweetness of God's love

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Eliot,  
 the  
 Apostle  
 of the  
 Indians

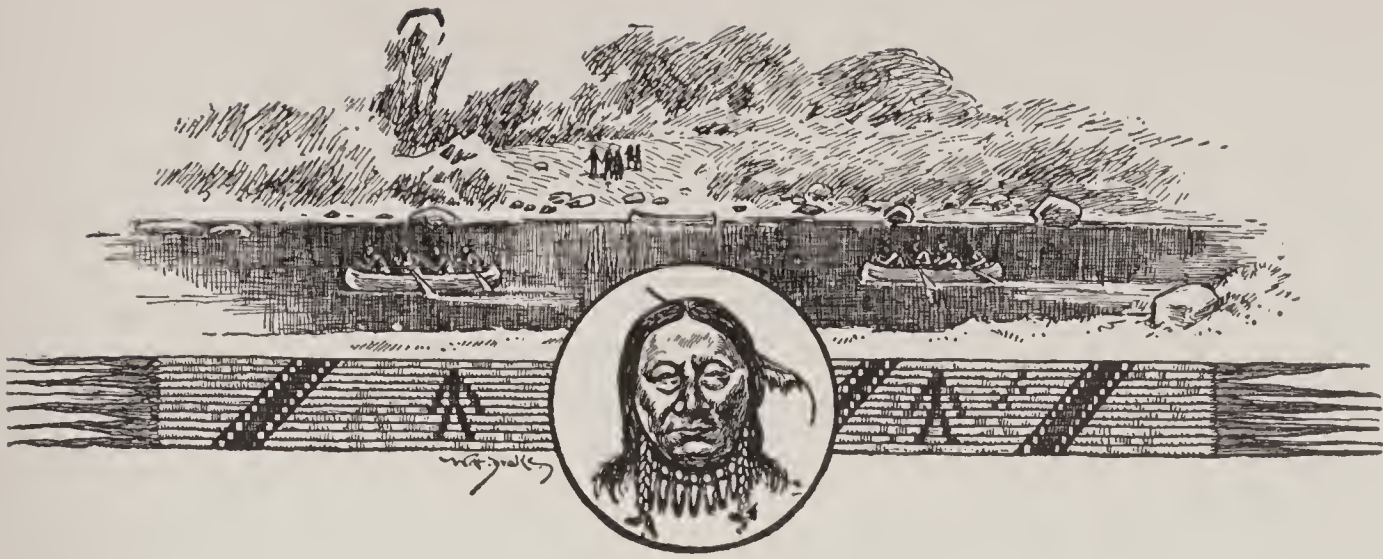
that those who professed His name should be friends rather than enemies, and that their duty was to labor for the conversion of the Indians, instead of seeking to persecute or destroy each other.

One of the most godly and self-sacrificing of men was John Eliot, whose labors among the red men won for him the name of "the apostle of the Indians." He was pastor in 1632, of the first church in Roxbury. He acquired the language of the Indians, and his powerful appeals to the chiefs and warriors brought many into the fold of the Master. He formed a band which was known as the "Praying Indians," some of whom became magistrates and constables in their own towns. Eliot translated the Bible into the Indian language, and copies of the remarkable volume are still preserved. The good which this extraordinary man did can never be known until that day when we must all render an account of the deeds done in this life.

Charles I  
 Behead-  
 ed, 1649

King Charles I. of England was beheaded in January, 1649, and, eleven years later, when the Commonwealth had given place to the Restoration, his exiled son returned to London and was crowned Charles II. The new king hunted down with remorseless fury those that had taken part in the execution of his father. Some were hanged, while others were imprisoned for life, or escaped punishment by flight.

Among the latter were Edward Whalley and William Goffe, who reached America with the first news of the restoration of the monarchy. Goffe was the son-in-law of Whalley. Both had been generals under Cromwell, and had served on the commission which ordered the execution of King Charles. The new ruler was specially anxious to secure these offenders, and officers were sent to New England to arrest them. But they had many friends, who lent their aid in protecting the regicides. In their concealment they were removed from place to place, and when the hunt became dangerously close, they lived for a long time in a cave near New Haven. The search growing more lax, they took up their abode in Hadley, where Whalley died. Goffe survived many years, and was the hero of a strange incident, which will be found set forth in the next chapter.



## CHAPTER XIII

### *THE COLONIAL HISTORY OF NEW ENGLAND*

*(Continued)*

[*Authorities :* For a more extended narrative of the chief incidents of this chapter, the general histories of New England, previously cited, will suffice. The chapter deals almost exclusively with what is known as King Philip's War. Philip, or Pometacom, was a younger son of Massasoit, chief sachem of the Pokanoket Indians of Massachusetts, with whom the Plymouth colonists had formed a treaty of alliance, which had been religiously kept by Massasoit, though in 1675 it was set at nought by his warlike son, whom the English called King Philip. With the exception of the trouble with the Pequods, the united colonies of New England had been little molested during Massasoit's life-time. A change, however, came with the succession of Philip, whose intrigues with the Narragansetts and Nipmucks led to the destruction of thirteen towns founded by the New Englanders, and the loss, in killed and taken captive, of nearly six hundred colonists. This loss of life and destruction of property brought its unhappy reckoning, in the final hunting down of Philip and the annihilation of the Indians under him, after a three years' reign of terror. Besides the great loss of life on both sides, the cost of Philip's war to the colonies was heavy and burdensome.]



THE ten years between 1670 and 1680 form a memorable period in the history of the three leading colonies of America. They saw New Amsterdam and the province of New Netherland wrested from the Dutch by the English, recaptured by the Dutch, and finally transferred by treaty to England, thus to remain until the Revolution. During the same period, civil war broke out and raged in Virginia. Nathaniel Bacon fought the tyrannous Governor Berkeley hard, but when everything promised success for him, the young planter died. And now important events were impending over the United Colonies of New England.

Away back in the terrible days of the first settlement of New Plymouth, the starving colonists, it will be remembered, received a visit from Massasoit, head chief of the Wampanoags, who was treated so

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Death of  
 Massa-  
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humanely that he remained their friend through life. He died in 1661, at the age of fourscore, leaving two sons, Wamsutta and Pometacom, known to the English as Alexander and Philip.

The settlers were from the first distrustful of both of these young men. Alexander, being the elder, was the "heir apparent" to the Wampanoag throne. He had scarcely succeeded his father, when there were so many reports abroad of his plotting against the whites that he was ordered to appear before the general court at Plymouth to clear, if possible, his character from suspicion. He disregarded the order, was arrested, and brought into the presence of the authorities, where his explanation of his conduct was accepted. Soon after this occurrence Alexander died very suddenly, and the Indians insisted that he had been poisoned by the English, who ascribed his death to intense mortification and anger because of his arrest. How shall we decide which theory was correct?

The second son, Philip, now became chief of his tribe. He ranks as one of the great Indians of history, and will always be known as "King Philip," and sometimes as "King Philip, of Mount Hope," because his home was on Mount Hope, near Bristol, in Rhode Island. He renewed the treaty made by his father with the English, and for a dozen years faithfully observed its provisions. The colonists, however, were still suspicious of him, and summoned him to Plymouth to explain the rumors about his plottings. Philip obeyed the command, and asserted that he harbored no thought of harming the whites. In proof of his sincerity, he offered his younger brother as a hostage until the truth could be proved. The court did not accept the offer, and Philip and five of his sachems\* signed an agreement to remain loyal and faithful subjects of the king of England, while the court, in turn, bound itself to give Philip and his tribe whatever help they might need. The peace which followed lasted for five years.

The fires of hatred slumbered but were not quenched in the hearts of the red men, and the colonists could never rid themselves of their misgivings about Philip. Many minor causes added to the friction between the sachem and the white people, until only a little more irritation was needed to bring on an outbreak. There were numbers of "praying Indians" among the Wampanoags, and one of

\* Sâ'-chem, a chief.



them, John Sassamon, had been partially educated at Harvard College. He acted as the close friend and secretary of Philip, and regularly revealed to the colonists every plan and scheme of the sachem. His treachery was discovered, and he was killed, probably by the order of Philip. Three Wampanoags were convicted of the crime and hanged. The testimony which condemned them would not have been accepted in any civilized court to-day.

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INDIANS ATTACK SWANSEA

By this time Philip had made up his mind to go to war. He saw that he was continually suspected, that his declarations of friendship were not believed, and that the blame of every wrong done by his people was placed at his door. But the sachem could not rally a thousand warriors of his own people, whereas, if he formed a union of the tribes in New England, he would be able to muster twenty-five thousand. He sought to bring about such a union, but, before he could succeed in the effort, the eagerness of the Wampanoags compelled him to lead them upon the warpath. The squaws and papooses

King  
 Philip's  
 War,  
 1675-  
 1678

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1758**Attack  
on  
Swansea**

were sent to the Narragansetts, and his warriors at once made ready for the fray.

The settlements saw with alarm the approaching signs of war. The 24th of June, 1675, was appointed as a day of fasting and prayer, that the calamity might be averted. At Swansea, while the people were returning from church, they were suddenly attacked by a force of Indians. One man was killed, and several were wounded. Two others ran for a surgeon, but were killed, and six more were shot down near the fort. Several houses and barns were burned, and the Wampanoags fled before the whites could rally against them. The war having been opened in this startling manner, it was prosecuted with the utmost fury by the red men. The New England settlements were so far apart that they were peculiarly exposed to Indian attack. The crack of the rifle, and the war-whoop, broke the midnight stillness, and the shadowy figures, hideous in their war-paint, leaped from the gloom of the woods with tomahawk and knife, and rushed upon their victims before they were fairly awakened from sleep. Men, women, and children, and even babes-in-arms, received no mercy at the hands of these fierce warriors, who seemed to feel that theirs was the task to avenge the wrongs of a century.

For some time after the opening of the war, the strife was confined to the Plymouth colony, where Winslow was governor, while John Winthrop, the younger, was governor of Connecticut and New Haven, and Leverett governor of Massachusetts. Rhode Island tried to keep out of the war, but was unable to do so. A number of her people were killed at Tiverton, and several houses burned at Providence. The whites compelled the Narragansetts to make a treaty of peace with them. This was an almost fatal blow to Philip's hopes, but he was undismayed, and roused other tribes to join him in the warfare.

**Attack  
on  
Brook-  
field**

Scouts reported that the Nipmuck Indians were about to unite with Philip, and Captain Edward Hutchinson with a score of troopers was sent to prevent, if possible, such a junction. On the road, the party was ambushed, and eight were killed and four wounded, Captain Hutchinson being among the slain. Those who escaped succeeded in reaching Brookfield and gave the alarm. The terrified inhabitants, numbering about a hundred, knew that the Indians would soon be there, so they hurriedly crowded into the only stone structure in the place. They had hardly done this, when several hundred screeching savages swarmed through the village, with rifle,

tomahawk, scalping-knife, and torch. House after house was fired, until every building, except the stone structure which served as a refuge, was in flames.

Men who are defending not only their own lives but those of their wives and little ones against Indians may be depended upon to fight to the last, for they know that surrender cannot save them. Again and again did a painted warrior, torch in hand, try to steal up to the building, but in every instance he was shot down by the alert defenders. An unwary settler was seized by the savages, killed, and his head used as a football. Every man in the house knew that, unless help reached them, they were doomed. A swift runner attempted to steal into the woods, to alarm the nearest settlement, but was detected by the watchful Indians, and had barely time to run back among his friends to secure his own safety. After waiting a while, another scout repeated the attempt, with a like result. Then that hope was abandoned.

All through the night the danger continued, and, if possible, grew greater. The repeated failures of the assailants only made them more cautious. Arrows tipped with burning tow were aimed against the roof of the building, but the flames thus kindled did not hold. About midnight, the full moon rose above the tree-tops, and revealed a new and startling peril to the defenders. The Nipmucks had silently gathered a huge pile of leaves, twigs, and dried branches at one corner of the building to which they now applied the torch. This meant a horrible death to all unless the flames in some way or other could be extinguished, and it was soon seen to be impossible to quench them from the inside. Under cover of a number of the best marksmen, several defenders rushed out and scattered the burning mass, returning into the building without harm. Again did the Indians pile the material together and fire it, and a second time was it flung aside by the daring settlers. Not only were the assailants repulsed, but, during the confusion, one of the swiftest runners of the white men succeeded in darting into the woods without detection, and started off in quest of the help which was so sorely needed. All through the night, and the succeeding day and night, was the attack pressed without cessation. The roof was repeatedly set on fire by the blazing arrows, but holes were cut and water flung upon the wreaths of flame before they gained headway. This occurred so often that the roof was perforated and partially burnt in a score of places.

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Perti-  
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 of the  
 Attack

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Still the assailants would not relax their fell designs, but persevered until it seemed that they must succeed. On the third day a wagon was loaded with hemp, flax, hay, and wood, fired and backed against the house. The load served as an effective shield to the Indians, who kept it between them and the rifles of the defenders, and when it was all ablaze, jammed it against the building. At this dreadful moment, when the distressed colonists were in despair, a sudden fall of rain quenched the flames, and so saturated the material that it was impossible to rekindle it. It was a merciful deliverance.

Meanwhile, the runner who eluded the savages was making the best possible use of his time, and another of those strange providences which made the defense of Brookfield one of the most striking episodes of colonial history intervened to save the defenders, when all hope seemed gone. Major Simon Willard, a hardy veteran of seventy years, was at Boston, thirty miles away, when news was brought to him of the sore strait of Brookfield. He and fifty troopers leaped into their saddles and dashed to the help of their friends. Just as night was closing in, they reached the town and attacked the Nipmucks with the utmost fury. When this tragic work was done, not a live Indian was in sight, and eighty of their number (including those shot by the defenders) were stretched lifeless on the ground.

Assault  
 on  
 Hadley

On the first day of the following month, which was a Sunday, the Indians made a furious assault upon Hadley, Massachusetts. So sudden was the attack that the settlers were driven towards the meeting-house, in which the women and children had taken refuge, and it looked as if the most frightful massacre of the whole war was about to ensue. Presently, a tall man appeared among the panic-stricken people, as if he had sprung from the ground. He had flowing white hair, a long grizzled beard, and carried a sword in his hand. He issued his commands in a sharp, ringing voice and with a martial air which showed that that was not the first time he had been in battle. He quickly brought order out of chaos, secured discipline, and led a charge against the Indians which scattered them in every direction. Then he vanished as unaccountably as he had appeared. It cannot be wondered at that the devout settlers looked upon the mysterious stranger as a visitant from heaven sent to save them. He was veritable flesh and blood, however, in the person of General Goffe, the regicide, one of the major-generals under Cromwell, who was in



FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY W. P. SNYDER

A FRIEND IN NEED

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Deerfield  
 again  
 Attacked

hiding from the officers of King Charles II. at the house of a friend in Hadley.

On the same day that this happened a number of houses and barns were burned at Deerfield; and some weeks later most of the dwellings in Northfield were destroyed, and a dozen settlers killed. Captain Beers and thirty men set out to relieve the place, but were ambushed on the way, and he and twenty of his soldiers were slain. Deerfield was once again attacked, this time on a Sunday. The colonist-farmers fled in such haste that they left a large quantity of grain unthreshed in the fields. To save it from the enemy, Captain Lathrop, with eighty young men of Ipswich, "the flower of Essex," set out with wagons and teamsters to finish threshing the grain and secure it. This was done, and with the loaded wagons they started to return. On the morning of the 18th, unsuspecting of danger, the party halted by a small brook for rest. The abundance of luscious grapes caused them to leave their weapons in the wagons, while they separated to gather the tempting fruit. A force of several hundred Indians had been stealthily following the party all night, waiting for some such opportunity as now presented itself. They fell upon the unarmed men with an impetuosity that allowed only seven to escape. Captain Mosely, with a small force, at Deerfield, heard the firing and apprehended its cause. He hurried to the spot, attacked the Indians with great gallantry, and, being reinforced, inflicted severe loss upon them and drove them off. That day, the water in the little stream ran red from the butchery, and it has been known ever since as "Bloody Brook."

The settlers were terrified at the success of King Philip. They saw that the only way to escape the fate that had overtaken so many was by a ceaseless campaign against him—one that should crush him and his tribe. The formidable Narragansetts had become his allies, and it was decided first to march against them. Accordingly, Connecticut, Plymouth, and Massachusetts placed an armed force in the field, of more than one thousand men, one-half of whom were furnished by Massachusetts. They were joined by one hundred and fifty Mohican warriors, under the command of Governor Josiah Winslow, of Plymouth.

The  
 Narra-  
 gansetts  
 take  
 to the  
 War-  
 path

Through a captured prisoner, Winslow was apprised that more than three thousand Narragansetts had rendezvoused in their stronghold at South Kingston, Rhode Island. This fort, so far as known, was

never surpassed in strength by any other constructed by American Indians. It stood on elevated ground in the midst of a swamp, and covered several acres. Strong palisades enclosed it on every side. The only path leading within it was over a foot-bridge of logs loosely flung together. Within this enclosure the Indians had constructed six hundred wigwams, and stored their winter provisions. The weather was bitterly cold, and snow had fallen to a great depth. The strong-

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THE NARRAGANSETT STRONGHOLD

hold was so difficult of access, and the weather so severe, that the Narragansetts felt little fear of molestation. It was no child's play for the New Englanders to assault the place; and when, on the 19th of December, they rushed through the snow in the effort to capture it, they were met with so destructive a fire that they were forced back with heavy loss, six captains being among the number slain.

Captain Benjamin Church, seeing that it was almost impossible to take the fort from its face-front, assailed it from the rear. There the defences were not quite so strong, and after the most desperate

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 on the  
 Narra-  
 gan-  
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 Strong-  
 hold,  
 1675

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fighting he and his party forced an entrance. So furious was the struggle at this point that Church was wounded three times. He did not wish to fire the wigwams, because they were filled with corn, but in no other way could the Narragansetts be ejected. The torch was applied in a score of places, and the flames darted from wigwam to wigwam until the whole interior was a roaring conflagration.

The intolerable heat drove out the Indians. On the outside, they fought with the same bravery they had shown from the first, and only after the most determined efforts were the soldiers able to drive them from the swamp and into the open country. Six or seven hundred warriors were killed, including a number of leading chiefs, while the loss of the soldiers was nearly a hundred slain and a greater number wounded. Among the captured Indians was Canonchet, the head sachem of the tribe, who had broken his treaty with the whites. To punish him for his treachery, he was put to death. The loss of their food brought the Narragansetts to the verge of starvation. Indeed, many of them perished with hunger, and the dominion of the once powerful tribe was destroyed.

It would seem that so crushing a victory ought to have ended the war, and it probably would had Philip been killed, but his hatred of the white people made him as active in his hostility as ever. He strove to induce the Mohawks to join him, but they refused, and he stirred up other Indians to take anew to the warpath. In about a month, the war spread over an area of three hundred miles. Exposed cabins were ruthlessly fired, and families were tortured to death. Warwick and Providence, in Rhode Island, were almost laid in ashes, and in Massachusetts, the villages of Medford, Weymouth, Groton, Lancaster, and Marlborough were burned. Lancaster fell a victim to the vengeance of the Wachuset warriors. The attack was made late in winter, and after a number had been slain, others were carried off prisoners. Among these was Mrs. Rowlandson, wife of the minister, and her little girl, barely six years old. Both were wounded by the same bullet, but the devoted mother tramped through the snow for more than a week, with the little one pressed to her breast, and then saw it die in her arms. For three days neither partook of a mouthful of food. After several months of captivity, the mother was ransomed and returned to her friends.

Extent  
 of the  
 War

So many successes came to the Indians that they grew more reckless and defiant. A number actually encamped among the de-



sented fields at Deerfield and began planting them. This so roused Captain Turner, twenty miles away, that he gathered a hundred troopers, and, riding hard, reached the Indian encampment at daylight, May 10th. The attack was a surprise to the savages, most of whom fled in such haste to their canoes that they left their paddles behind, and were swept over the falls. The others were pursued and shot down with so much vigor that between two and three hundred were slain, while only a single white man was killed. Sad to say, however, the soldiers, in this engagement as in many other instances, lost the decisive advantage they had gained. Another large force of hostiles was in the vicinity, and made haste to the spot. The rumor that the implacable Philip was the leader of this band stampeded the soldiers, of whom one-third, including Captain Turner, were unfortunately killed.

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1758

**A Victory for the Settlers at Turner's Falls, 1676**

But there could be only one end to this decimating warfare. The whites were the most numerous, and with their discipline and resolution they began to gain ground. An attack upon Hadley by the savages was repulsed with heavy loss, and so many other defeats followed that the scene of hostilities shifted southward to Connecticut and Rhode Island.

Massachusetts passed a law providing for the impressment of soldiers, and enforced all possible measures against the Indians. Captain Church, having recovered from the wounds received at Kingston, was merciless in harrying the hostiles. He persuaded a number who were allies of Philip to withdraw from his support, and at the opportune hour, Massachusetts sent out a proclamation offering to pardon every warrior who would lay down his arms within two weeks. A great many took advantage of this offer, so that by midsummer the war was virtually over.

**End of the War, 1676**

But among those who submitted was not King Philip. When one of his warriors ventured to advise him to surrender, the chieftain buried his tomahawk in his brain. He cut off his hair and so changed his appearance that only his most intimate friends could recognize him. There is no doubt that this disguise was more than once the means of saving the sachem of the Wampanoags when he was hard pressed. His uncle was shot down at his side by a soldier, who, had he suspected the identity of the chieftain, would not have wasted his bullet upon his relative. Philip and a number of his companions, however, were fugitives, and were forced to flee from

**Philip a Fugitive**

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 MENT  
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place to place, hiding in the deepest swamps, running for their lives, and without cessation were hunted night and day.

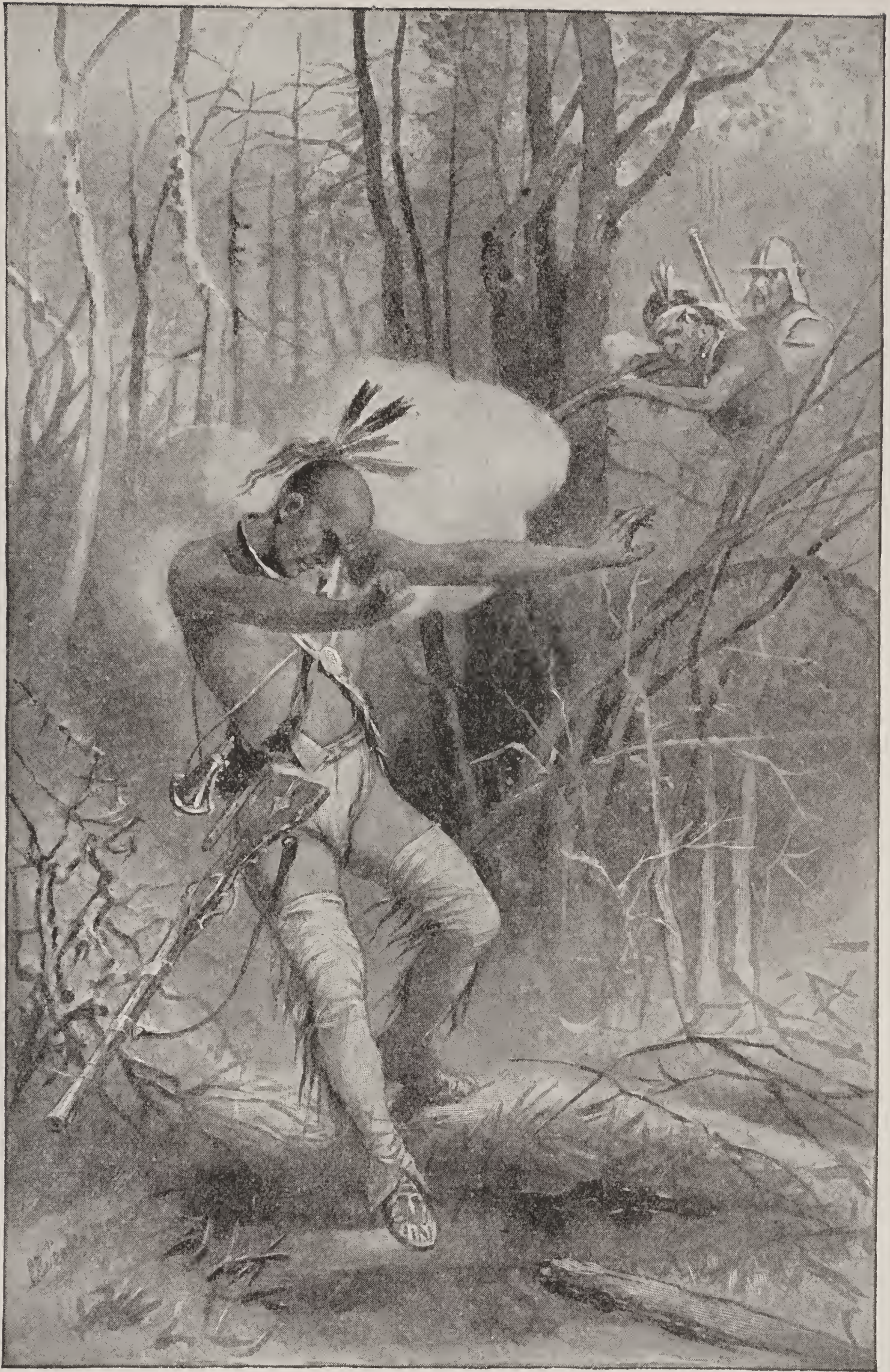
One afternoon, an Indian runner came into the camp of Captain Church, at Tiverton, with most important news. He said that Philip and his small band were on a piece of land at the south end of the swamp, near the foot of Mount Hope. The motive of the Indian in thus betraying his leader it seems was revenge, for he was the brother of the warrior whom Philip slew because he advised the sachem to surrender. Church was familiar with the spot, and did not doubt the truth of the warrior's statement. Without the loss of an hour he hurried thither, and placed his men so as to guard every outlet of the swamp. Then he sent in several soldiers to rout out the chief.

Death of  
 King  
 Philip

The instant Philip saw his danger he made a dash for one of the outlets, where a soldier and an Indian ally were stationed. Seeing the fugitive approaching, the two raised their rifles and fired at the same instant. The weapon of the white man "flashed in the pan," but the Indian's did not. His bullet went through Philip's heart, who with a shriek flung his arms aloft, and fell dead in a pool of water. Captain Church cut off the Indian chief's head, and it was for a time displayed on the palisades at Plymouth. The wife and son of the chieftain had been captured before his death, and the Massachusetts authorities debated as to what was the wisest disposition to make, particularly of the heir to the Wampanoag throne. Was it more prudent to put him to death than to make a slave of him? The latter course was adopted, and he was sold into slavery in Bermuda. Such was the woful ending of the dynasty of Massasoit, who welcomed the Pilgrims to Plymouth and remained their constant friend throughout his long lifetime.

Count-  
 ing the  
 Cost

In one sense, King Philip's war was the most disastrous that ever afflicted our country. More than six hundred persons, mostly young men who could be ill-spared, had been slain; thirteen towns and five hundred buildings were burned; while the expense of the war was fully half-a-million dollars. To the Indians the cost was still more fearful. Probably three thousand of them were killed, and a death-blow was given to the powerful confederacy which the genius of Philip had welded together from the most stubborn of all materials. A treaty was made in 1678, which brought hostilities to an end.



FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY J. STEEPLE DAVIS

KING PHILIP'S WAR — DEATH OF THE KING



## CHAPTER XIV

### *THE COLONIAL HISTORY OF NEW ENGLAND*

*(Continued)*

[*Authorities:* Besides the troubles with local Indian tribes narrated in the previous chapter, the New England colonists were now to suffer severely from the forays of the French in Canada, at the time under the iron rule of Count Frontenac, the ablest administrator France ever had in the New World. The two great European races were then engaged in war, owing chiefly to Louis XIV. having espoused the Stuart cause, after the English Revolution of 1688. Frontenac, taking advantage of that fact, and holding the English colonists of the seaboard responsible for inciting Iroquois attacks upon the French settlements on the St. Lawrence, organized repeated military expeditions, composed largely of Huron Indians, into the frontier settlements of Maine, New Hampshire, and New York, and committed great havoc, and caused much shedding of blood. To offset these raids, a colonial congress, held at New York, ordered an attack by sea on the French posts in Acadia, which were captured; but Sir William Phips's attack on Quebec, which followed, was repulsed and abandoned. The raiding expeditions continued for some years, until the passing of the Treaty of Ryswick (1697), when there was a period of five years' peace, until the outbreak of what is known as Queen Anne's war (1702-1713), over the question of the Spanish succession in Europe. The chief event in the New World of that European embroilment was the capture, by the New England troops, of the French stronghold of Louisbourg, in Cape Breton, which, however, reverted shortly afterwards to the French, under the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748). For a fuller treatment of these matters, as they affected the New England colonies, see the general histories, and the chief local monographs previously cited.]

King  
James  
II



The Charter Oak

Sir Ed-  
mund  
Andros

JAMES II. ascended the throne of England in 1685. He was a great tyrant, and one of his first acts was to declare void the charter of Massachusetts, and to appoint Joseph Dudley governor of the country from Rhode Island to Nova Scotia. The latter was almost immediately succeeded by Sir Edmund Andros as viceroy of all New England.

Something has been said in a previous chapter about Governor Andros. In his anxiety to carry out his sovereign's will, he became

so oppressive that he was soon detested by those over whom he ruled. The people of Massachusetts were on the point of rising in arms and driving him from the colony, when the welcome news reached Boston, in April, 1689, that the revolution which brought about the fall of the Stuart dynasty in England had resulted in placing William and Mary on the throne. James II. saved his head by fleeing to France, where the French king, Louis XIV., sheltered him. Both were Roman Catholics, and the French monarch promised to help his royal English brother to regain his throne from William and Mary, both of whom were Protestants. War, therefore, broke out between France and England, and involved their respective colonies in America. This conflict is known in history as King William's war.

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1602  
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King William's War, 1689-1697

The news of James's dethronement kindled a revolt in Massachusetts. Simon Bradstreet, then ninety years of age, was governor, when the king struck down the liberties of the province, and he was now reinstated. Andros blustered, but he and the more obnoxious of his associates were arrested and imprisoned. An assembly was called, which declared the ancient charter restored. William and Mary were proclaimed in May, and a letter from the joint sovereigns approved of the acts and directed Andros to appear in England to answer the charges against him.

The French were wiser than the English in gaining the friendship of the Indians of the Algonquin stock who peopled the St. Lawrence Valley, and who now became their allies in desolating the English settlements. The colonists from France had settled in Canada and along the St. Lawrence, and were, therefore, neighbors of those in New York and northern New England. The French Jesuits were an association of Roman Catholics of every degree, who cheerfully underwent all manner of trial, affliction, suffering, and self-sacrifice to convert the Indians and advance the interests of their order. No more perfect organization, for a specific object, ever existed. They brought whole tribes under their sway, and held the dusky warriors in New France in thrall. The English settlements in New York, however, kept the powerful Iroquois Confederacy, or Five Nations, like a mountain wall between themselves and the Canadian Indians.

The French Jesuits

The first blow was struck by the French and their Huron allies in June. On the 27th of that month, they attacked the little settlement of Dover, in New Hampshire, killed a score of persons, and car-

Attack on Dover, New Hampshire, 1689

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 TION AND  
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ried off some thirty captives. In August, another party paddled down the Penobscot and passed along the coast to Pemaquid, now Bremen. Their coming was so unexpected that many of the settlers were killed while at work in the fields, and the fort after a two days' siege surrendered, only a handful of the defenders escaping to the woods.

Attack  
 on  
 Sche-  
 nectady,  
 1690

In January following, Frontenac, the redoubtable governor of Canada, sent three hundred French and Indians from Montreal into the province of New York. The snow lay deep on the ground, and the weather was bitterly cold; but the invaders pushed forward for many days on snow-shoes, until within sight of Schenectady, where they hid themselves in the woods until late at night. The inhabitants did not dream of danger, and no sentinels were at their posts. Their enemies rushed into the streets at midnight, and began their frightful work. Sixty persons were tomahawked, and the town given to the flames. The survivors rushed out in the snow, half-clad, and, after incredible suffering, reached Albany, sixteen miles distant. It is but fair to the French to say that this expedition was undertaken chiefly by way of reprisal for the Iroquois raid upon Montreal, and the massacre by that vengeful tribe of the French at Lachine. It was thought in the French colony that the English settlers of the seaboard had instigated the Iroquois attack, and hence the raid into New York State was a sort of striking back upon the part of the French and their Huron allies. The latter, moreover, had reasons of their own for returning blow for blow, since their own country—the region round Lake Huron—had, forty years before, been devastated by the Iroquois, and the Huron tribe was all but destroyed.

Colonial  
 Con-  
 gress,  
 1690

The atrocity at Schenectady, with other like outrages, roused New England to the necessity of sharp retaliatory measures. At the suggestion of Massachusetts, a colonial congress met in New York, May 1, 1690, to agree upon concerted plans for the general security. The most important step taken was the decision to invade Canada by way of Lake Champlain to Montreal. Massachusetts arranged to send a naval expedition up the St. Lawrence against Quebec. The fleet was composed of thirty-four vessels, manned by two thousand New Englanders, under the command of Sir William Phips. He advanced with snail-like tardiness and compelled the surrender of Port Royal, in the Bay of Fundy, while Nova Scotia offered no resistance at all.

The progress up the St. Lawrence was so slow that Frontenac was given time to fortify Quebec, and he scornfully rejected Phips's summons to surrender when he appeared before the city and citadel in October. Thereupon Phips returned with the fleet to Boston.

In the mean time the army, under command of a son of Governor Winthrop, of Connecticut, had advanced at such a laggard pace that it did not reach the head of Lake Champlain until September. Winthrop sent a force to attack Montreal, but Frontenac easily repulsed it, and the whole army returned to Albany without striking a blow. The invasion of Canada was a disastrous failure.

Sir William Phips now visited England to ask for aid in prosecuting the war against the French and Indians, and to procure a more satisfactory restoration of the charter of Massachusetts taken away by James II. The help desired was not given, but the sovereign issued a new charter which united Massachusetts, Plymouth, Maine, and Nova Scotia under the name of the "Massachusetts Bay Colony," with Phips as governor. This charter was unsatisfactory to Massachusetts, for it was far less liberal in its provisions than the old one. Still it was accepted, since no other choice was at the command of the people.

The frontier settlements suffered very heavily while King William's war was in progress. It is not worth while to relate all the incidents that occurred; but there is one so strange that it must not be omitted, though it will be found hard to believe the amazing story. One day in March, 1697, Thomas Dustin was working in his field near Haverhill, within thirty miles of Boston, when he saw a war-party of Indians approaching from the woods. Like most of the settlers, Dustin made it a practice to carry his rifle with him at all times, whether in going to church or while at work. The instant he discovered the red-men he caught up his gun, unfastened his horse, and rode at full speed for the house, where were his wife, nurse, and eight children, the youngest of whom was only a few days old. He directed all the older children to leave at once and run in the opposite direction from the Indians. They scrambled out as quickly as they could, and he then leaned over the bed to lift out his wife and babe.

"No," said his wife, gently pushing him away, "I am unable to go with you. Leave me, and save the children."

It was a fearful moment, but the distracted father had no choice.

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Failure of the Invasion of Canada, 1690

A New Charter granted to Massachusetts, 1690

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He sprang upon his horse again, and quickly overtook the little ones. The Indians were close at hand, and he levelled his gun at them. They shrank back, but he did not fire. He knew that if he discharged the weapon they would rush forward before he could reload and no doubt kill them. By threatening them in this manner, he kept them at a distance until an empty house was reached, when they turned away, and left him and his sorely affrighted children.

Meanwhile, the Indians had rushed into the home of Mr. Dustin, where they saw the nurse about to fly with the infant, while the



MR. DUSTIN DEFENDING HIS CHILDREN

The  
 Story of  
 Hannah  
 Dustin,  
 1697

mother lay in bed resignedly awaiting her fate. The savages ordered her to rise, and, moved by her terror, she now did that which until then she did not believe herself capable of doing; she arose and prepared to go with them as their prisoner. Before she was dressed her babe was taken from her and slain, the plundered house was set on fire, and she was compelled to accompany her cruel captors.

It was March, and the weather was chilly and damp. The bereaved mother was forced to walk a dozen miles a day, without shoes upon her feet, and to lie down in the woods at night, with no covering except the scant garments she wore. This distressing condition continued day after day, until they reached a small island in the Mer-



rimac River, six miles above Concord, N. H., which since that time has borne the name of Dustin Island. At this place lived the chief, who claimed the two female prisoners as his property. His family consisted of two men, three women, seven children, and a white boy who had been a captive for a number of months.

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Mrs. Dustin and the nurse were treated fairly well for several days, when they were told that they and the boy were to be taken to a distant village, where they would have "to run the gauntlet." In this terrifying ordeal, the prisoner is deprived of nearly all his clothing, and compelled to pass between two rows of Indians, each provided with a club, knife, hatchet, or other weapon, with which he delivers such blows as he can, while the captive is within reach. The conditions generally are that if he can fight his way to the end of the rows of tormentors his life is spared. Instances are known of a prisoner's survival, but the tormentors very rarely permit such a conclusion of the grim pastime, for the torture of a prisoner is too exquisite an enjoyment for them to let it slip when it is once within their grasp.

**A Grim  
 Indian  
 Pastime**

When Mrs. Dustin and her companion learned of the decision of their captors they resolved to die before submitting to it. They formed a plan of escape and made a confidant of the boy, who promised to give all the help he could. He was asked to learn from one of the warriors how to kill a human being with a single blow, and how to take his scalp. The boy gained this information without exciting the suspicion of his captors, and then carefully explained the method to the two women.

While it was yet dark on the following morning Mrs. Dustin silently awakened the nurse and lad, and all three secured tomahawks without arousing their captors. Then quickly and surely were the blows dealt until it was certain that ten of the sleepers would never awake again. A squaw opened her eyes before they reached her, and, springing to her feet, with her babe clasped to her breast, she dashed off to the woods, and escaped the fate of her companions.

With wonderful coolness the white captives secured some provisions from the lodge, and made their way to the river-side, where lay a number of canoes. All were scuttled save one. Before embarking in this, Mrs. Dustin, recalling the manner in which the Indians had slain her infant and maltreated her, led her companions back to the lodge, where their ten victims were deprived of their scalps. Then

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A Wom-  
 an's  
 Heroism

the three entered the single canoe, and, in continual peril, floated down the Merrimac to their homes, where their arrival occasioned as much amazement as if they had risen from the dead.

The happiness of Mrs. Dustin was complete, when she found her husband and the remainder of the children unharmed. Her story, becoming known, awoke a profound interest throughout the colonies.

Had she not brought away the ghastly trophies, in the shape of ten scalps, it is not likely that one person in a hundred would have believed her statement, though backed by the nurse and little boy. The General Court of Massachusetts presented the three with fifty pounds as a reward for their heroism, while others sent them valuable testimonials. In 1874, the citizens of New York and New Hampshire erected a fine monument on Dustin Island commemorative of what is certainly one of the most heroic incidents in our colonial history. The inscription perpetuates the names of Hannah Dustin, Mary Neff, and Samuel Leonardson.

A treaty of peace between England and France, which lasted for the next five years, was signed in 1697, at Ryswick, Holland, and King William's war came to a close.\*

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\* The war, which had lasted eight years, was undertaken by England under William III., in concert with the "Grand Alliance"—embracing the European powers of Austria, Spain, and the Netherlands. It had for its object the repression of the political ambitions, absolutism, and religious intolerance of Louis XIV. of France. Its chief incidents in the Old World were, on the one side, the defeat of the allied arms at Steinkirk, in 1692, and on the other, the annihilation, in the same year, of the French fleet off La Hogue; with its pendant issue against the Stuart cause, in 1690, in King William's victory over James II. at the Battle of the Boyne. The strife between England and France in the New World was due less to European complications than to the French-Canadian policy, as represented by the able and vigorous Count Frontenac, of seeking to win over the Iroquois to the French cause, and keeping the members of that great Indian confederacy from taking sides with the English colonists on the Hudson and the New England seaboard. Just then, the Iroquois were showing signs of becoming weary of the long struggle between the two dominant white races, and both were, in consequence, anxious to court so formidable an ally and secure its aid in the war. The result was inevitable, since the French availed themselves of the help of the Huron Indians in their attacks on the Iroquois cantons in the Mohawk valley, as well as in their predatory incursions on the English border settlements. The barbarity of these attacks so incensed the colonists that recourse was had to the expedition against Quebec, which, however, proved abortive, as we have seen, while it accomplished little in the way of Indian pacification. On the death of Frontenac, in 1698, the legacy of Indian strife was but handed on to his successor (De Calliere) and the later French governors in Canada.



## CHAPTER XV

### THE COLONIAL HISTORY OF NEW ENGLAND

(Continued)

[*Authorities* : The present chapter deals chiefly with the witchcraft delusion in New England, and the fanatical outbreak at Salem in 1691-92. Some writers associate the unhappy craze with the austerities of Puritanism; but this is not a fair diagnosis of the matter, since magic divinations and diabolical incantations were common practices in the Old World from early times, and the trial of sorcerers, for "fellowship by covenant with familiar spirits," was very frequent in England during the seventeenth century. The subject, beyond the scope treated of in the following chapter, will be found dealt with by most of the writers on New England history. See especially, also, Upham's "Salem Witchcraft."] ]



ONE day, in 1688, John Goodwin's daughter, a headstrong girl about a dozen years old, living with her father in Boston, accused their Irish servant of stealing some of the family linen. The mother of the servant turned upon the child, and scolded her so furiously that she tumbled down in a fit, which probably was only pretended. Her brothers and sisters joined her, and were sometimes deaf, and dumb, and blind; then they barked like dogs, purred like cats, and indulged in all sorts of idiocy. They explained these antics by declaring that the Irishwoman had bewitched them. It is recorded that not one of these children lost his appetite or failed to sleep with his usual soundness,—facts which prove that the performances were inspired by pure waywardness, and the desire to be revenged upon the Irishwoman.

Now, at the period about which we are writing, and indeed for centuries before, nearly every one believed in witchcraft. It is astonishing to learn how general was this delusion in the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries. Those that were drowned,

The  
First  
Case of  
"Witch-  
craft"  
in Mas-  
sachu-  
setts,  
1688

Early  
General  
Belief in  
Witch-  
craft

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hanged, or burned alive for the crime numbered not hundreds, but tens of thousands. During the sixteenth century, Germany went mad on the subject of witchcraft. It is estimated that for the whole century the number of persons burned to death averaged more than a thousand for each year, reaching an appalling total of over a hundred thousand. Sir Matthew Hale, eminent as one of the greatest judges of England, condemned many persons to death for witchcraft. When the Pilgrims and Puritans crossed the Atlantic, they brought with them a steadfast belief in the delusion, and passed rigid laws for the punishment of those practising it or suspected of practising it. The records show that, within twenty years after the settlement of Boston, four persons were executed in the neighborhood of the town for witchcraft.

**Cotton  
 Mather's  
 Agency  
 in  
 Spread-  
 ing the  
 Delusion**

The most strenuous believers were the clergy. Cotton Mather, who was remarkable for his ability, and the leading preacher of colonial times, did more than any single man to spread the hideous delusion and bring death often to innocent persons. When he learned of the antics of the Goodwin children, he hastened to their home, for the purpose of exorcising or casting out the devil by means of prayer. He succeeded for the time, and with the help of several ministers from Boston, and a clergyman from Salem, one of the children was rescued, as it was thought, from the power of Satan.

But it was established in the minds of the preachers that a witch was at work, which could be no other than Mother Glover, the old Irish-woman. She was charged with the crime and brought before the court, where the miserable creature's bewilderment was accepted as proof of her guilt. She was, therefore, sentenced and hanged as a witch, and Mather and his associates thanked God that stern justice had been done.

Mather did not consider his duty finished when Mother Glover was executed. He had been pained by the evidence of a tendency towards independent thought among the people. He published pamphlets upon sorcery and witchcraft, and thundered against both from his pulpit. When several attempted to explain the Goodwin incident on natural grounds, he denounced the attempt as blasphemy. He declared that he had thoroughly looked into the subject, and henceforward would consider the denial of witchcraft as a personal insult. Other preachers followed in the horrible path he had chosen for himself, but they did so "from afar," for none had his prodigious courage and self-assertion.

The young daughter of John Goodwin possessed the artfulness of an imp. The stern old preacher called her into his study, and she shocked him by falling into convulsions when he knelt in prayer or

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THE WITCHCRAFT DELUSION—SCENE IN COURT

read a chapter of the Bible; but, with the help of the devil, she was able quietly to peruse the abominable “Quaker books, the Common Prayer, and Papist books.”

While the public mind was filled with the terrifying theme, it was wrought to a still higher pitch by the appearance of a form of

**The Outbreak at Danvers**

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The  
 Manifes-  
 tations  
 in the  
 Parris  
 Family,  
 1691-92

epilepsy in Danvers, a section of Salem. The physicians were helpless, and hid their ignorance by ascribing the disease to witchcraft. Samuel Parris took charge of the church in Salem in 1689. He came from Barbadoes, and in the winter of 1691-92, his daughter and niece invited a number of girls to a party at their house. After a time, they sought to amuse themselves by trying their hands at the "black art." They kept the amusement up until they became hysterical, and the parents were alarmed. The doctor was called in, and the solemn verdict of his diagnosis was—witchcraft.

Once more it was necessary to produce a witch. The minister had a strong dislike of a woman named Sarah Good, and he suggested to the children that she was the one for whom they were looking. The "pointer" was eagerly accepted, and Sarah Good was pronounced guilty and hanged! Among the residents of Salem was a crabbed, ill-natured man, fourscore years old, named Giles Corey. He was afflicted with a violent temper, and had been tried and acquitted of several charges. After a time, some one accused him of witchcraft, and he was brought to trial. The stubborn old fellow refused to open his mouth during the proceedings, hoping thereby to escape conviction and save his estate from forfeiture. Hanging was considered too good for him, and he suffered the awful punishment of death by squeezing—the first and last time, so far as is known, that that penalty was inflicted in this country.

Governor  
 Phips a  
 Tool in  
 the hands  
 of  
 Mather

Sir William Phips was governor of Massachusetts at this period. None was more superstitious than he, and he became a tool in the hands of the credulous, though pious, Cotton Mather. He organized a court for the trial of those accused of witchcraft, with Stoughton as chief judge, and Saltonstall and Sewall as assistants. The first case upon which they were called to pass judgment was that of an old woman named Bridget Bishop, who was promptly convicted and hanged, though she declared her innocence to the last.

A dispute arose between the Endicott family and Francis Nourse, who lived upon the Endicott farm. The dispute waxed bitter, and each side had its sympathizers. One day several of the Endicott children began rolling about in fits, and accused Mrs. Nourse of having bewitched them. She was one of the gentlest of women, loved and honored by her friends. But all this availed her naught, though her modest demeanor and Christian deportment so impressed the jury that they pronounced her innocent. The indignant judges,



FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY JOS. LAUBER

EXECUTION OF THE REVEREND STEPHEN BURROWS

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TION AND  
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MENT1602  
TO  
1758Spread  
of the  
Delusion

however, sent out the jury again and again, and forced them to declare her guilty. She was hanged on Witch Hill, and her body flung into the pit where lay the other dishonored victims.

By this time Salem had gone insane, and the people of the community seemed to lose their heads. A disgusted constable refused to arrest an accused lady, who he knew was innocent, whereupon he himself was charged with witchcraft, found guilty and executed. If a person were accused and brought to trial, he was allowed to save his life by confessing. Scores availed themselves of this privilege. Others, whose conscience would not permit them to lie, bravely met their death in consequence. A little girl made charges against her grandfather, who was thereupon brought to trial. She then took back what she had said, declaring that there was not a word of truth in her accusation. Inasmuch as she must have told a falsehood in one case or the other, she was punished by being put in prison, she and her parents narrowly escaping hanging. As for the grandfather, he was denied the benefit of doubt, and hanged. In one case, a dog belonging to a wizard behaved so oddly that he fell under suspicion, and was executed side by side with his master.

Case of  
the Rev-  
erend  
Stephen  
Burrows

Reverend Stephen Burrows had had charge of the Church of Salem, and was in many respects a remarkable man. Aside from his devoutly religious character, he possessed a fine physique, with the strength of a Hercules. Sometimes, to amuse his friends, he performed exploits which filled them with wonder, for no one could equal them. Preacher Parris, when he learned of the loving remembrance in which his parishioners held Burrows, was filled with envy. Mr. Burrows had removed to the village of Wells, in Maine, where he was greatly esteemed by his flock. Parris, in his hatred of the good man, charged him with witchcraft, asserting that no human being could perform such feats of strength without Satanic agency. One day, the genial giant, away off in his happy home in Maine, received a summons to come to Salem, to stand trial on the charge of witchcraft. He laughed at the matter, but, kissing his wife and little ones good-by, set out for the distant town which had parted with its senses. That loving family never saw him again. The minister was convicted, and sentenced to be hanged. At the foot of the gallows he declared his innocence in so touching a speech that nearly every one was moved to tears. In his prayer, he besought mercy for his enemies, and so melted the hearts of his hearers that



assuredly he would have been rescued but for Cotton Mather, who rode back and forth through the crowd, reminding the people that Satan himself sometimes put on the guise of an angel of light. No persecutors, it is sad to say, were more cruel than the clergy.

This shocking revelry of death could not go on forever. Judge Saltonstall became disgusted and left the bench, but the iron-hearted Sewall never flinched, and kept up the travesty of justice to the end. Increase Mather, president of Harvard College, and father of Cotton Mather, protested. So did other leading clergymen. A prominent merchant declared that many cases were due to delirium tremens, and more than one thoughtful person began to ask himself whether a series of woful blunders had not been committed.

That which had most to do with bringing persons to their senses was the startling discovery that no person was safe against execution as a witch or wizard. There was no saying where the lightning would next strike. By the end of September, 1692, twenty persons had been put to death, fifty-five had been terrorized into making false confessions, a hundred and fifty lay in prison awaiting trial, and two hundred more were under accusation.

The wife of Governor Phips, one of the best of women, was accused; ex-Governor Bradstreet's two sons (the governor never believed in witchcraft), saved their lives by flight, and close relatives of the Mathers were imprisoned on the same charges. A gentleman in Andover was accused by an enemy of witchcraft, whereupon he immediately caused the arrest of the man for defamation of character, and sued him for heavy damages. This vigorous retort pricked the bubble, and cleared away the mist from people's eyes. Governor Phips ordered the release of all persons under charge of witchcraft, and the legislature of Massachusetts appointed a day for general fast and supplication, "that God would pardon all the errors of His servants and people in a late tragedy raised among us by Satan and his instruments."

Parris, one of the most malignant of prosecutors, made humble confession of the fearful wrongs he had committed; but the anger against him was so deep that he was obliged to leave Salem. Judge Stoughton spent the remainder of his days in seclusion, sour, morose, and remorseful, but claiming that he had been conscientious in the discharge of his duties. Judge Sewall, pale, and trembling with emotion, arose in the Old South Church in Boston and read a

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Extent  
of the  
Delusion

End of  
the De-  
lusion,  
1693

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 1602  
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 Judge  
 Sewall's  
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 tation,  
 1697

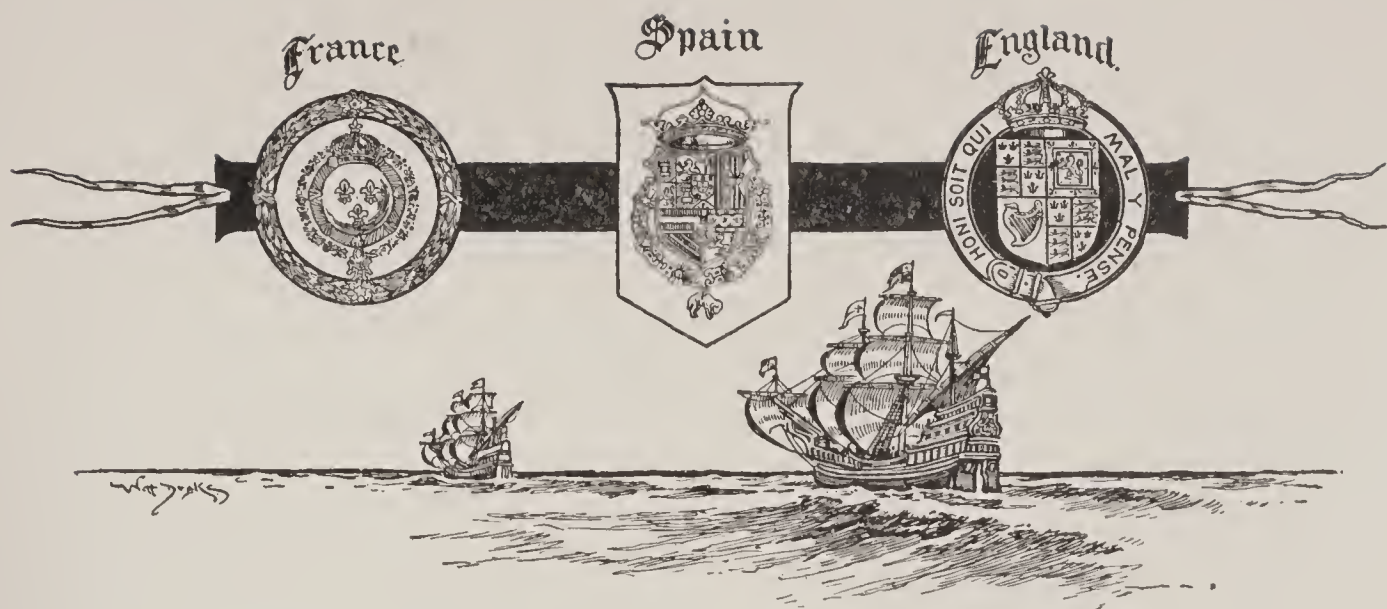
recantation, and once every year locked himself in his room, and passed the hours in prayer and fasting as a penance for the dreadful error he had committed.

In 1692, the Salem jurors published a humble confession of guilt, which concluded with these words: "We do heartily ask forgiveness of you all whom we have justly offended, and do declare, according to our present minds, we would none of us do such things again for the whole world; praying you to accept of this in way of satisfaction for our offence, and that you would bless the inheritance of the Lord, that He may be entreated for the land."

It is difficult to reconcile Cotton Mather's well-known philanthropy with his attitude towards the victims of the witchcraft delusion, save on the ground that credulity and a fanatical religious zeal were essential products of his age. This is emphasized by the collection of incidents regarding the craze, and by the austere comments upon them, which are to be found in the works he published, in 1689-1693, on "Memorable Providences relating to Witchcraft and Possessions," and, "The Wonders of the Invisible World; being an account of the trials of several witches lately executed in New England, and of several remarkable curiosities therein occurring." Unhappy as was his influence at the period on the witchcraft victims, the purity of his motives is unquestioned, while his life otherwise was most exemplary and useful.\*

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\* The delusion in New England connected with witchcraft, in the latter half of the seventeenth century, of which an account has been given in these pages, was not a merely local disorder, though under the gloomy fanaticism which from the first prevailed in the Massachusetts colony it for a time took on an acute form of the malady in the persecutions at Salem. It is difficult to-day, as has been said, to account for the prevalence of the craze, and for the form and extent of the delusion, save as the outcome of an epidemic of superstitious fear, born of a period of mental bondage to tyrannous clerical authority, backed by inquisitorial torture and judicial outrage. Like the insanitary conditions of life at the period, it was the product of mediævalism, and it disappeared only with the dawn of a new and better day. In the Old World, the superstition was more rank and widespread than in the New, while the loss of life due to the fanatical persecutions was appalling. Here and there, a solitary voice was raised to protest against the cruelties which belief in witchcraft engendered; but it was as a cry in the wilderness, so deep-rooted and panic-fed was public belief in human intercourse with Satan. With the dawn of the eighteenth century a more enlightened view began happily to prevail, and the mists of superstition in time were dissipated. The reader who is curious to look further into the matter will find a luminous chapter on the subject in Lecky's "Rise and Influence of the Spirit of Rationalism in Europe."



## CHAPTER XVI.

### *THE COLONIAL HISTORY OF NEW ENGLAND*

*(Concluded)*

[*Authorities:* For the fuller histories of Queen Anne's war (1702-1713), and of King George's war (1744-1748), with the details of the border fighting between the French on the St. Lawrence and the English colonists on the seaboard, see the general histories of the United States, the local histories of New England, and the English text-books on the "European Colonies in America." Both of these wars were marked by the continuance of hostilities between New France and New England, the struggle being embittered by Indian atrocity, as well as by the efforts of both France and England to wrest from each other dominion in the New World. The earlier conflict witnessed the capture of Port Royal, in 1710, by New England troops, and Hovenden Walker's fruitless invasion of Canada. The latter conflict witnessed the taking of Louisbourg, in 1745, by Massachusetts volunteers, only to see that stronghold in Cape Breton, which guarded the marine highway to New France, revert again to French rule with the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. The main incidents in both of these periods of international embroilment will be found narrated in the present chapter. The dual race-strife on this continent was soon now to end in the events which took place in the Ohio Valley, on the shores of Lake Champlain, and on the heights above Quebec.]



THE peace which followed the treaty of Ryswick, as we have already said, did not last long. Charles II. of Spain died in 1700, naming Philip of Anjou, grandson of Louis XIV., as his successor. This caused jealous alarm among the other nations, who feared that a union of the crowns of France and Spain would follow. If so, those two nations together would gain a dangerous predominance in Europe. England, Holland, and Austria formed a league, which made Archduke Charles of Austria its candidate for the throne of Spain. He could be placed on the throne, however, only by force. So the three nations named declared war against France for supporting the cause of Philip

**Political  
Disturbances in  
Europe**

## PERIOD II

## COLONIZATION AND SETTLEMENT

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of Anjou, who however succeeded to the Spanish throne, as Philip V. His succession led to the founding of the House of Bourbon in Spain.

England had at this time another grievance against France. James II., the exiled king, died in that country, in September, 1701, and Louis recognized his son as the rightful sovereign of England. This son was James Francis Edward, and is known in history as "The Pretender." This act of Louis gave England great offence, for the crown had already been settled upon Anne, who was a Protestant, and the second daughter of James II.

## Queen Anne's War, or the War of the Spanish Succession, 1702-1713

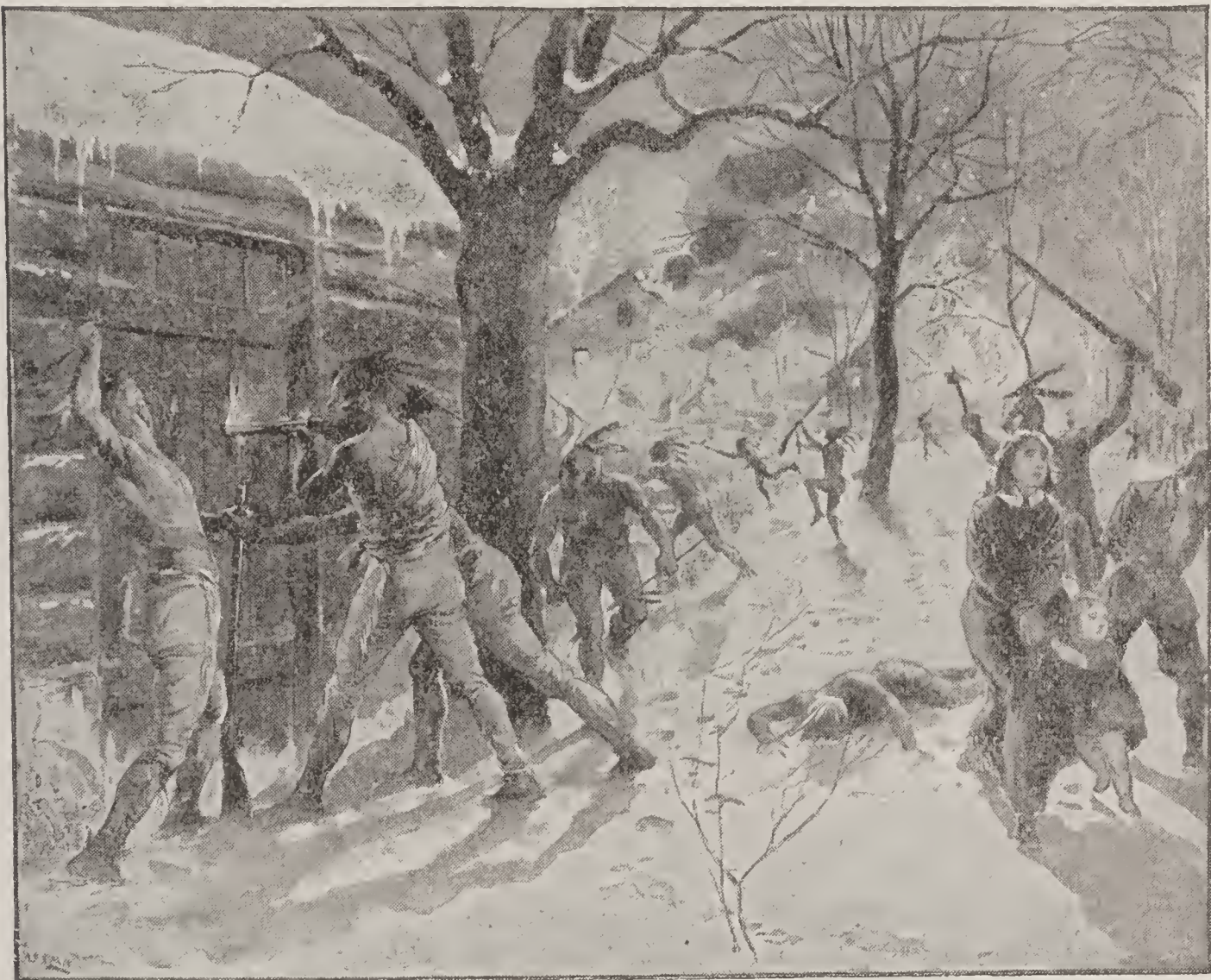
King William was so incensed that he made immediate preparations for war; but a fall from his horse caused his death, and Anne then came to the throne. She carried out the policy of William by declaring war against France in 1702. The war lasted eleven years, and is known in our history as Queen Anne's war, though it is sometimes more properly referred to as the War of the Spanish Succession. In the hostilities which followed, the New England settlements were again involved, and suffered greatly from the Indians. The Iroquois, or Five Nations, made a treaty of neutrality with the French and English, and the Indians of Maine did likewise, though the latter, however, were persuaded to break their pledge. The English were satisfied that this treachery was due to the intrigues of the French Jesuits, against whom their resentment was kindled. The Indians assailed the frontier towns of Massachusetts and New Hampshire, committing the most terrible outrages, and sparing no one. The hostility against the Jesuits had become so strong in New York and Massachusetts that those provinces passed laws for their expulsion; but they had already obtained such a hold upon the Indians that it could not readily be loosened. The savages plunged into murder, with its accompanying acts of torture and outrage, with the ardor of fanatics.

## Attack on Deerfield, Mass., 1704

In the winter of 1703-4, a band of Indians came down from Canada on snowshoes, and attacked the little town of Deerfield, Massachusetts. The snow lay several feet deep, and the crust was so hard that the fierce hordes walked over the palisades in the darkness as if they did not exist, and were upon the defenceless people before they dreamed of danger. Down to the year 1848, a large building was standing in Deerfield which was known as the "Indian House." This strong structure held out for a time, but the Indians chopped an opening in the massive door with their tomahawks, and, thrusting

a musket through, discharged it. The bullet killed a woman in the act of rising from her bed. The door, the bullet, and many other interesting relics may be seen to-day in the Deerfield museum. The "Indian House" was used by the captors as headquarters, and as a rendezvous for the marauders with their prisoners, and every other building, except the chapel, was laid in ruins. Forty people were killed, and more than a hundred carried off captives to Canada.

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ATTACK ON DEERFIELD

One of the touching incidents connected with the raid upon Deerfield was the experience of the family of the Rev. John Williams, the village pastor. A servant and two of his children were slain on their own threshold, and he and his wife and five remaining children set out on their trying journey to Canada. The wife became so worn out on the way that, to end the bother, one of the Indians brained her with his tomahawk. The remainder of the family were held captives in Canada for two years, when they were ransomed by their friends and allowed to return home.

The  
 Family of  
 Rev. Mr.  
 Williams

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The Indians, it seems, however, had become so attached to a little daughter of the clergyman, ten years old, that they would not part with her. In time, she formed an affection for her captors, and, when she grew to womanhood, married one of the warriors. Probably, a longing to see the home of her childhood led her, when she was the mother of several children, to visit Deerfield. As may well be imagined, her coming caused a stir in the little town, and elicited profound emotion among her relatives. Of course, all thought that she had returned to spend the remainder of her days with them, but when questioned on the point she shook her head.

“I am an Indian,” she gently replied; “I love my folk and my own race, but I love my husband and my children more. With them I shall live and die.” So she returned to Canada, and was seen no more by those who would have been glad to detain her. It is said that the charming story of Fenimore Cooper, “The Wept of Wish-ton-Wish,” was founded on this incident.

The experience of Deerfield may be taken as a type of what befell many other settlements in Maine and New Hampshire. The cruelties became so great that New England, in 1707, determined upon an aggressive campaign. Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island, therefore, fitted out an expedition for the invasion of Canada. A thousand men, commanded by Colonel Marsh, sailed from Nantucket. They proceeded under the convoy of a British man-of-war, and their object was the capture of Acadia, now better known as the Nova Scotian peninsula. Arriving at Port Royal, in the Bay of Fundy, they found the French fully prepared, and were obliged to abandon the enterprise. Three years later, another expedition was sent out by New England, New York, and New Jersey. It sailed from Boston, with the British fleet of thirty-six vessels. Port Royal surrendered, October 13th, and its name was changed to Annapolis, in compliment to Queen Anne.

Capture  
 of Port  
 Royal,  
 N. S.,  
 1710

Failure  
 of the  
 Attempt  
 to Invade  
 Canada,  
 1711

This not very brilliant success occasioned a more formidable attempt to invade Canada. In June, 1711, fifteen ships-of-war, forty transports, and six storeships, under Admiral Sir Hovenden Walker, arrived in the port of Boston. New England lost no time in raising an additional force, while another army was raised for the capture of Montreal. The expedition, under command of Admiral Walker, numbered seven thousand men, but the incompetency of that leader led to the loss of eight vessels, one thousand men, and finally the

abandonment of the enterprise. The land forces learned of the disaster to the fleet before they had advanced far enough to strike a blow, and they also went back to their homes.

For some time negotiations looking to peace had been going on. These were concluded at Utrecht (*u'trekt*), Holland, March 13, 1713. By the terms of the treaty, the fisheries of Newfoundland passed under the control of England, to which country also were ceded Labrador, Hudson Bay, and Acadia or Nova Scotia.

Peace was now undisturbed for thirty-one years. Charles VI. of Austria died in 1740, and in the strife over the succession the principal European nations became involved. It followed naturally that in the new complications France and England found themselves arrayed against each other. This war, which lasted from 1744 to 1748, is known in our history as King George's war (because George II. was then king of England), and in Europe as the War of the Austrian Succession.

It so happened that the French colonists learned of the breaking out of war before it was known to the subjects of the English crown. The French decided to "take time by the forelock," and promptly moved against Nova Scotia. The island of Canso was seized without resistance, the fort and dwellings burned, and the garrison made prisoners. Some months afterwards, the latter were paroled and sent to Boston. The information which they took home led to the remarkable campaign against Louisbourg. This fortress was well called "The Dunkirk of America." It inclosed the principal town of Cape Breton in massive and elaborate fortifications. So extensive indeed were they, that to walk around the ramparts, one would have to travel more than two miles. France expended six million dollars, and was engaged twenty-five years, in erecting the fortress and other formidable defences of Louisbourg.

It would seem that the attempt to capture this almost impregnable French stronghold was folly, and yet there was more than one reason which led Governor Shirley, of Massachusetts, to believe that it could be done. The French general in command was known to be old and of little capacity; the garrison stores were nearly exhausted; and the men were in a state of dissatisfaction bordering on mutiny. The Massachusetts legislature declared against the project; but Governor Shirley would not abandon it. He was not only a statesman, but an able soldier, and his enthusiastic ardor finally brought

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1602  
TO  
1758

King George's War,  
1744-1748

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the legislature around and secured the help of other colonies, as well as the countenance and aid of England. His own province furnished three thousand equipped soldiers; Connecticut, five hundred and sixteen; New Hampshire, three hundred and four; and Rhode Island, three hundred. The latter, however, sailed too late to take part in the siege. Commodore Warren, with a fleet from the West Indies, joined the expedition at Canso.

Siege  
 and  
 Capture  
 of Louis-  
 bourg,  
 1745

The New England troops sailed from Boston in April, 1745, under command of William Pepperell, a wealthy merchant of Kittery, Maine, who was afterwards made a baronet for his services. Roger Wolcott, lieutenant-governor of Connecticut, was second in command. This force landed, May 11th, in Gabarus Bay, on the east coast of Cape Breton. The appearance of so imposing an array caused consternation in Louisbourg, whose garrison was surprised and intimidated. The alarm-bells were rung, and cannon fired to warn the people on the island of their danger. A detachment of four hundred troops promptly moved against the royal battery, burning all the buildings within reach. The French gunners spiked their cannon and retreated, the battery immediately falling into the possession of the New Englanders, who unspiked and afterwards made excellent use of the guns.

The task before the besiegers seemed well-nigh impossible of accomplishment. The solid stone walls of the fortress were forty feet thick at the base and thirty feet high, while the surrounding ditch, filled with water, was eighty feet wide. Mounted on the walls were more than a hundred cannon and eighty swivels and mortars. The artillery on the bastions swept all the approaches to the walls; the garrison numbered sixteen hundred men. Of heavy artillery, the besiegers had only eighteen cannon and three mortars. The siege guns were placed on sleds, and with great labor dragged across a yielding swamp. The spirits of all were soon heightened, however, by the capture, by Commodore Warren, of a French ship of seventy-four guns, and an immense quantity of military stores, together with five hundred and sixty men. Reinforcements, moreover, continued to arrive, to add to the encouraging prospects.

The ardor of the assailants could not be quenched. They were stirred by patriotism and by a deep religious fervor, and saw the hand of God in everything that took place. George Whitefield, the famous Methodist preacher, gave to the New Hampshire troops the





FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY WARREN SHEPPARD

NAVAL ENGAGEMENT IN GABARUS BAY

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 MENT  
 1602  
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motto which they inscribed on their banners—*Nil desperandum Christo duce*—“Never despair, Christ being the leader;” thus making the enterprise, as it has been termed, a sort of Puritan crusade.

Learning of the probable arrival of French ships with reinforcements, a combined attack was made by the land and naval forces on June 17th. Governor Duchambon (*du-sham'bōn*), the French commander, seeing that defeat was certain, asked Pepperell for terms of capitulation. These were so generous that they were instantly accepted, and Pepperell marched into the fortress at the head of his volunteers, Shirley following and receiving the keys of the fort.\*

The news of the capture of Louisbourg, with its vast military stores, caused great rejoicing throughout the colonies. Thousands of bonfires were kindled and bells set ringing, while the clergy declared that the interposition was a direct one, on the part of Heaven, in their favor. England was delighted at the victory; while France, on the contrary, was so humiliated that, for a time, she could scarcely credit the astounding news. Then she roused herself to strike a crushing blow in return. She determined not only to recover the lost fortress, but to desolate the English settlements from Maine to Florida. For this purpose, an immense and fully equipped fleet was sent to Cape Breton, under command of the Duke d'Anville. A great storm, however, dispersed and wrecked several of the vessels, and hundreds of men died from disease. Before the question of attack was settled, the commander himself died so suddenly that many believed he had committed suicide. His successor was so mortified at the miscar-

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\* This remarkable and spirited enterprise, on the part of the New England colonists, has hardly received at the hands of historians the meed of honor which it so richly deserves. Undesignedly, perhaps, the glory of the first expedition against the great French stronghold has been eclipsed by that of the second, probably, for the reason that the siege and capture of Louisbourg by Boscawen and Wolfe, thirteen years later, was more decisive in its results. This fact in no way, however, detracts from the importance of the achievement under Shirley and Pepperell, in bringing about the capitulation, by a force of 4,000 raw and inexperienced New England militia, aided by the British West Indian fleet, of so impregnable a fortress, garrisoned by nearly 23,000 French soldiery, including 750 veterans of the empire, and supported by a large force of marines and seamen, which manned the French shipping in the harbor. Well might the historian Smollett designate the capture of Louisbourg “the most important achievement of the war of 1745.” To-day desolation marks the site of the once formidable stronghold. “If you ever visit Louisbourg,” says a local writer, “you will observe a patch of greensward on Point Rochfort—the site of the old burying-ground. Beneath it lie the ashes of hundreds of brave New Englanders. No monument marks the sacred spot; but the waves of the restless ocean, in calm or storm, sing an everlasting requiem over the graves of the departed heroes.”

riage of the design that he killed himself. Again the New Englanders saw the arm of God stretched forth in their behalf, and fervent thanks, therefore, went up from every corner of the land.

In the course of the following year, there were omens of peace which caused a lull in military operations. In October, 1748, the treaty signed at Aix-la-Chapelle (*aiks'-lah-sha-pell'*) brought King George's war to an end; but the termination was anything but satisfactory to the New Englanders, for the terms required the restoration of all property and territory that had been captured. Thus Cape Breton and the fortress of Louisbourg passed once more into the possession of France, and the valor of the colonial troops was deprived of all reward.

The action of England following upon the victory sowed the seeds of discontent, which bore their fruitage a quarter of a century later. Every penny of the prize-money, amounting to three million dollars, was distributed among Commodore Warren's fleet, and when the troops were disbanded at Louisbourg, Governor Shirley had to send the funds to bring them home. The colonies demanded payment from the mother country for the heavy expenses to which they had been subjected, and England reluctantly gave them a million dollars.

The reader has now been apprised of the principal events in the history of the New England colonies down to the middle of the eighteenth century. It may be said that Massachusetts for a time was New England, as Virginia was the South. Through trial, hardship, famine, suffering, and war, the sturdy Puritan province of Massachusetts and the Independent settlement—the first in New England—of Plymouth steadily advanced in population, wealth, and prosperity. The weak colonies of Maine and New Hampshire were taken under her protection; while she sent emigrants (sometimes forcibly) to build up the adjoining provinces. Massachusetts had become a great and powerful commonwealth, whose advancement in commerce, in trade, in war, and in thought and education, led her, like a young giant, to feel and know her own strength.

When every town, and almost every village and hamlet, in our country has now one or more newspapers, in which the news from the four quarters of the globe is given, it is interesting to learn something about the first journals published in the early colonies that now in part compose the United States. The pioneer in this enterprise was *Public Occurrences, both Foreign and Domestic*, which

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Treaty of Peace signed at Aix-la-Chapelle, 1748

The First Newspapers Published in This Country

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TO  
1758

was issued in Boston as long ago as September, 1690. Benjamin Harris was the publisher, and only a single number appeared, because the royal authorities refused to license it. It was, therefore, of no importance, and hence *The Boston News-Letter* is generally credited with being the pioneer American newspaper. It first appeared in April, 1704, with John Campbell as publisher.

The second newspaper was *The Gazette*, of Boston. William Brooker was the publisher, and the first issue was in December, 1719. On the succeeding day, Andrew Bradford published in Philadelphia the first number of *The American Weekly Mercury*. James Franklin, of Boston, the elder brother of the famous philosopher, Benjamin Franklin, began the publication of *The New England Courant*, in August, 1721.

The pioneer paper in the city of New York was *The New York Gazette*, first issued by William Bradford, October 23rd, 1725. *The Daily Advertiser*, published in Philadelphia in 1785, was the first daily journal. All these papers were small affairs, with little news, and such as related to Europe was two or three months old.

Found-  
ing of  
Yale  
College,  
1702

It was in the year 1700 that ten ministers came together in a house in the village of Branford, near New Haven. They met by appointment, and each carried several volumes, which were laid on a table in the middle of the room. They were intended as a donation for founding a college, which was opened at Saybrook, in 1702. Fifteen years later, the institution was removed to New Haven. Its most liberal patron, during its infancy, was Elihu Yale, in whose honor this celebrated college was named.

Prosper-  
ity of  
Connec-  
ticut and  
Rhode  
Island

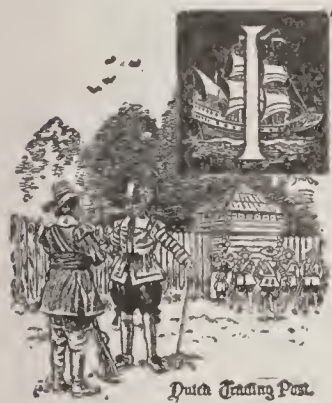
Connecticut enjoyed great prosperity during the first half of the eighteenth century. She was not plagued by war, was more liberal in sentiment than Massachusetts, and her people were enterprising and industrious. Rhode Island, as will be recalled, included the colony of Rhode Island and the Providence Plantations, which were refused admission to the New England League in 1643. To prevent the settlements being placed under the jurisdiction of Plymouth, Roger Williams went to England in 1654, and secured a confirmation of the charter. Charles II. became king in 1660, and the Rhode Islanders, with much fear and trembling, asked him to renew the charter granted by his predecessor. To their delight he did so, in 1662, and the colony lived under the provisions of this charter for sixty years after the close of the Revolutionary War.



## CHAPTER XVII

### *THE COLONIAL HISTORY OF NEW JERSEY*

[*Authorities:* Prior to 1664, the history of what is now New Jersey must be sought in the works that deal with the New Netherlands and the Middle Colonies, chiefly under Dutch and English administration. Subsequent to the above period, and while a royal colony, New Jersey annals are related specially in such works as Mulford's history, and, incidentally, in all the general authorities. See, also, such works as deal with the Quaker brotherhood, or Society of Friends. Among the contemporary accounts that recite the doings of the latter sect, Sewell's "History of the Quakers" should be consulted.]



*Dutch Trading Post.*

It should not be forgotten that the present State of New Jersey was at first a part of New Netherland. At about the time that the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth, some Dutch traders wandered across the North River into New Jersey and established a post near Bergen. It cannot, however, be considered a settlement. The Hollanders as a people are not very alert in their movements. They did not try to found colonies in America until long after rival nations had done so, and even then they showed no haste in founding homes on the western side of the Hudson.

In 1623, a French sea-captain tried to set up the arms of his country on the Delaware, whereupon Captain Cornelius Jacobsen May, the first director in America of the Dutch West India Company, built Fort Nassau, at the mouth of Timber Creek, a few miles below Camden, and induced several families of Walloons to locate near-by. Cape May, the well-known summer resort of New Jersey, was named in compliment to Captain May. The Walloons settled where Gloucester now stands. After a long time, the settlement—the oldest in the State—died, to spring into life many years afterwards and grow into a flourishing town. There were scattered dwellings here and

**First  
Settle-  
ment in  
New  
Jersey,  
1623**

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 TION AND  
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 1758

Grant to  
 Lord  
 Berkeley  
 and Sir  
 George  
 Carteret,  
 1664

there, but no lasting settlement was made in New Jersey until the latter half of the seventeenth century.

All of New Netherland lying between the Hudson and Delaware, to forty degrees and forty-one minutes north, having been granted by Charles II. to his brother, the Duke of York, was assigned by him, in 1664, to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret, proprietors of Carolina. The province was named New Cæsarea, or New Jersey, in compliment to Carteret's brave defence of the island of Jersey, in 1649, against the soldiers of Cromwell. Berkeley was a brother of the tyrannical governor of Virginia, and had been the instructor of the Duke of York in his youth, while Carteret was the treasurer of the Admiralty.

Berkeley and Carteret drew up a liberal constitution for the new province, which provided for a governor and council, named by the proprietors, and by representatives chosen by the people, who were to meet annually, and with the governor and council formed a general assembly for the local government. With a view to encourage immigration, one hundred and fifty acres of land were promised to every freeman and able-bodied man-servant who came to the province at the same time with the first governor, and each of whom was provided with a good musket, and provisions for six months. A similar present was given to every person sending such servants, and half the grant-area of land to any one sending a weaker servant or slave, of either sex, over fourteen years of age. To those who did not go with the governor, but settled in the province previous to 1665, one hundred and twenty acres of land were promised on like conditions. Captain Philip Carteret, a cousin of Sir George, was appointed governor of the new province, and arrived in June, 1664, with about thirty immigrants. He was cordially welcomed by Governor Nicolls at New York, who, however, was amazed that the Duke of York should have parted with what the governor considered the most valuable part of his domain. Governor Carteret's entrance into his province was made in picturesque fashion. It was the month of August, and he carried a hoe over his shoulder, in proof that he intended to become a planter among his people, who followed in his lead. He selected a spot not far inland, which he named Elizabeth-town, in honor of Lady Elizabeth, the wife of Sir George Carteret. When thus christened it consisted of four log-cabins, and was long the capital of the province. Some years since it was united to

Arrival  
 of Gov-  
 ernor  
 Carteret,  
 1665



FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY F. C. MARTIN

GOVERNOR CARTERET'S ARRIVAL

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 TION AND  
 SETTLE-  
 MENT  
 1602  
 TO  
 1758

Elizabeth, giving up its distinctive name at the time the union took place.

A number of settlers from Milford, Connecticut, purchased the site of Newark from the Indians in 1666. They were soon joined by other immigrants, who named the settlement Newark, in compliment to their first pastor, Abraham Pierson, whose home in England had the same name. Agents were sent to England to further immigration. There was much to favor the prosperity of New Jersey. Its government was liberal, its ruler popular, and (unlike nearly every other colony) it had no trouble with the Indians.

The  
 First  
 Legisla-  
 tive As-  
 sembly

Among the settlers attracted to the province were a number from New Haven, who made their homes on the banks of the Passaic. Others also came in, and New Jersey was fairly started on its prosperous career, when, in 1668, the first legislative assembly met at Elizabethtown. All went well for two years, and then came the first disturbance. In 1670, the quit-rents of a halfpenny for each acre of land fell due, and payment was demanded. The people were indignant. Many had bought their land of the Indians, before the arrival of Carteret, and they complained, not that the demand was oppressive, but that it was unjust. The settlers who had not this excuse united with those who had, and for two years the payment of rents was refused, and the province turned topsy-turvy. A meeting of the representatives of the discontented people was held at Elizabethtown in May, 1672. That body compelled Philip Carteret to give up his governorship and leave the province, and chose James Carteret, a dissolute son of one of the proprietors, in his place. Meanwhile, Philip, the rightful governor, having appointed a deputy, sailed for England to lay his case before the proprietors. While the latter were making preparations to bring the province back to its allegiance, the Dutch recaptured New Netherland (August, 1673), and a year and a quarter passed before it was re-ceded to England. Then the Duke of York received a new charter from the king and named Edmund Andros governor of the whole domain.

It took James Carteret but a short time to prove his worthlessness. The disgusted people turned him out of office, and acknowledged Captain Berry, Philip's deputy, as governor. James Carteret went to Virginia, from which colony he returned some years later to New Jersey, and wandered about the country like an abject vagrant or beggar. Philip Carteret resumed the governorship in 1675 under



Andros, and by his course made himself more popular than before. The collection of quit-rents was postponed indefinitely; the government was made fully representative; liberty of conscience was guaranteed; and all once more became prosperous.

Lord Berkeley, however, lost patience because of the annoyances and losses he continually suffered, and he now sold his interest in New Jersey to John Fenwick and Edward Byllinge, two English Quakers, for five thousand dollars. Fenwick, with a number of immigrants, mostly of his sect, sailed for this country, and began a settlement on the Delaware, which they named Salem. Carteret retained the eastern part of New Jersey, and the Quakers the western part. The division of the province into East and West Jersey was made July 1, 1676, and the distinction is still to some extent preserved in the State. The people of West Jersey were given a liberal constitution, March 13, 1677, and several hundred Quakers soon settled below the Raritan. Andros demanded that they should acknowledge the authority of the Duke of York, but this they refused. The dispute was referred to Sir William Jones, who decided in favor of the Quakers. Andros thereupon gave up both provinces.

The early ownership of New Jersey now became so involved that one has to study it carefully to gain a clear idea of its colonial history. Byllinge, the principal proprietor, soon after Fenwick went to America, became bankrupt, and assigned his interest in New Jersey to William Penn and others, to be sold for the benefit of his creditors. This was done, and the division, as already stated, was made July 1, 1676.

The first popular assembly in West Jersey convened at Salem in November, 1681, and, being Quakers, gave the people a liberal code of laws. One of these was that in all criminal cases, except murder, treason, and theft, the aggrieved person had the right, if he wished, to pardon the offender.

Carteret died in 1679, and his trustees offered East Jersey for sale. The purchasers were William Penn and eleven of his associates. A new charter was obtained, February, 1682, and in the following July, Robert Barclay, an eminent Quaker preacher, and one of the best of men, was appointed governor for life. An extensive immigration of persons of his sect followed from England and Scotland, as well as from New England. Barclay ruled with wisdom until his death in 1690. When the Duke of York became king, the kindness which

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1602  
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1758

Sale of New Jersey to Quakers, 1675

First Popular Assembly in West Jersey, 1681

PERIOD II

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TION AND  
SETTLE-  
MENT  
1602  
TO  
1758

East and  
West  
Jersey  
United,  
1702

A Royal  
Governor

he had shown towards his American provinces was changed to an impolitic severity.

The expulsion of Andros from the colonies took place in 1689, and for a dozen years New Jersey got on without any regular form of government. Finally, the confusion and the losses so disgusted the proprietors that they made the proposition to surrender their rights of civil jurisdiction to the crown, retaining only the simple ownership of the land. This offer was accepted and carried out in 1702, when East and West Jersey were united as a royal province.

Queen Anne at that time was the ruler of England. She appointed her uncle, Sir Edward Hyde (Lord Cornbury), governor of the province. We have learned in another place something about this rogue, who had the audacity as well as the bad taste to appear in public dressed in women's clothing. There was no degrading vice of which a man is capable that did not attach to him, and he gloried in his shame. No more striking example of the impolicy of English modes of appointment, or crown nominations to office, can be adduced than that of Sir Edward Hyde, who was governor of New York as well as of New Jersey. His word was the supreme law of the land. No matter to what length he carried his shameless crimes and misrule, no one in America could interfere with him. The most that the citizens could do, in the way of making and executing the laws, was humbly to recommend certain measures to their governor. Liberty of conscience was refused to the Roman Catholics, who were treated with the utmost harshness. What favors the knave had to bestow went to the members of the Church of England, for he was, professedly at least, a staunch churchman. At this late day, it is hard to understand how the freemen of New Jersey submitted so long to the misrule of such a governor. Printing in the province was permitted only by royal license, and the slave-trade, because it was profitable, was encouraged. The condition of the people themselves was little better than that of slavery. Hyde ruled New York and New Jersey for seven years, during which he stole public money, and made so execrable a governor that the Queen, in 1708, was compelled to recall him. It has been said that he was cast into prison for debt, where he was compelled to stay until the death of his father made him Lord Cornbury. Even to this day no member of the House of Lords can be arrested for debt, and this extraordinary type of a ruler therefore went free of arrest.

It must be remembered that, although New Jersey was a dependency of New York and was ruled by the same governor, she had her own legislative assembly. This state of affairs continued until 1738, when Lewis Morris, her chief-justice, put forth his influence to secure its full independence of New York. His efforts were successful, for, in the year named, New Jersey became a separate royal province, with its own governor, as well as house of assembly. Chief-

PERIOD II  
COLONIZATION AND SETTLEMENT  
1602  
TO  
1758

New Jersey made Independent of New York, 1738



A MASQUERADING GOVERNOR

Justice Morris was the first governor after the province was detached from New York, and made a wise and excellent ruler. From that time down to the Revolution, the history of New Jersey was uneventful. Her last royal governor was William Franklin, a son of the famous Benjamin Franklin. He was appointed in 1763, and was so strong and bitter a Tory that the Continental Congress removed him from office, in the summer of 1776. He then proceeded to England, where he died in 1813.

The Last Crown Governor of New Jersey, 1763-1776



## CHAPTER XVIII

### *THE COLONIAL HISTORY OF MARYLAND*

[*Authorities* : Maryland's history, for over the long period of a hundred years, was, on the whole, an auspicious and untroubled one, thanks to the astuteness and large-mindedness of its first founder, Lord Baltimore, and the successors of his family who were its lords-proprietor. The colony, happily, had few Indian troubles to interfere with its peace ; while the policy of religious toleration, which made it the asylum of Protestant and Catholic alike, attracted many to its hospitable shores, and made prosperous its path, save for the brief period of strife with Clayborne and his Virginian following, and, later on, with Coode and his fanatical allies. Even through the period of civil war in England, its history was in the main untroubled. The chief authorities are the contemporary works : Baltimore's "Relation of Maryland," and Alsop's "Province of Maryland," together with Lodge's "English Colonies," the general histories of the United States, and, especially, Browne's "Maryland," in the American Commonwealth Series. Attention is also directed to the comprehensive work, edited by members of Johns Hopkins University, and published in 1893 by the State, entitled "Maryland : Its Resources, Industries and Institutions."]



**S**IR GEORGE CALVERT was a courtier at the court of the English King James I., who knighted him in 1617, and two years later commissioned him one of his chief secretaries of state. Calvert was a brilliant young man, a favorite of the monarch, and much interested in the settlement of foreign countries, as was shown by his membership, not only of the East India Company, but of the London Company which colonized Virginia. Some time later, Calvert became a Roman Catholic, and, in consequence, was obliged to resign his secretaryship in 1624. The following year the King made him an Irish peer, creating him Baron of Baltimore, in the County of Longford. This took place only a few weeks before the death of King James.

The  
First  
Lord  
Balti-  
more

The Catholics of England suffered much persecution at that

period, and Lord Baltimore's heart was moved to seek a refuge in some other country for those of his own faith. He had made an attempt to plant a colony in Newfoundland, but the rigor of the climate and the barrenness of the soil caused him to abandon his purpose, and he obtained a patent from Charles I., for a domain south of the James River. The Virginia settlers, however, protested so strongly that he surrendered the new charter, and accepted another, which gave him a district which he named Maryland, in honor of Henrietta Maria, the consort of Charles. It included the present State of Maryland, Delaware, and a part of New Jersey and Pennsylvania. Before the royal seal was attached to the patent, Lord Baltimore died, and his son Cecil succeeded to his title and estates. The latter was in sympathy with his father's plans, and received the patent, which was dated June 20th, 1632.

PERIOD II  
COLONIZATION AND SETTLEMENT  
1602  
TO  
1758

The Grant of Maryland

The constitution issuing out of the terms of this patent was the most remarkable of any hitherto granted to an English colony. No settlers had ever received so great and democratic privileges. The Lords Baltimore were left free to govern the province as they chose, without accounting to their sovereign. For the first time, a share in legislation was secured to the citizen. Not only were full political rights guaranteed to the settlers, but there was no discrimination in favor of or against any religious sect. This provision was liberal, just and wise in a worldly sense; for many of those whom the Puritans of New England persecuted, and the churchmen of Virginia harried, found rest and full freedom of conscience in Maryland. Thither, therefore, many of them went, almost as soon as the colony was established.

A Liberal Constitution

Cecil Calvert appointed Leonard, his half-brother, governor, and about three hundred servants and laborers, and twenty "gentlemen" sailed with him from Cowes, in the Isle of Wight, November 22d, 1633. Their vessel was named *The Ark*, and was accompanied by a pinnace named *The Dove*. After an unusually stormy voyage, during which the two vessels were separated for a long time, Point Comfort was sighted, February 24th, 1634. The immigrants sailed up the James to Jamestown, where they were received by Governor Harvey. The Virginians felt anything but pleased at the grant to Lord Baltimore, as it infringed, as they thought, upon their own domain; but the credentials of the nobleman could not be questioned, besides which he and Governor Harvey were personal friends. The

Arrival at Point Comfort, 1634

PERIOD II  
 COLONIZA-  
 TION AND  
 SETTLE-  
 MENT  
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 TO  
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visitors remained for more than a week at Jamestown, where they were entertained with great hospitality. Then they sailed for the Chesapeake, and entered the mouth of the Potomac. All were charmed with the scenery. It was early spring, and the wooded shores were agleam with bursting bud and blossom; the soft winds were laden with the fragrance of flowers; and the balmy skies seemed never to have been fretted by storm. Here and there the little



LANDING OF CALVERT AND THE MARYLAND COLONISTS

Indian canoes skimmed like swallows across the broad stream, or darted about among the cool shadows of the shore; while at night the camp-fires blazed amid the trees and threw their glow far out on the placid river.

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On March 25th, the immigrants went ashore on a small island, some thirty miles above the mouth of the Potomac. Solemn religious ceremonies took place, including the administration of the Lord's Supper, and Governor Calvert led the procession to an elevation, where they all kneeled around a large cross fashioned from a tree, and the Roman Catholics recited the "Litanies of the Sacred

Cross." The Indians, grouped around, looked upon the strange scene with awe and wonderment. If the red men felt any misgivings regarding their visitors, these were soon removed by the course pursued by Calvert. He paid a visit to the chief, and treated him with great consideration. He then agreed upon a treaty of peace with him, and secured his aid in quieting the fears of the neighboring tribes. An English trader was met at Piscataway, who had lived a number of years among the Indians, and he gave much help in winning their good-will towards the white men.

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The settlers moved down the stream to the mouth of a river which they named the St. George. The expansion at the entrance was called St. Mary's, a name now applied to the whole river. Disembarking, the colonists advanced a mile or more inland, to the spot where they decided to make their settlement. The situation could not have been better chosen. Cool springs were numerous, the river bank was elevated, the climate healthful, and a charming valley lay within a half-mile of the stream.

Calvert had the authority of his sovereign to take the land without asking permission of the Indians, but he entertained no thought of so unjust a course. His first act was to admit their ownership by buying about thirty miles of territory, including the native village, for which he paid so many trinkets and agricultural implements that the red men must have felt that they had the best of the bargain. The Indians gave up one-half of their village to the use of the colonists, and agreed to let them have a moiety of their crops until such time as they could plant for themselves. They lived side by side for months, like a band of brothers. They hunted together, slept in the same wigwams, and taught each other many useful things. The Indians showed the white men how to make the delicious "pone" bread; how best to cultivate maize, and the most successful manner of hunting wild game; while the English housewives gave the squaws valuable lessons in cookery. The red men were not wholly unselfish in this, for they held the powerful Susquehanna tribe in the north in much dread, but knew that with the help of the settlers they were invincible against them.

Settlement of Maryland, 1634

As they had agreed to do, the Indians moved out of their village at the end of harvest time, and turned it over to their pale-faced brothers. Maryland was the only colony that furnished not merely the land, but the dwelling-houses for the colonists who first settled

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upon the soil. Formal possession of the territory was taken by Calvert, March 27th, 1634.

It is impossible to imagine conditions more favorable for settlement than those of Maryland. The Indians, as we have said, were friendly; the climate was healthful; the soil fertile; the people industrious; and the form of government of the most liberal character. A year after the settlement of St. Mary's, as the new town was named, a legislative assembly met there, composed of all the freemen. Increasing immigration made this method too unwieldy, so, in 1639, a representative government was established.

The Maryland settlers, as has been shown, were treated hospitably at Jamestown, but, for all that, the Virginians were resentful, since they looked upon the incoming of the colonists as an intrusion upon their domain, and it was from that quarter the first trouble came. There was a member of the Virginia council, by the name of William Clayborne, who had received from the governor of the province authority to explore the waters of Chesapeake Bay beyond the 34th degree of north latitude. In 1631, Clayborne obtained royal permission to press discoveries in that region, and to open a trade with the natives. He established a trading-post on Kent Island, in the Chesapeake, near Annapolis, and insisted that this post should be exempt from the jurisdiction of Maryland, because his grant was older. The Virginia Assembly favored his view, but Calvert ordered Clayborne to take the oath of allegiance, or leave the province. He refused to do either, and sent an armed vessel into the Chesapeake to protect his interests.

Calvert was on the watch, and the vessel, after a skirmish, was captured, but Clayborne hurried across the Virginia line, and strove to incite the Indians against the Marylanders, saying that they were Spaniards, who only awaited a favorable time to massacre them. The Maryland legislature, in 1638, passed a bill depriving Clayborne of his civil rights and his property within its jurisdiction. Clayborne appealed to the king, who decided against him, and for several years he made no more trouble. The result of Clayborne's tampering with the Indians appeared when the Susquehannas began a series of attacks on the outlying settlements. The militia was organized, and sent against them in 1642; but after two years of warfare, a treaty of peace was signed, and hostilities ceased.

We have referred to the liberal constitution of Maryland as framed



by the Roman Catholics. Its liberality was shown, not merely in the instrument itself, but in the fact that a number of the members of the assembly were Protestants. Lord Baltimore was worldly wise, and during the bitter religious strife in England, sought to keep on good terms with the Parliament, which there was reason to fear would soon triumph over the king. The outlook was so threatening that, in 1643, the governor sailed for England to consult his brother, and while he was gone he left Giles Brent as his deputy.

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CAPTURE OF CLAYBORNE'S VESSEL

About the same time, King Charles, at Oxford, authorized Lord Baltimore to take possession of any ships from London owned by the Parliamentary, or Cromwellian, party. Such a vessel was seized, some months later, at St. Mary's, and Richard Ingle, its commander, fled to England. The incident stirred up bad feeling in Maryland and Virginia, and intensified the anger between the Catholics and Protestants. Clayborne, who was life-treasurer of Virginia, used the opportunity to revenge himself upon Lord Baltimore. He found little trouble in inciting the Parliamentary faction in the Maryland

Insurrec-  
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Faction,  
1644

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legislature to rebellion, and, having done so, took possession again of his little settlement on Kent Island. Upon Calvert's return, in 1644, he found matters topsy-turvy. Richard Ingle soon arrived with authority from Parliament to make reprisals upon the property of the royalists. Both Ingle and Clayborne made common cause, and were so powerful that Calvert was driven from the colony, and Edward Hill, a Virginian, was put in his place. He was so obedient to Ingle and Clayborne, and so oppressive to the colonists, that most of those, even of his own faith, fell away from him.

Calvert meanwhile was not idle. Driven into Virginia, he kept in touch with his adherents across the line, and spent the winter in gathering a small force, with which he crossed the border and recaptured St. Mary's. Calvert resumed the governorship in August, 1646. Clayborne fled from Kent Island, while Ingle was now safe in England. Peace once more came to the sorely plagued province, and Leonard Calvert, dying in June, 1647, appointed Thomas Green his successor. Green, who was a Roman Catholic, was displaced by Lord Baltimore, who commissioned William Stone his successor. He was a Virginian, a Protestant, and a strong supporter of Parliament. He proved to be a wise ruler, and through his influence many Virginia Puritans settled in Maryland.

Passage  
of the  
Tolera-  
tion Act,  
1649

The assembly, which met in 1649, was composed of Puritans, Churchmen, and Roman Catholics. It passed the Toleration Act, which allowed free exercise of the religious opinions to every one who believed in Jesus Christ and the Trinity. Since Unitarians and Jews were excluded, this Toleration Act is not entitled to all the credit that has often been given to it.

Although Lord Baltimore professed to be an adherent of republicanism, he had been too devoted a friend of the beheaded king for Parliament entirely to trust him. That body appointed a commission, of which Clayborne was a member, to govern Maryland. The members arrived in 1652, took Governor Stone's commission from him, but reinstated him some months later, he being permitted to reserve to himself his oath to Lord Baltimore as proprietor of the province till "the pleasure of the State of England be further known." At the same time, Kent and Palmer's Islands were restored to Clayborne, who in this gained a decisive victory over his old enemy.

Lord Baltimore, in August, 1652, petitioned Parliament for re-

dress. He reminded that body that while Virginia had clung to King Charles, Maryland, like New England, had not declared against the Parliament. In 1653, upon the dissolution of the "Long Parliament," Cromwell restored all of Baltimore's rights as proprietor. Governor Stone was imprudent enough to adopt rigorous measures against the late disturbers of the peace, Clayborne being among those whom he refused to pardon. The incensed commissioners immediately removed Stone and the Catholic officers, and vested the government in a board of ten commissioners.

The assembly, which convened in 1654, contained a majority of Protestants, whose anger against their co-religionists was so kindled that they passed an act depriving the Roman Catholics and members of the Church of England of the right to vote. Lord Baltimore, who was then in London, upon learning what had been done, sought and obtained an audience with Cromwell. The interview was courteous on both sides, and that remarkable man, known as the Protector, under the Commonwealth, commanded the commissioners to let religious matters alone, and concern themselves only with those pertaining to civil government. Lord Baltimore was so encouraged that he sent orders to Stone to raise and enrol a force to assert his authority. The deposed governor was only too glad to do so. He gathered a large number of followers, mostly Roman Catholics, seized the colonial records, and kindled anew the flames of civil war. Several conflicts took place, and in an engagement, in April, 1655, near the site of Annapolis, Stone met with a severe repulse, and was made prisoner. Four of his associates were hanged, but the governor's life was spared.

Civil war continued to rage, and Cromwell was continually pestered with the petitions of the rival claimants. At last, in November, 1657, a settlement was reached by the representatives in England, and was confirmed, in March following, by the contestants in Maryland. This agreement guaranteed amnesty for all past offences; full liberty of conscience; the submission of the Puritans to the authority of Lord Baltimore as proprietor; land warrants were to be granted, and the actions of previous assemblies were to be held legal, without regard to past political disturbances.

When Cromwell died, the Marylanders dissolved the proprietary part of the general assembly, and, in the spring of 1660, elected their governor, and assumed the entire legislative control of the State. A

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Repeal  
of the  
Tolera-  
tion Act,  
1654

Local  
Distur-  
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more's  
Rights,  
1660

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 1602  
 TO  
 1758

George  
 Fox in  
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few months later, Charles II. ascended the English throne, and restored to Lord Baltimore his full proprietary rights. He proclaimed pardon for all political offences, and the peace and prosperity which followed remained undisturbed for thirty years.

An interesting occurrence during this tranquil period was the arrival of George Fox, the founder of the sect of Friends or Quakers. In the assemblage which gathered on the shores of the Chesapeake to listen to his preaching were members of the legislature, the leading men of the province, Indian sachems and their families, with their great chief at their head.

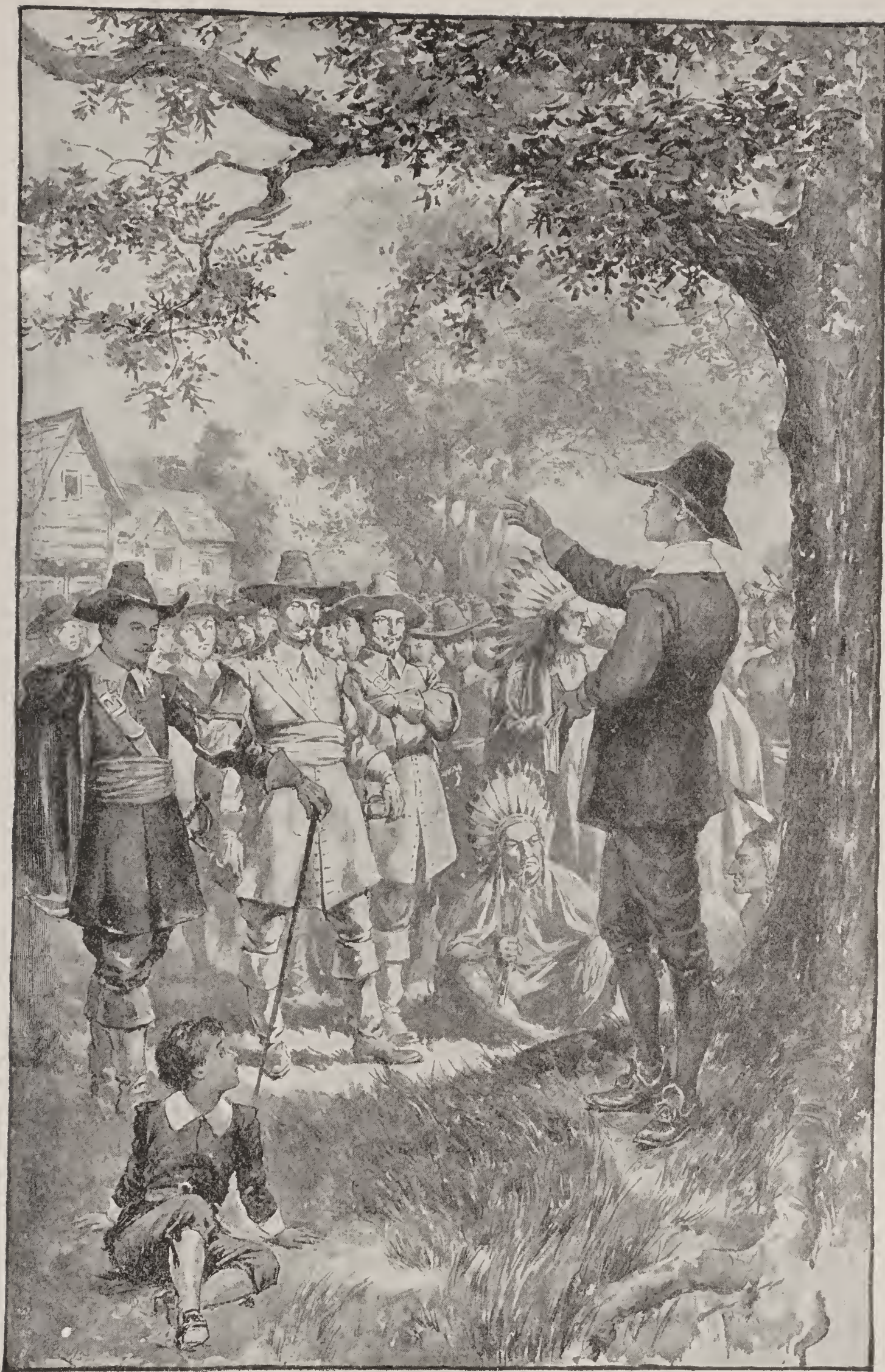
Lord Baltimore, after seeing his colony emerge from its early stormy years, and increase in number till it reached a population of ten thousand, died in 1675, and was succeeded by his son, Charles. The right of suffrage was established by the general assembly of 1678, while he was absent in England. Returning three years later, he, however, set aside the act, and permitted no one to vote who did not own fifty acres of land, or property to the value of forty pounds. This caused so much dissatisfaction that the mutterings of rebellion were again heard, and the king issued an order that all the offices in Maryland should be filled exclusively by Protestants.

A Crisis  
 in Af-  
 fairs,  
 1684

Lord Baltimore visited England in 1684, where he found his rights in peril. He had hardly set about protecting them, when James II. was driven from the throne, and William and Mary ascended it. Baltimore bowed to the change, and sent orders to his deputies to proclaim the new monarchs. A delay in sending out these orders caused distrust in the province. A marplot, named

Rule of  
 Coode,  
 1689-  
 1692

Coode, alarmed the people by the cry that the Roman Catholics had joined the Indians in a plot to massacre all the Protestants. The latter flew to arms, and, under the leadership of Coode, took possession of St. Mary's, and assumed the government in May, 1689. With an account of their action, they sent a series of false accusations to the king regarding Lord Baltimore, and begged him to make the province a royal one under the protection of the crown. The request was granted, and Coode was made governor. His rule was so bad that he was displaced in 1692, and Sir Lionel Copley was appointed his successor. Under his rule, religious toleration was abolished, and the Church of England became the State church, supported by the taxation of the people. Other oppressive laws were passed, and the seat of government was moved, in 1694, to the town



FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY WARREN B. DAVIS

GEORGE FOX'S NOTABLE AUDIENCE

## PERIOD II

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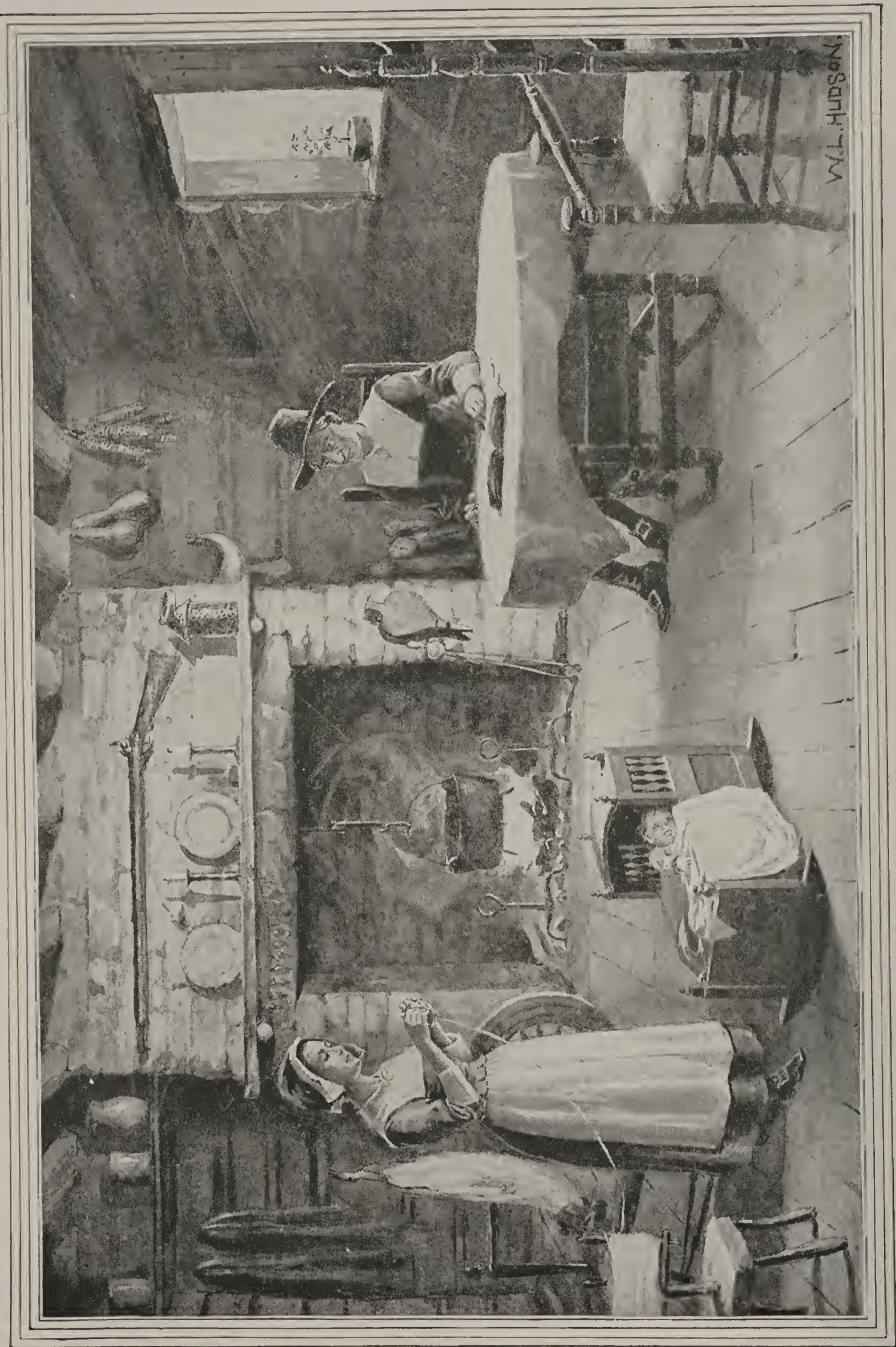
of Anne Arundel, the name of which was changed in the following year to Annapolis, which has remained the capital ever since.

The proprietary rights of Lord Baltimore were never restored to him. His son, Benedict Leonard Calvert, who was educated a Protestant, received them back in 1715. Years of prosperity followed, under Charles Calvert, fifth Lord Baltimore, during which the population increased to nearly one hundred and fifty thousand. The proprietary rights of the province remained in the family of Lord Baltimore until the Revolution. The last royal governor was John Hart, who ruled as deputy for several years, and Frederick Calvert succeeded his father upon his death in 1751.\*

\* To the student of Maryland history, no little interest must centre in the Calvert family (the Lords Baltimore), which for nearly one hundred and fifty years (1632-1771) exercised Palatine powers over the colony, and gave it, on the whole, the blessings of a wise and beneficent rule. Though founded by a Roman Catholic, and its affairs administered through an exceedingly turbulent era in English history, by successive members of the original grantee's family, Maryland and its colonizers enjoyed a larger measure of peace and prosperity than fell to the lot of settlers in other regions on the coast. The annals of the colony, it is true, were checkered, first, as we have seen, by the unwillingness of William Clayborne, the Puritan trader of Virginia, to acknowledge Baltimore's rights in the territory assigned by James the First's grant; and, secondly, by the insurrection of John Coode, whose clerical zeal for the defence of Protestantism had been fired by the dethronement of James II. and the movements connected with the English Revolution of 1688. But these disturbances were due more to the lawlessness and fanaticism of the time than to any despotic acts or defects in the administration, since the proprietary governors, in founding the colony, had laid down rules for its government conceived in the most liberal, tolerant, and enlightened spirit.

The Lords Baltimore were seven in number, dating from the creation of the title, in 1625, to its extinction, in 1771, by the death of Frederick Calvert, the seventh baron, who left no legal heir. The first Baron Baltimore, George Calvert (1580-1632), was a statesman and privy councillor in James the First's reign, and one of the king's secretaries of state. In 1624, when the kingly champion of Episcopal authority in England was making truculent concessions to Roman Catholics, to advance the prospective marriage interests in Spain of his son, Prince Charles, which all came to naught, Sir George Calvert declared himself a convert to the Papacy, and resigned his offices in the state. In the following year, the king made him Baron Baltimore; and from that monarch's successor he obtained a grant of land in the New World, supplemental to that which had already been deeded him in Newfoundland, but which he had abandoned, in consequence of the rigor of the climate. As the patent was about to issue, Lord Baltimore died (in 1632), but the grant was made to his son, Cecil, who, in the following year, sent out his brother, Leonard, to found and govern the Maryland colony. We have seen what vicissitudes overtook the young settlement, but in spite of these it grew apace and prospered, enjoying, as we have shown, exceptional advantages under the long rule of its lords-proprietors. With the death (in 1771) of Frederick Calvert, seventh Lord Baltimore, the title became extinct; and shortly after this the colony passed from the hands of the historic family into those of the crown. The "monumental city," situate at the head of tide-water on the Patapsco River, which perpetuates the family name, was founded in 1729.





INTERIOR OF A NEW ENGLAND PIONEER'S HOME





## CHAPTER XIX

### THE COLONIAL HISTORY OF THE CAROLINAS

[*Authorities* : The reader will have learned something of the early history of the Carolinas from the account given in a previous chapter of Jean Ribaut's attempt at settlement at Port Royal, in the time of Charles X., of France. Nearly a hundred years, however, were to pass before any portion of the region was opened to practical settlement. In 1663, Charles II., of England, made a grant of the territory, and two years later enlarged the grant, to eight lords-proprietor, under whom and their successors the region was settled, until it passed, in 1729-31, into the hands of the Crown as two distinct royal provinces, named North and South Carolina. The chief incidents in the annals of the territory will be found set forth in the present chapter. These include the facts respecting the philosopher John Locke's impracticable constitution; the turbulent scenes connected with the misrule of successive governors; the expedition of South Carolina against St. Augustine, Florida, and the Spanish reprisals directed against Charleston; the troubles with the Tuscarora and other Indian tribes of the region; and the events preceding the separation of the two colonies. For further and more detailed accounts of the Carolinas, see Winsor's "Narrative and Critical History of America," Lodge's "English Colonies in America," Saunders's "Colonial Records," and Moore's "History of North Carolina," and Simms's "History of South Carolina."]



Settlement on the Caswan River.

**I**N the earlier portion of this work, the unsuccessful attempts to settle the Carolinas, prior to the planting of an English colony at Jamestown, have been touched upon. The fate of the "Lost Colony of Roanoke" will always remain one of the most pathetic incidents of our early history.

Early  
At-  
tempts  
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Several efforts were made by adventurers to find homes and wealth south of Virginia during the first quarter of the seventeenth century, and in 1630 a charter was obtained by Sir Robert Heath, the attorney-general of Charles I., which granted a stretch of territory, six degrees in width, and lying south of Virginia, but the charter was recalled because its conditions were not fulfilled by Heath.

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Charles  
II's  
Grant,  
1663

A settlement was made on the Chowan River, in 1653, by a number of Presbyterians from Jamestown. The location chosen was near the present site of Edenton, and there they were followed by others

who sought to escape the rude climate and harsh rule of New England. Thus the settlements attained considerable importance.

In March, 1663, Charles II. granted to the Earl of Clarendon, to the Duke of Albemarle, Lord Craven, Sir Anthony Ashley Cooper, Lord John Berkeley (brother of the then governor of Virginia), Sir George Carteret, and a number of other favorites, a domain extending from about the thirtieth to the thirty-sixth parallel of north latitude, with, as its western boundary, the South Sea, or Pacific Ocean. This body of water generally served to define the western limits of all the royal grants, for it was a long time before the



REGION OF N. C. SETTLEMENTS

people in the Old World learned that three thousand miles of land separated the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. In 1665, the charter was amended so as to include a half-degree more of territory to the north, and one degree additional to the south.

Founding of the  
Albemarle  
County  
Colony,  
1663

At the time this grant was made, the settlements on the Chowan had become so important that Governor Berkeley, of Virginia, was authorized to extend his jurisdiction over them. Instead of doing this, he organized a separate government, designated the Albemarle County Colony, and appointed William Drummond, a Presbyterian of Virginia, as governor. The administration was organized on a just and liberal basis. Joined with Drummond in the government of the colony

were six associates, who, with an assembly chosen by the people, administered the laws, subject to the approval of the proprietors.

Several years before these events, a company of New Englanders settled at the mouth of Cape Fear River; but, becoming discouraged, they soon abandoned the colony. In 1663, a number of colonizers from Barbadoes bought a tract of land, in the same neighborhood, thirty-two miles square, and began to found a settlement. Sir John Yeamans with several hundred immigrants landed at Cape Fear River in May, 1664, and made satisfactory terms with the people from Barbadoes. The domain, then governed by Yeamans, was named the Clarendon County Colony, and extended from Cape Fear to the St. John's River, in Florida. The soil was poor, but valuable pine lumber was on every hand, and the settlers turned their energies to the manufacture of boards, shingles, and staves, and the extracting and making of turpentine, for which they found a ready sale in the West Indies. The Albemarle County Colony and that of Clarendon County thrived, and became the foundation of the commonwealth of North Carolina.

Lord Ashley, afterwards the Earl of Shaftesbury, showed deep interest in these enterprises, and had more to do with the settlement and development of the Carolinas than all the rest of his associates. In 1670, the proprietors sent three ships with immigrants to settle in the more southern portions of the province. They were in charge of William Sayle and Joseph West, and landed at Beaufort Island, where Sayle died in the following year, and Sir John Yeamans succeeded him as governor. The settlement was abandoned soon after, and the immigrants located a few miles above where Charleston now stands, on a spot known as Old Town. This was changed in 1680 to the present site of Charleston. Its organization was under the title of the Carteret County Colony, and representative government was established in 1672. Yeaman's management was so poor that he was removed in 1674, and Joseph West appointed his successor. His wise and energetic rule added greatly to the prosperity of the colony.

An absurd ambition of the Carolina proprietors was to establish a great empire in the province. Sir Ashley Cooper, and the famous philosopher, John Locke, undertook to frame a constitution and perfect a scheme suitable to the grand ideas of them and their associates. They completed their work in 1669. The "Grand Model," as it was called, cannot be considered at this era without a smile. First, it divided the immense territory into counties, each contain-

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The Colonies of Albemarle and Clarendon Counties

The Grand Model, 1669

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 TION AND  
 SETTLE-  
 MENT  
 1602  
 TO  
 1758

The  
 Albe-  
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ing four hundred and eighty thousand acres. The lands were partitioned into five equal parts, one of which belonged to the proprietors, one to each of two orders of nobility—landgraves and earls, and caciques or barons—one of the former and two of the latter being assigned to each county; while the remaining three-fifths were the property of “the people.” When this absurd scheme, designed to establish titles and aristocratic distinctions in America, was submitted to the citizens of the Carolinas, they rejected it so overwhelmingly that it was never afterwards referred to except with ridicule.

Matters went amiss with the Albemarle Colony. Governor Stephens died in 1674, and Carteret, who was chosen to fill his place until the arrival of instructions from the proprietors, showed so little interest in affairs that he soon left for England. To end the confusion, and allay the belief that the proprietors intended to turn the colony over to Governor Berkeley, of Virginia, the speaker of the assembly, Thomas Eastchurch, was sent in 1676 to explain matters to the proprietors, and secure the appointment of a competent governor. Eastchurch thought his mission well accomplished when he obtained the necessary instructions, and his own commission as governor.

Thomas Miller, who was believed to be plotting against the colony, and was, therefore, regarded with extreme disfavor, had visited England and obtained an appointment as Lord Shaftesbury’s deputy in Carolina. Eastchurch and Miller sailed for America in the same ship, but while halting at the West Indies Eastchurch was so filled with admiration for a young lady whom he met, that he stayed behind to woo her, while Miller went forward as his deputy. He arrived at Albemarle in July, 1677, and became the acting governor. Miller found some of the people disposed to be law-abiding, but many were reckless adventurers and vagrants. The main industry of the community was the trade with New England, and nearly all thus engaged used every effort to escape the payment of the English customs-dues. In his vigorous efforts to abolish smuggling, Miller caused an uprising, which resulted in the imprisonment of himself and his deputies, and the calling of a new assembly, which took the government in its own hands.

Turbu-  
 lent  
 Times

Thus matters stood, when Governor Eastchurch and his bride arrived from the West Indies. Being powerless, he appealed to Governor Berkeley, of Virginia, for aid in recovering his rights; but before any steps to that end were taken, Eastchurch died. An ap-

peal was then made to the proprietors, who appointed Seth Sothell governor. Sothell sailed for the Carolinas, but on his way was captured by the Turks and taken to Algiers. Learning of his misfortunes, John Harvey was assigned the task of ruling the colony until Sothell should put in an appearance. Harvey made so poor a ruler that John Jenkins took his place in the summer of 1680. His rule lasted only until the following February, when Henry Wilkinson

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 1602  
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 1758



THE UPRISING—MILLER IN PRISON

became governor. In 1683, Sothell, having escaped from the Turks, arrived and took charge of affairs, which had not improved in the least. Meanwhile, the southern colony enjoyed prosperity and tranquillity for several years, under the sagacious Joseph West. Among the immigrants who continued to arrive were many of the persecuted Huguenots, whose industry, refined tastes, and moral life gave them an exalted place among the early settlers, hardly if at all equalled by any other pioneers.

A Period  
 of Mis-  
 rule,  
 1677-  
 1695

Sothell, the governor of the northern colony, proved to be dis-

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 TION AND  
 SETTLE-  
 MENT  
 1602  
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 1758

honest, small-minded, and tyrannical. He became so oppressive that the people speedily rose in rebellion, banished him for a year, and declared him forever disqualified for the office of governor. Sothell took up his residence in the southern colony, where we shall soon hear of him again.

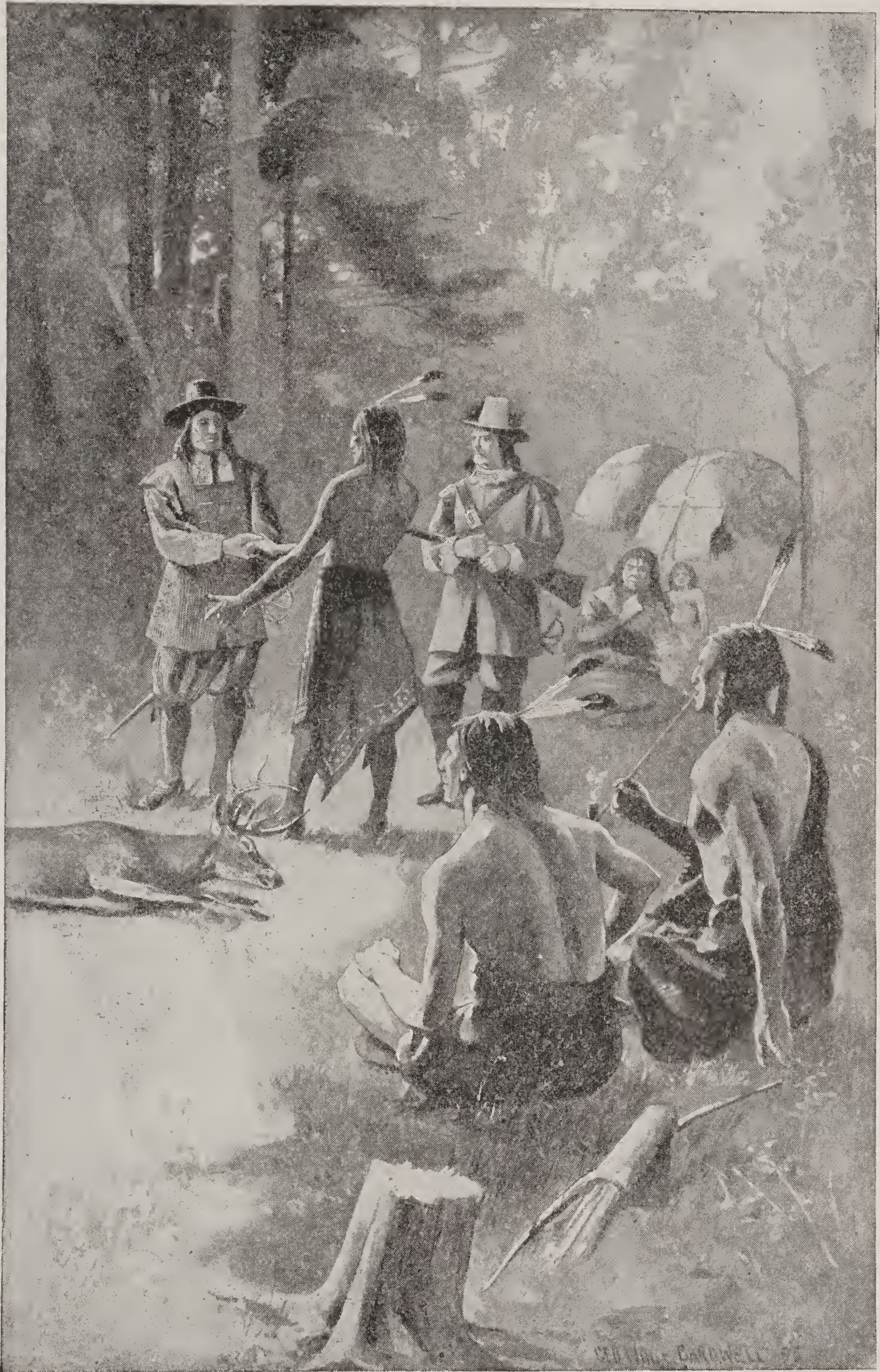
In Philip Ludwell, Sothell's successor, the northern colony secured an honest man, but he was wanting in energy, and was soon removed. Thomas Smith was the next experiment in the office of ruler, but he notified the proprietors that it was folly to undertake to rule the provinces by a deputy: they must, he said, send one of their own number as governor. The advice was taken, and John Archdale, a Quaker, who had bought the interest of one of the proprietors, came over as governor in 1695.

Arch-  
 dale's  
 Benefi-  
 cent  
 Rule,  
 1695-  
 1696

It is a pleasure to think of this good man and wise ruler. Being a devout member of the Society of Friends, it followed that he was honest. Besides that, he was wise, and possessed admirable tact. His utterances on his arrival were in the best of taste, and he quickly won the confidence of all. He knew when to be indulgent and when to be inflexible. Everybody respected him. The Indians soon learned that a man was at the head of affairs who spoke with "a single tongue," and they, too, yielded him their confidence. At the close of 1696, he returned to England, leaving as his successor Joseph Blake, a brother of the famous Admiral Blake and nephew of Archdale, who was also a good ruler.

Seth Sothell, when he turned his back upon the northern province which had banished him, reached the southern colony just at the time when the dissatisfied ones were looking around for a leader. Sothell seemed to be the man they wanted, and he was accepted. He seized the government in 1690, called together an assembly composed of his friends, robbed right and left, and speedily made himself detested. The proprietors were finally compelled to remove him, and, returning to Albemarle, he died in 1694.

Although the northern and southern colonies were united for a number of years longer, they acted independently of each other, and both made steady advances in population, in wealth, and in general prosperity. Those in North Carolina (as we may as well call the northern colony) began to give their attention to the resources of the vast wilderness stretching away for unknown miles to the westward. This illimitable forest abounded with deer, buffaloes, tur-



FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY G. W. BARDWELL

A GOOD AND WISE RULER

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COLONIZA-  
TION AND  
SETTLE-  
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1602  
TO  
1758

Ecclesi-  
astical  
Distur-  
bances  
in North  
Carolina

keys, beavers, and other game, for which the settlers hunted and trapped.

An attempt was made, in 1704, to establish the ecclesiastical dominion of the Church of England in North Carolina. The first church was erected in 1705, but no court-house was built until 1722, while the first printing-press was not set up until 1754. The church named was erected at the public expense, but the scheme of an established church was vehemently opposed by the people, the Friends being the strongest in opposition. The disturbances were so violent for a while that two governors and two assemblies tried to exercise their functions at the same time; but the quarrel soon subsided, and the people accepted the scheme proposed, but sturdily refused to become churchmen.

We have referred to the excellent character of the Huguenots who helped in the settlement and development of the Carolinas. They located on the banks of the Trent, a tributary of the Neuse, in 1707, and, a couple of years later, Swiss emigrants settled New Berne, at the head of the Neuse. A hundred German families about the same time began to found settlements on the headwaters of the Neuse and the banks of the Roanoke.

Mas-  
sacre of  
the Set-  
tlers,  
1711

One night, in October, 1711, the Tuscaroras and other Indians attacked the German settlers along the Roanoke and Pamlico Sound. More than one hundred men, women, and children were massacred, and scores of homes laid in ashes. North Carolina was very naturally thrown into consternation at this outbreak. Some of the inhabitants ran towards the sea-coast, and others fled from the province. Those that remained called upon South Carolina for help. Colonel Barnwell hastily gathered a force of men, including a considerable number of friendly Indians, and hurried to the aid of his distressed neighbors. The Tuscaroras were driven back to their fortified towns, where they gladly pledged themselves to remain peaceful. The South Carolinians broke this pledge on their way home, and committed many atrocities. The Tuscaroras again flew to arms, and terror once more reigned. The North Carolinians would have been destroyed had not their brethren a second time gone to their help. The hostiles were badly defeated, and several hundred of the Tuscaroras were made prisoners. The remainder fled northward, into the present State of New York, where they joined the five tribes composing the Iroquois confederacy. Because of this reinforcement the league has

Defeat of  
the Tus-  
caroras



since been generally referred to as the "Six Nations," though known also by the name of the "Five Nations."

South Carolina suffered from another cause of disturbance. When her governor, in 1702, learned of Queen Anne's proclamation of war against France, and that Spain was also embroiled, he proposed to the assembly that an expedition should be sent against St. Augustine. The assembly gave its assistance, and a force numbering six hundred colonists and as many Indians was organized, and in two divisions, one by land and the other by water, the expedition advanced against the old Spanish town. Upon the approach of the land force, the Spaniards retired within the fort, where they were safe, since the Englishmen had no artillery.

When the vessels arrived soon afterward, they blockaded the harbor of St. Augustine. The land forces plundered the town, and a force was sent to Jamaica for cannon, but, before it returned, two Spanish war-vessels appeared, and the blockaders fled. The campaign having failed, Governor Moore, a year later, tried his hand at a campaign against the Indians, who were known to be allies of the Spaniards. They occupied a region, a portion of which they had cultivated, between the Savannah and Altamaha rivers, in Georgia. He desolated their villages, killed a large number, and took many captives. A few years afterwards, the red men proved that they had not forgotten this blow received at the hands of the English.

In retaliation for the attack upon St. Augustine, an expedition, consisting of five vessels-of-war, under the command of a French admiral, and a strong body of troops, left Havana to attack Charleston. The intention was to conquer the province, and annex it to the Spanish territory in Florida. This formidable squadron crossed the bar in May, 1706, landed a considerable number of troops, and the commander sent a demand to Governor Moore to surrender, with the threat that he would take the town by storm in case of refusal. The governor had made every preparation possible, and returned a defiant reply. To give emphasis to the refusal, the invaders on shore were attacked, many were killed, and a large number taken prisoners, while the remainder were driven in confusion to their ships.

PERIOD II  
COLONIZATION AND SETTLEMENT  
1602  
TO  
1758

Expedition of South Carolina against St. Augustine, 1702



QUEEN ANNE

Spanish Expedition against Charleston, 1706

PERIOD II  
 COLONIZATION AND  
 SETTLEMENT  
 1602  
 TO  
 1758

League  
 of Hostile  
 Tribes  
 and  
 Massacre of the  
 Settlers,  
 1715

The French admiral was astounded, and, when he saw the few vessels composing the navy preparing to attack his squadron, he weighed anchor and put to sea. No more danger was to be feared from that quarter.

But the greatest tempest of all was gathering its thunderbolts, to be launched against the Carolinas. Urged by the French in the Mississippi valley and the Spaniards in Florida, a league composed of the Indian tribes between the Cape Fear and St. Mary rivers, including fully six thousand warriors, was formed for the destruction of the English. In this league were included Creeks, Cherokees,



INDIAN RUNNER BEARING NEWS OF HOSTILITIES

Choctaws, Chickasaws, Congarees, and Yemmasees. Another thousand in the Neuse region attacked the settlements there, in revenge for the blow struck them several years before.

Defeat  
 of the  
 Indians,  
 1715

On the morning of April 13th, 1715, the Yemmasees assailed the settlers along the seaboard, and began a fearful massacre. One of the fleetest of the Indians, dodging the infuriated savages, swam several streams and ran a dozen miles with the news to Port Royal. There the people hurried on board a ship, and carried the tidings to Charleston, whither streams of panic-stricken planters and their families rushed in frenzied haste. Governor Craven saw that the capital was in the gravest danger. He declared martial law, caused all the weapons and ammunition in the town to be seized, armed the able-

bodied men, friendly Indians, and trustworthy blacks, and with this mixed force, of more than a thousand men, marched out to meet the savages, who were eagerly advancing to attack him. The Indians were defeated, and pursued until they took refuge under the Spanish guns at St. Augustine. The hostiles from the north were driven back, and the most powerful tribes of the league, which had not yet taken the warpath, were so impressed by the prowess of the white men that they decided to leave them alone. Then followed a lasting peace.

The proprietary system of government had long been unpopular in South Carolina. It was expensive, and many of the governors were wholly unfitted for their duties. Something like a revolt took place, when the king (George I.\*) inclined a favorable ear to the petition of his subjects, and, in 1720, South Carolina was made a royal province, under Francis Nicholson as governor. Then North Carolina became restive, and the proprietors, making provision for the inevitable, sold the province to the king in 1728, and that, too, became a royal province. The two Carolinas were then separated, George Barrington becoming Governor of North Carolina, and Robert Johnson of South Carolina. There were many disputes between the people and their royal governors, and much friction and dissatisfaction existed down to the breaking out of the French and Indian war.



KING GEORGE I

PERIOD II  
COLONIZATION AND  
SETTLEMENT  
1602  
TO  
1758

The  
Two  
Carolin-  
as  
made  
Royal  
Provin-  
ces,  
1729

\* The first of the Hanoverian kings of England, under a successor of whom the American colonies were to achieve independence. The coming of the Elector of Hanover to the English throne had little immediate influence on the colonies, for George I. (1714-1727) was little versed in English affairs, and did not even speak English; while France was, for the time, under the youthful Louis XV. and the Regency. George I. owed his accession to the throne to the now-established Protestantism of the nation, which, since William and Mary had died childless, and Anne had no survivors, transferred the succession from the collateral Stuart heirs, who were Catholics, to the son of the Electress Sophia of Hanover, the last-surviving child of Elizabeth Stuart, daughter of James I. of England. Under George I. and George II., Jacobite intrigue was stamped out, and the nation was launched, under Whig auspices, on a new career of political and national development. Under the second George, as the narrative discloses, the war with France on this continent ran its fateful course to its brilliant close, on the heights above Quebec. Under the third of the Hanoverian (or Brunswick) dynasty, the American colonies, were, as we know, to emerge into nationhood.



## CHAPTER XX

### *THE COLONIAL HISTORY OF PENNSYLVANIA AND DELAWARE*

[*Authorities* : Though among the last of the English colonies to be permanently and happily settled, Pennsylvania and Delaware had an earlier history before Penn's day, under Swedish, Dutch, and English rule. Both colonies owe much to the pacific and humane character of their illustrious founder, and not the least of their debt to Penn and the Society of Friends was their freedom from Indian molestation and border embroilments. This absence from strife, in the case, especially, of the larger and more important of the two colonies, was most favorable to its speedy and substantial development, and, when the time came, to its assuming that historic and commanding importance which Pennsylvania won in the founding of the nation. The supplementary sources of information respecting Pennsylvania are both numerous and important. The various memoirs of Penn—the best of which are Janney's, and Stoughton's—together with the annals of the Quakers, and the local histories of Philadelphia, should all be consulted. See, especially, Egle's "History of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania ;" also, Scharf's "Delaware."]

#### The Quakers



Wm Penn's House 1682

#### William Penn

**I**N the preceding chapters the reader will have found mention made of the Friends, or Quakers. These good people appeared in England in the early part of the seventeenth century, and, as we have learned, suffered persecution in Massachusetts and in some other of the colonies.

Among the many converts to the faith of George Fox, the founder of this sect, was young William Penn, only son of the famous Admiral Penn. He was converted while at college, and suffered persecution, not only from the authorities, but from his father, who had no patience with his principles, and beat and disowned him. His mother acted as mediator, and, in the end, the integrity and consistent life of the clever young man won back the affection of the paternal parent, and the two became reconciled.

When Admiral Penn died, he left his son a large fortune. Among the assets was a debt of eighty thousand dollars, owed by the government to his father for his services. The son proposed that this should be paid in the form of a grant of land in America, and the offer was gladly accepted. Penn had already become interested in the settlement of this country. New Jersey had come into the possession of some Friends, for whom he acted as arbitrator, and the persecution which his brethren suffered caused him to long for some place where they could live in tranquillity. Others who had sought refuge for conscience' sake in America had found there an asylum, and he looked upon the opportunity thus offered as a timely and providential one.

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1602  
TO  
1758

A charter, granting to William Penn the present State of Pennsylvania, was issued, March 14th, 1681. Penn and his heirs were to retain proprietorship in this immense tract forever, upon the nominal annual payment of two beaver skins. The grant having been made, Penn was ready with the name "New Wales" for it, but the secretary of state was a Welshman, and did not like the name. Then Penn offered "Sylvania," but King Charles insisted that it should be "Pennsylvania," in remembrance of his faithful admiral. Penn was shocked, as this would look like conceit on his part. He offered the secretary who drew up the charter a liberal present of money if he would leave off the "Penn" from the name; but the clerk took good care that it remained. The grant being secure in his hands, Penn took steps to carry out the views he had held for years. He was a good man, and wise beyond his generation. He let it be known that he meant to form a just government, whose foundation principle was absolute freedom of conscience. As a consequence, the colonization of Pennsylvania attracted the widest desirable attention.

The Pennsylvania Charter, 1681

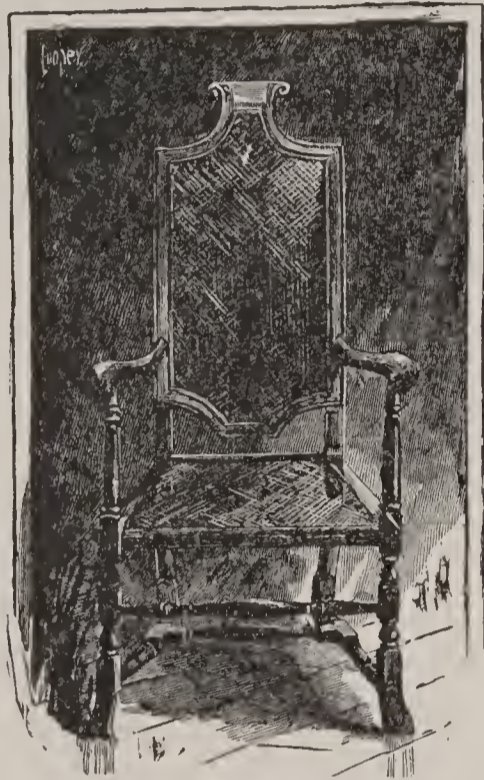
In May, 1681, Penn sent his cousin, William Markham, to Pennsylvania as his representative and deputy-governor. He took a large number of emigrants with him, chiefly of those which were in the employ of the "Company of Free Traders," which had bought lands of the proprietor. Land was offered at forty shillings per hundred acres, and, so great was the confidence in Penn, that thousands of people turned their attention to Pennsylvania, and made preparations for removing thither.

First Emigration to Pennsylvania, 1681

We cannot too highly commend the course of William Penn in

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 COLONIZATION AND  
 SETTLEMENT  
 1602  
 TO  
 1758

The  
 Wisdom  
 and Jus-  
 tice of  
 Penn



PENN'S CHAIR

founding the great commonwealth of Pennsylvania. Had his example and spirit been followed elsewhere, multitudes of lives, and untold suffering, disaster, misery, and wretchedness would have given place to peace, prosperity, and happiness. In framing his laws for the colony, the humane founder proceeded on the belief that there is in every human being a disposition to do right, and that if this disposition is nurtured, the person *will* do right. He was unwilling to make any crime punishable with death; but Chief Justice North insisted that such should be the penalty for murder and treason. No man, however, was hanged in Pennsylvania during the lifetime of Penn.

One of the beneficent laws of the colony was that arbitration ought to settle all disputes, even between nations. No doubt the time will come when the peoples

of the world will adopt this Christian method of ending their quarrels. There have been many wars, in which hundreds of thousands of innocent lives have been sacrificed, for which there was often not the least justification. The ambition of one man, a wrangle between two rogues who happened to be in authority, the possession of some worthless bit of land, a mutual jealousy, have been sufficient to incite men to fly at each other's throats, and plunge peaceful communities in the horrors of a long and bloody strife. History is full of such instances. How often have we seen their dreadful effect in the early colonial wars, when French and English lived side by side as friendly neighbors; then word would come that their respective countries, thousands of miles away, had begun fighting. Straightway, these neighbors would become mortal enemies, and set to work to kill each other. All this might have been saved by arbitration, which, it is a pleasure to observe, is now growing more in favor, both in the New and in the Old World.

Among the other good measures formulated by Penn was that of devoting prisons to the reformation, instead of to the punishment, of criminals, another great civilizing truth which is happily gaining ground. He declared oaths useless, since a person who will lie

Arbitra-  
 tion  
 rather  
 than the  
 Sword

would do so under any circumstances. Drunkenness, cock-fighting, and card-playing were pronounced cruel and wrong; falsehood was punishable as a crime; and, in all litigation in which an Indian was interested, it was insisted on that half of the jury should be composed of Indians.

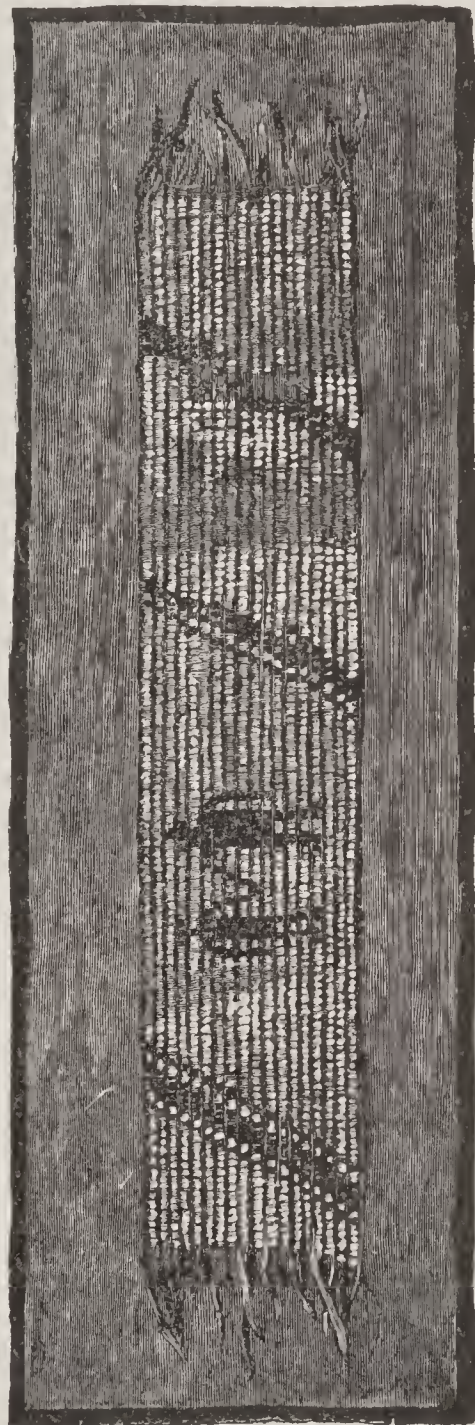
Now, if the reader will glance at the map of our country, he will observe that Pennsylvania is an inland State, that is, that no part of it touches the ocean. It would be a great drawback to its prosperity so long as it was shut out from the seaboard. The possession of Delaware was the one thing needed to overcome this obstacle; but Lord Baltimore claimed that it was included in his grant, though the Duke of York would not admit the claim. To end the dispute, however, the latter offered to buy the domain of the baron, who refused to sell. Penn condemned the course of Baltimore, whereupon the duke gave to Penn a quit-claim deed for the territory now composing the State of Delaware. It was then divided, as at the present time, into the counties of New Castle, Kent, and Sussex, and was referred to as the "Three Lower Counties on the Delaware."

In 1681, three vessels with emigrants were sent to Pennsylvania, besides the one already named. At Chester one of them was caught in the ice-floes, and frozen in the Delaware. The immigrants dug caves in the bank, in which they lived until milder weather came. Then all settled higher up the river, and near its banks, and began building and planting.

Penn was so interested in his province that he soon paid it a visit. He sailed in the ship *Welcome*, September 1st, 1682, taking with him about a hundred immigrants, most of whom were Friends from the neighborhood of his home. Smallpox unfortunately broke out among them, and thirty died during the passage. The voyage was long and

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1602  
TO  
1758

The Province of Delaware granted to Penn, 1682

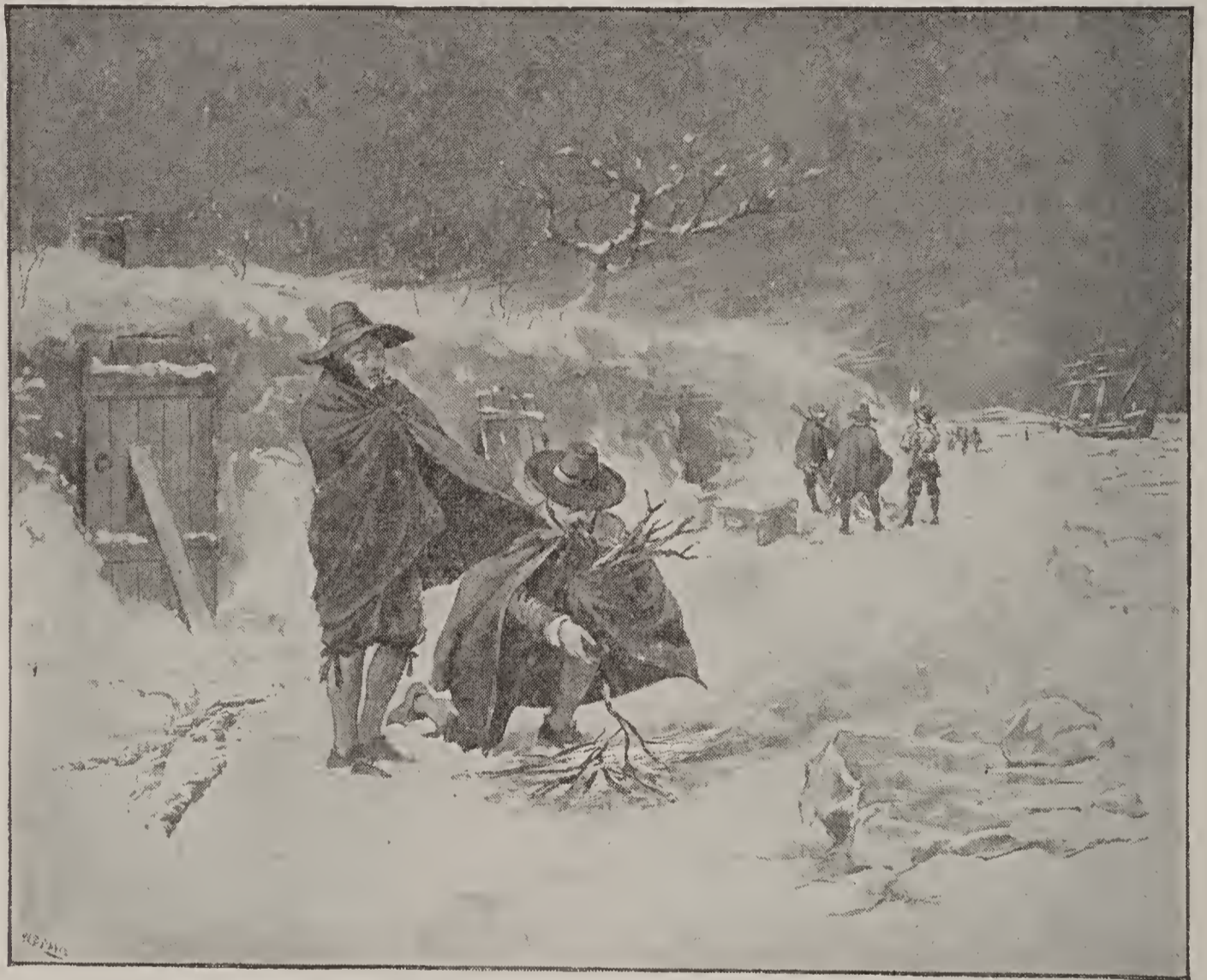


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 COLONIZA-  
 TION AND  
 SETTLE-  
 MENT  
 1602  
 TO  
 1758

tiresome, and it was not until the latter part of October that the Delaware was sighted. Entering the river, a landing was effected at New Castle, where several thousand settlers, composed of Swedes, Dutch, English, Germans, and Huguenots, had made their homes.

The reputation of Penn had preceded him, and he received a cordial welcome from these people. Calling them together on the following day, in the quaint old Dutch court-house, he produced the



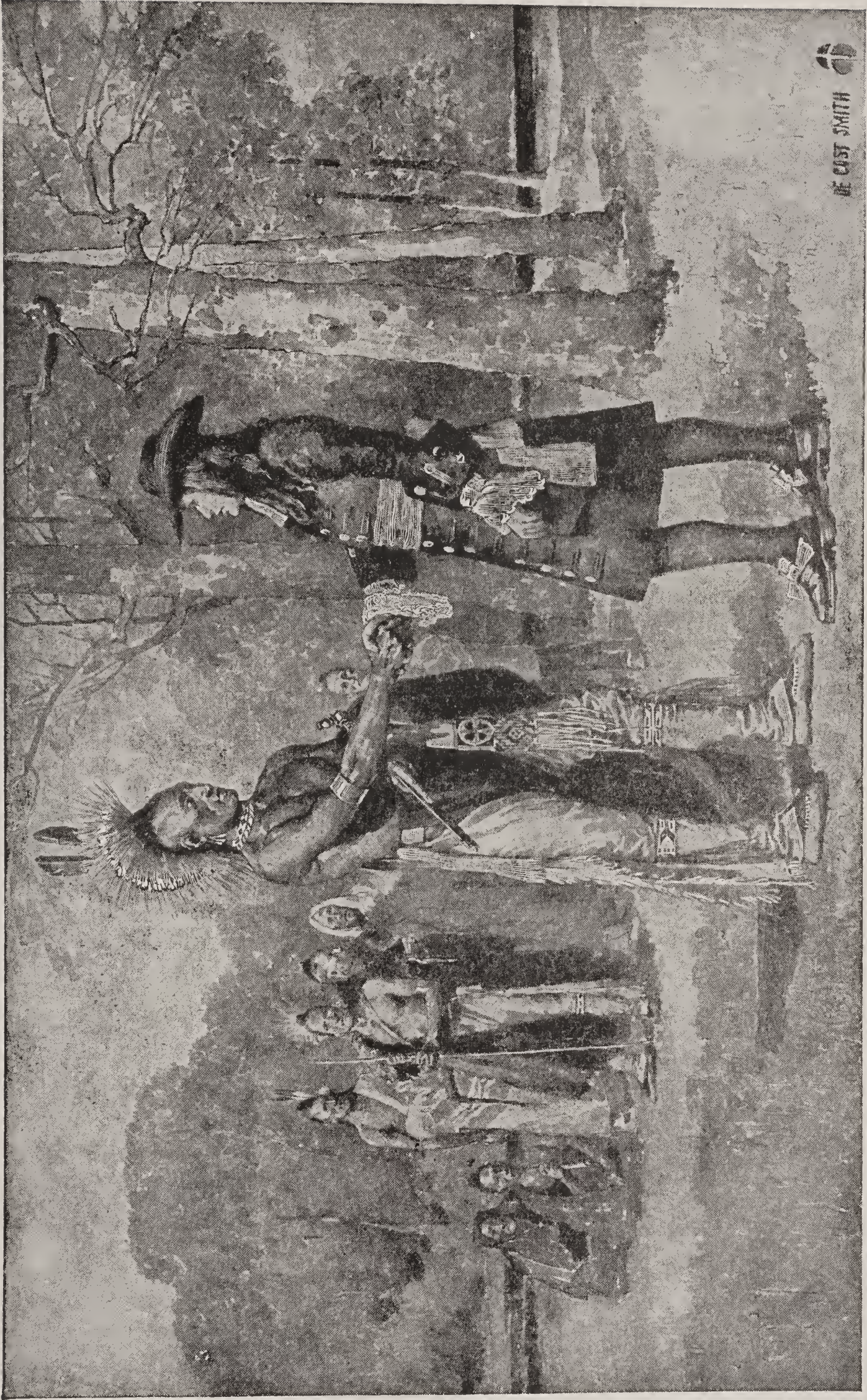
FROZEN IN ON THE DELAWARE

Penn's  
 Visit to  
 Pennsyl-  
 vania,  
 1682

royal patent, and received from the Duke of York's agent a formal surrender and transfer of the territory. Penn addressed the people in words so kind and considerate that he won their instant regard. He "naturalized" the inhabitants, renewed the commissions of the magistrates, and promised to remember their request to make the province a part of Pennsylvania.

Parting with his friends, Penn now sailed up the Delaware to the Swedish town of Upland (Chester). At this point he received another cordial welcome, and met his cousin, William Markham, whom





WILLIAM PENN AT UPLAND (CHESTER), PA.

FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY DE COST SMITH

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 COLONIZA-  
 TION AND  
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 1602  
 TO  
 1758

The  
 First  
 General  
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 bly at  
 Upland  
 (Chester)

Penn's  
 Treaty  
 with the  
 Indians,  
 1682

he had sent over as his representative the year before. The first general assembly was held in the Friends' meeting-house in this settlement, and several weeks were spent in making allotments of the land. Penn set aside two estates, of ten thousand acres each, for his staunch friend, the Duke of York; a thousand acres, free of all cost and charge, for his loved instructor, George Fox; while eight thousand acres were reserved for himself, each of his three infant children to have a share. The remaining land was sold at fourpence an acre, subject to a yearly quit-rent of one shilling for each hundred acres. Penn also paid a visit to the adjoining provinces of New Jersey and Maryland, and in all cases he was treated with courtesy. He and Lord Baltimore discussed the question of the boundary between the two provinces, and sought to settle the knotty point whether Delaware was a part of Maryland or of Pennsylvania. Finding that they could not agree, they determined to let the London authorities decide the matter for them.

We are all familiar with the picture of the great painter, Benjamin West, which represents Penn making a treaty with the Indians, under an immense spreading elm, at Shackamaxon, on the banks of the Delaware. This historic spot is now a portion of the Kensington district of Philadelphia. The interesting event took place in October, 1682, when the trees had begun to shed their foliage. The spot had long been famous as a meeting-place for Indian councils, and there, on the occasion named, gathered the chiefs, sachems, and leading warriors of the Lenni-Lenape or Delaware Indians, for the purpose of making a treaty with the founder of Pennsylvania. Unluckily, there is no authentic account of this meeting in the open air under the old spreading elm, but that it took place there is little doubt. Penn was not yet forty years of age, and he and his companions were dressed in the simple garb of the Quaker sect. The Indian sachems brought their wives and children, but as none of them believed in "woman's rights," the females took no part in the conference, and kept silently in the background.

"We meet," said Penn, "on the broad pathway of good faith and good-will. No advantage shall be taken on either side, but all shall be openness and love. I will not call you children, for parents sometimes chide their children too severely; nor brothers only, for brothers differ. I will not compare the friendship between you and me to a chain, for that might be rusted by the rain, or a falling tree

might break it. But let us feel that we are the same as if one man's body were to live in two separate parts, for we are all one in mankind; we are all of one flesh and blood."

The substance of this speech was repeated to the Indians by an interpreter, and Tamiment, the chief sachem, replied in a similar vein, expressing his delight at the words of his noble brother, to whom he handed a belt of wampum as a pledge of fidelity. "We will live in love," said Tamiment, "with William Penn and his children as long as the sun and moon shall endure." And this treaty, of which it has been said, it was the only one not sworn to, was never broken by either party.

It is not quite correct to say that the meeting under the great elm was called for the purpose of buying the land from the Indians, for it was Penn's purpose from the first to make such purchase. He had instructed Markham to explain this to the red men, and when the founder met them, it was to complete the bargain of the preceding year. Penn not only gave the price agreed upon, but delighted the hearts of warriors, women, and children with numerous additional presents. If we contrast this conquest of the savages by love with that of Menendez and other Spanish explorers, whose weapons were the sword, fire, and the hand of outrage and pillage, we shall see how beneficent was Penn's "better way." The contrast gains immensely even with the action of many of our own ancestors, and with the course of our government down to the present time. True, Penn paid twice for the soil of Pennsylvania, but leaving out of view the question of right, no more profitable bargain was ever made, for not only were treasures of money saved, but thousands of precious human lives.

After his visit to Lord Baltimore, Penn ascended the Delaware in an open boat to Wicaco, near which stood an old block-house built by the Swedes, and afterwards changed into a church. There he purchased lands from the colonists, extending from the banks of the Delaware to the Schuylkill. On this ground he laid out the city of Philadelphia, a civic appellation signifying "brotherly love." Penn landed at Dock Street, opposite an unfinished house, known for many years afterward as the Blue Anchor Tavern. The plan of the city embraced twelve square miles, and was laid out by Penn and Thomas Holme, his surveyor. The street boundaries were marked on the chestnut, walnut, spruce, pine, locust, and other forest trees,

PERIOD II  
COLONIZATION AND SETTLEMENT  
1602  
TO  
1758

Philadelphia  
Founded,  
1682

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 COLONIZATION AND  
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 1602  
 TO  
 1758

which grew in great numbers, and most of those streets still bear the names given to them more than two centuries ago.

The city was prosperous from its first founding. A hundred houses were erected during the first year, and several hundred more in the second year. The hospitable "Blue Anchor," whose landlord bore the appropriate name of Guest, for a time served also the purposes of a corn-exchange and post office. Schools, chapels, and even



THE "BLUE ANCHOR" TAVERN

printing houses soon appeared, and there were many visits from the Indians, who took delight in bringing peltries as presents for "Father Penn."

Second  
 Assembly of the  
 Province,  
 1683

The second assembly of the province convened at Philadelphia in March, 1683. Through these representatives, Penn offered the people a new charter. It was in its terms so fair and liberal, that it was accepted without an opposing voice. This charter established a republican form of government, with religious toleration, and Penn went further than any other proprietor in giving up his chartered

rights to the appointment of officers. He, indeed, gave more than the people had a right to expect.

In the latter part of 1682, a modest house was built for the founder's use. It stood between First and Second streets, in Letitia Court, and was not torn down until a few years ago. There the good founder made his home, and devoted himself to the interests of the people whom he loved with an abiding, fatherly affection. He would have been glad to spend the remainder of his days there, but it became necessary for him to return to England. Lord Baltimore had gone thither, and was urging his claim to the territory from Philadelphia to Cape Henlopen. Penn saw that he must defend his rights; and it may be added that, after an extended trial, the Committee on Trades and Plantations gave their decision in his favor.

He sailed for England in the summer of 1684, bearing with him the veneration and love of the whole people. He left the government of the province in the hands of five members of the council, with Thomas Lloyd as president. When the founder looked over the work he had done, he was surely warranted in writing: "I must, without vanity, say, that I have led the greatest colony into America that ever any man did upon private credit; and the most prosperous beginnings that ever were in it are to be found among us." In his farewell to the colonists, he said: "My love and my life are to and with you, and no water can quench it, nor distance bring it to an end. I have been with you, cared over you, and served you with unfeigned love; and you are beloved of me and dear to me beyond utterance. I bless you in the name and power of the Lord, and may God bless you with His righteousness, peace and plenty, all the land over!"

Penn had been in England only a few months, when Charles II. died, and his brother James ascended the throne. The new king and Penn had been personal friends for years, a fact which now involved the Quaker in grave peril. It was soon noted that James was under the influence of the Jesuits, and Penn was suspected of favoring that order. After James was driven from the throne by revolution, Penn was arrested and tried three times on the charge of treason, but was acquitted in each instance. No one who studies the character of William Penn can incline to the belief that he was ever guilty of acting the hypocrite.

Various troubles kept Penn in England for fifteen years, during

PERIOD II  
 COLONIZATION AND  
 SETTLEMENT  
 1602  
 TO  
 1758

Penn's  
 Departure for  
 England,  
 1684

PERIOD II  
 COLONIZA-  
 TION AND  
 SETTLE-  
 MENT  
 1602  
 TO  
 1758

Seces-  
 sion of  
 Dela-  
 ware,  
 1691

which period important events and changes took place in Pennsylvania. In April, 1691, the Three Lower Counties on the Delaware took offence at the action of the Council at Philadelphia, withdrew from the union of Pennsylvania, and were allowed a separate deputy-governor. Such misrepresentations came across the ocean, that William and Mary, in 1692, took away Penn's rights as governor of the province, and placed control of the colony in the hands of Governor Fletcher, of New York. Fletcher, in the spring of 1693, reunited the Three Lower Counties with Pennsylvania, and made William Markham his deputy-governor.

Penn was never without powerful friends at court, and through the intercession of a number of them all his rights were restored to him in the summer of 1694. The changes, however, had caused a great deal of financial and political trouble in Pennsylvania, and Penn's own persecution robbed him of all his fortune. In 1699, he sailed with his daughter and second wife for Philadelphia, where he arrived in the month of December. An astonishing scene met his gaze. The city contained more than two thousand inhabitants, and the province fully twenty thousand. Philadelphia had increased faster during the first few years of its existence than did New York in half a century.

Dela-  
 ware  
 given a  
 Separate  
 Govern-  
 ment,  
 1701

First  
 Independ-  
 ent  
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 ture  
 in Dela-  
 ware,  
 1703

Penn's  
 Return  
 to Eng-  
 land,  
 1701

It cannot, however, be said that this prosperity was wholly beneficial. The all-potent moral power upon which Penn had relied was gone, and the people clamored for the political privileges which were promised them by those who made the laws during his absence. He complied, and gave them a new constitution, in November, 1701, so liberal that it satisfied every one. He was pained at the demand of the Three Lower Counties for a separate government, but he granted it in 1702. The first independent legislature in Delaware assembled at New Castle, in 1703. This was continued until the Revolution, although the two provinces remained under the same governor.

Penn's residence, while in the city, was the "Slate Roof House," in Second Street, on the corner of Norris's Alley; but in the spring he moved to a roomy structure, near Bristol, on the Delaware. The place still bears the name of "Penn's Manor." The founder of the commonwealth sailed for England in October, 1701. Now that adversity had come to him, his misfortunes increased, and matters went wrong, not only at home, but in the province. Andrew Hamilton, who was left as deputy, died, and was succeeded by John Evans,

who quickly made himself disliked. His private character was as bad as Lord Cornbury's, and the people would have revolted in 1709 had he not been succeeded by John Gookin. The latter was stern and uncompromising, and soon after his arrival he made a requisition upon the province for its quota of men to fight against the French.

Now, as is well known, a Quaker's faith forbids him to give any aid in prosecuting war. He is a non-combatant, ready to die, but not to fight, for his belief. Had the assembly been less wise, they would have found themselves in an embarrassing situation. With warm expressions of loyalty to the queen,\* they begged that the requisition might not be enforced, and asked permission, at the same time, to send her majesty a present. The present was in the form of money, and was received willingly enough, for the sum was sufficiently large to hire elsewhere the fighting quota of the province.

Penn found on his arrival in England that his steward had robbed him of all his fortune, and he was so hopelessly involved that he lay in prison nearly a year on account of debt. He secured his release by mortgaging his province, and was about to negotiate for its sale, when he was stricken with paralysis. This stayed all proceedings, though he lingered until 1718, when he quietly passed away.†

Sir William Keith succeeded Gookin as governor in 1717, but was removed from office in 1725, being succeeded by Patrick Gordon. By the will of Penn, the proprietorship of the province was left to his wife and three sons, John, Thomas, and Richard. It remained in them and their heirs until the Revolution, when their rights were purchased for a large sum by the State of Pennsylvania.‡ The prosperity of Pennsylvania continued without interruption. At one time the immigration of the Germans and Irish became so large that a tax of five shillings per head was imposed to prevent their gaining ascendancy over the Friends. Governor Gordon died in 1736, and the aged Logan ruled for two years, when George Thomas became governor, and was succeeded in 1748 by James Hamilton.

PERIOD II  
COLONIZATION AND  
SETTLEMENT  
1602  
TO  
1758

Death of  
Penn,  
1718

Subsequent  
History  
of Pennsylvania  
to the  
French and In-  
dian  
War

\* Queen Anne (1702-1714).

† In his 75th year.

‡ Penn's proprietary rights were, in 1790, bought up for a pension of \$20,000 a year, payable to the eldest male descendant of the founder's second wife. In 1884, this payment was commuted for the sum of \$335,000.



## CHAPTER XXI

### THE COLONIAL HISTORY OF GEORGIA

[*Authorities:* Georgia, the last of the thirteen English colonies to be settled, was founded in 1733 by an English army officer, named Oglethorpe, who had fought in his youth in the East, under Prince Eugene, the colleague of Marlborough. The Colony was at first founded on a semi-military basis, with the view partly of establishing a barrier between the English colonists in the Carolinas and the Spanish and Indians in Florida. With Oglethorpe was early associated the philanthropist preachers, Whitefield and the two Wesleys, and in concert with them he sought to create homes in the New World for poor imprisoned debtors in England, and for the friendless and destitute classes generally. Savannah was settled at the inception of the colony, and its growth was much helped by the arrival, in 1734, of a number of Protestant exiles from Salzburg, Germany, as well as by contingents of Moravians and Scotch Highlanders. The progress of the settlement was on the whole, however, slow. It had to contend against troubles arising out of the undefined boundary between the Carolinas and the Spanish possessions to the south, which during the war between England and Spain led Oglethorpe to fit out a fruitless expedition against St. Augustine, and to equally fruitless reprisals on the part of the Spaniards of Florida. It had also the drawbacks incident to slave labor and free traffic in rum. Georgia became a royal province in 1752. The chief authorities on the colony are Oglethorpe's contemporary account; the lives of Oglethorpe, by Wright and by Bruce; and the histories of the State by Jones and by Stephens.]

The  
New  
World a  
Refuge  
for the  
Op-  
pressed



THE reader will by this time have learned the most important facts concerning the settlement of each of the thirteen original colonies, save the last—Georgia. He will have noticed that many of the people who came across the Atlantic and found homes in the New World did so to escape persecution in Europe. The Puritans went to Massachusetts to separate themselves from English Churchmen, or, more strictly speaking, from the obnoxious ritual and ceremonies of the Established Church. Roger Williams and his friends went to



Rhode Island to get away from the Puritans. The Roman Catholics found shelter and safety for a time in Maryland; and the Friends, or Quakers, located in Pennsylvania because they were persecuted and imprisoned in their native land. And so when we study the last of those colonies, the fact must be noted that it was meant to be an asylum for those who found little or no religious freedom and tranquillity at home. What a system of government it

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GOVERNOR OGLETHORPE IN LATER LIFE

was that drove Catholics, Protestants, and Quakers alike out of the country before they could find peace for their minds and safety for their bodies!

One of the most oppressive laws ever enforced in any country was that which permitted one man to put another in prison for debt, and keep him there until the debt was paid. More often it was the debt of Nature that was paid. Robert Morris, the man who furnished Congress and Washington with the money to carry on the

Imprisonment for Debt in England

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Revolution, and without whose help England would probably have conquered, and who gave up all he had to buy food and clothing for the starving and freezing soldiers, was thrown into prison for debt. Before the breaking out of the Revolution, however, the working of this law attracted increasing interest in England. Thousands of people were in the jails, for no crime, but because perhaps sickness or misfortune had compelled them to run into debt. It was not the mere imprisonment, but the horrible suffering of the prisoners, which shocked all right-thinking people. They were treated like mere beasts, and disease often carried off scores. Their condition was a reproach to any people claiming to be Christian or civilized. The hearts of the benevolent everywhere were stirred to help the miserable beings, and a wealthy and humane man left his large fortune to be used in liberating the most worthy insolvent debtors from imprisonment.

Colonel  
 James  
 Edward  
 Ogle-  
 thorpe

Finally, Parliament appointed a committee to inquire into the sad condition of things. The prime mover in this matter was Colonel James Edward Oglethorpe,\* who was one of the most admirable men connected with the early history of our country. He was an undergraduate at the University of Oxford when quite a youth, but, in 1714, he left his college to take military service under Prince Eugene of Savoy, the Continental colleague of Marlborough in the war in Flanders. He belonged to an excellent family, and proved himself a soldier of exceeding bravery and skill, serving with distinction in

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\* General Oglethorpe [*b.* 1698 (?); *d.* 1785] was, in his day, not only the founder of the philanthropic colony of Georgia, but a notable figure in parliamentary, military, and social circles in London. His early career in the army, and the part he took with Prince Eugene in the Austrian campaign against the Turks in Eastern Europe, gave him prestige and influence when he founded Georgia, and maintained it as a bulwark against Spanish aggression upon it and its more prosperous northern neighbor, South Carolina. After his return to England, in 1743, he took part, two years later, in suppressing the Jacobite insurrection in Scotland, though his hereditary associations were with the Stuart cause. Subsequently, he became a free-lance in Parliament, and maintained an attitude of sturdy independence towards the Pelham ministry of the Hanoverian king, George II. He was the friend of Walpole, Goldsmith, Boswell, and Burke, and kept to the last, we are told, his "boyish vivacity and diversity of interests, his keen sense of personal dignity, his sympathy with the problems of life, and his earnestness of moral conviction." Pope, in one of his satires, speaks of this distinguished soldier and philanthropist as being "driven by strong benevolence of soul, to fly from pole to pole," in the interest of oppressed humanity. In an illustrative note to the allusion to General Oglethorpe in the poem, it is said that "the benevolence which induced him to found and settle the colony in Georgia gives greater lustre than military exploits to his character," great as these exploits were.

the campaign against the Turks, which had its decisive close in the siege and capture, in 1717, of the Servian town of Belgrade, on the Danube.

Just here a fact may be mentioned which is not generally known. When the Revolution broke out, Oglethorpe was considered to be one of the most skilful generals in the British Islands, and the feeling was universal that he was the best fitted to assume chief com-

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HORRORS OF ENGLISH PRISON LIFE

mand of all the English forces in America. Such command would have been his, except that the authorities feared that his disposition was too humane to allow him to wage war against the "rebels" as King George resolved it should be waged. When our independence was secured, and we sent a minister to represent us at the Court of St. James, the first one to take him by the hand and give him welcome was General Oglethorpe, who was glad in his heart that we had won our freedom. He was a man in the truest sense of the word.

Oglethorpe's Chivalry

The parliamentary committee, to which reference has been made,

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 tions of  
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was named in 1728, with Oglethorpe as chairman. He went to work with vigor, and the revelations which he made of prison life horrified the nation. Few believed that such misery, degradation, wretchedness, and despair could exist. Everybody shuddered, for they knew that the scenes which he described were true. Many of the jailors were indescribably brutal to the unfortunates, and Oglethorpe rightly pursued the most cruel of these felons until he lodged them in jail. The people demanded that the outrage should cease, and Oglethorpe vowed before heaven that he would never rest until he had done his utmost to wipe away the reproach.

Now it will be readily seen that while it was a blessed charity to release the worthy insolvent debtors, such remedy could never be effectual if the relief stopped there, for those same people were liable to fall into debt again, and undergo the punishment from which they had partially escaped. Something of a wholly different nature was needed, and Oglethorpe proposed to send the best class of debtors to the unoccupied territory to the south of the Carolinas. The other members of the committee agreed with him, and a plan was submitted to Parliament, which was so well set forth that George II., who was then king, as well as the Parliament, favored it. A liberal grant of money was made, and on June 9th, 1732, the sovereign issued a charter for founding the colony of Georgia, so named in compli-

A Char-  
 ter for  
 the Prov-  
 ince of  
 Georgia,  
 1732

ment to the king. The charter provided for a province extending from the Savannah River on the north, to the Altamaha (*awl'-tă-mă-hăw'*) River on the south, and from the sources of those streams westward to the Pacific. It will be noted that even at that late day everybody was ignorant of the immense area of our country, else a grant of such an extent would never have been made.

Coloni-  
 zation  
 Schemes

The management of the colony was entrusted for a term of twenty-one years to a like number of noblemen and gentlemen. At the end of the period named, a permanent government was to be established by the king or his successors, agreeably with British law and usage. Among the directors were Oglethorpe and Anthony Ashley Cooper, fourth Earl of Shaftesbury. Oglethorpe, unlike other founders of colonies, offered to go with the first emigrants, and aid them in establishing a settlement. Every feature of the new enterprise commended itself to the British people, and the managers were deluged, it may almost be said, with donations. A generous sum of money came from the Bank of England; the king presented

seventy-four cannon and a supply of ammunition to the emigrants; and the grants of Parliament soon amounted to more than thirty thousand pounds. Strange as it may seem, the Georgia scheme suffered because of its excessive popularity. We all know that a boy or girl is easily spoiled by unwise indulgence, and so it was, as the reader will learn, that too many favors were done for Georgia in its infancy.

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Many circumstances awakened high hopes for the scheme. Grapes grew in wonderful profusion in the province, so that the production of wine promised to be a profitable industry. Piedmont received more than two million dollars annually from England for unmanufactured silk, which it was believed could be diverted to Georgia; while the climate was known to be favorable to the growth of the olive, for which dependence was mainly had upon Italy.

A careful selection was made from the hundreds of applicants, and one hundred and twenty men, women, and children, representing thirty-five families, sailed in the ship *Anne*, of two hundred tons, from Gravesend, November 6th, 1732. Among them were a number of Piedmontese silk-workers, with a quantity of silkworms' eggs. Nearly every man was a skilled mechanic or artisan, and they prudently took enough provisions to last them until they could raise crops of their own. The voyage of the *Anne* was wearisome, but she reached Charleston in January, 1733, and Oglethorpe and his emigrants received a cordial welcome. At the governor's request, the assembly of South Carolina voted their neighbors a number of breeding cattle and other supplies. Pilots and a convoy were furnished to the *Anne*, which sailed for Port Royal Sound, near Beaufort Island, whence the immigrants were conveyed to the Savannah River in small boats. From that point, Oglethorpe, accompanied by Mr. Bull, of Charleston, afterwards governor of South Carolina, proceeded up the river to select a site for the settlement, which was that of the present city of Savannah. The town was laid out, and, returning to Beaufort, the immigrants arrived and began the settlement, February 1st, 1733.

Founding of Savannah, 1733

In his report to the trustees, Oglethorpe wrote: "Upon the river side, at the centre of this plain, I have laid out a town, opposite to which is an island of very rich pasturage, which I think should be kept for the trustees' cattle. The river is pretty wide, the water fresh, and from the key of the town you see its whole course to the

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Ogle-  
 thorpe's  
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 chichi

sea, with the island of Tybee, which forms the mouth of the river. For about six miles up into the country the landscape is very agreeable, the stream being wide, and bordered with high woods."

It will be remembered that Oglethorpe possessed a fine military training. While the comfortable dwellings were in course of erection, he put up a strong fort, and mounted the cannon presented to him by the king. He knew, moreover, that his Spanish neighbors on the south were not to be trusted. The men were formed into a military company, officers appointed, and frequent drills had, all of which made a desirable impression upon the wondering Indians who gathered around. But the wise and humane founder of Georgia relied upon other means to win the good-will of the dusky inhabitants of the country, which was claimed by the powerful tribe of Creeks, while near-by was the seat of a tribe made up of Yamacraws and Savannahs, whose chief was Tomo-chichi, more than ninety years old. The latter was held in great respect as a wise sachem and counsellor by all the surrounding tribes, and Oglethorpe lost no time in seeking an interview with him.

In this delicate and important step the founder of the colony received much aid from Mary Musgrove, the half-breed wife of a South Carolina trader. She acted as interpreter, and dispelled all the fears of the venerable sachem. When the group gathered under the green pines and spreading live-oaks on Yamacraw Bluff, Tomo-chichi walked forward, and handed to the founder a bison-skin on the under side of which was painted the figure of an eagle.

"Here," said he, "is a buffalo-skin, adorned with the head and feathers of an eagle. The eagle means speed, and the buffalo strength. The English are as swift as the eagle, and strong as the buffalo. Like the eagle, they flew hither over great waters, and, like the buffalo, nothing can withstand them. But the feathers of the eagle are soft, and signify kindness; and the skin of the buffalo is covering, and signifies protection. Let these, then, remind them to be kind and protect us."

The scene recalls that of Penn and the Delaware Indians a half century before, under the old elm at Shackamaxon. Oglethorpe made so pleasant and tactful a reply to Tomo-chichi that his full confidence and friendship were won, and through his aid a convention was brought about with the heads of the Creek confederacy, in May, 1733. A treaty was made by which all unoccupied lands



FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY W. P. SNYDER

OGLETHORPE'S INTERVIEW WITH TOMO-CHICHI

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within certain named boundaries were assigned to the English, and this treaty was ratified by the trustees in the following October. At the conclusion of the treaty, Tomo-chichi, as host, invited all parties to his town, near at hand, where Oglethorpe distributed a large number of valuable presents. Strong spirits were used so freely that some not very creditable scenes took place, which caused the trustees to pass a resolution prohibiting the use or sale of rum anywhere in the province.

Augusta  
 Found-  
 ed, 1733

When the first crop of Indian corn was raised, it measured a thousand bushels. Everything was promising, and the people were satisfied and hopeful. More immigrants arriving in the course of the year, the town of Augusta was now founded. Just then it looked to Oglethorpe that he could be well spared, at least for a time, and so in the spring of 1734 he sailed for England. Convinced that it was well to impress the red men with the strength and resources of the English nation, he persuaded Tomo-chichi, his wife, their son, and several chiefs, to go with him as his guests.

The vessel reached England in June, and the Creeks were received with as hearty a cordiality as welcomed Pocahontas more than a hundred years before. On the first of August, the king granted them an interview, which was held in Kensington Palace, and was marked on both sides with much state and ceremony. Presenting some eagle's feathers to the monarch, the aged Tomo-chichi said:

The  
 Creek  
 Indians  
 at the  
 English  
 Court

"This day I see the majesty of your face, the greatness of your house, and the number of your people. I am come for the good of the whole nation, called the Creeks, to renew the peace which was long ago had with the English. I am come over in my old days, although I cannot live to see any advantage to myself. I am come for the good of the children of the nations of the Upper and Lower Creeks, that they may be instructed in the knowledge of English.

"These are the feathers of the eagle, which is the swiftest of birds, and who flieth all around our nations. These feathers are a sign of peace in our land, and have been carried from town to town there, and we have brought them over to leave with you, O great king! as a sign of everlasting peace. O great king! whatsoever words you shall say to me, I will tell them faithfully to all the kings of the Creek nations."

His Majesty listened with attentive courtesy to these words, and replied in the following terms:



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“I am glad of the opportunity of assuring you of my regard for the people from whom you have come. I am extremely well pleased with the assurances you have brought me from them, and accept very gratefully the present, as an indication of their good disposition to me and my people. I shall always be ready to cultivate a good understanding between them and my own subjects, and shall be glad of any occasion to show you a mark of my friendship and esteem.”

When the words were interpreted to Tomo-chichi, then in his



IN KENSINGTON PALACE

ninety-third year, he turned to the queen, and said with touching simplicity: “I am glad to see this day, and to have the opportunity of seeing the mother of this great people. As our people are joined with your majesty’s, we humbly hope to find you the common mother and protectress of us and all our children.”

Reception  
 of Creek  
 Indians  
 by the  
 King

Oglethorpe was the “father” of the delegation during the stay of the Indians in England. They looked up to him with the trusting confidence of children, and did everything he wished. At the interview with the king and queen, Tomo-chichi and his wife appeared in a

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costume of scarlet and gold. One of the chiefs had set his heart upon a *début* in war costume, which consisted mostly of paint with a bit of cloth around the loins, but Oglethorpe convinced the ambitious visitor that it was hardly the right thing to do.

The brother-in-law of Tomo-chichi was stricken with smallpox, and though he received the best of attention, he died, and was buried as nearly as possible according to the custom in America. After this, Oglethorpe took the Indians to his estate, and waited upon them there with open-handed hospitality. The stay of the Creeks lasted four months, during which they received so much attention that their health was threatened. When they sailed, they took with them scores of valuable presents, and arrived at Savannah at the close of the year 1734.

Coming  
 of the  
 Salz-  
 burgers

About this time a company of Salzburgers reached Charleston. They had been driven by religious persecution from their homes in the province of Salzburg, at the base of the Noric Alps. These Protestant Salzburgers were so different in their manners and customs from the English that they were formed into a colony by themselves. They named the little stream and town where they found a safe refuge at last "Ebenezer," as expressive of their gratitude to Heaven for its mercy and goodness. It formed one of the most delightful and charming settlements of colonial times.

The  
 Wesley  
 Bro-  
 thers

Oglethorpe did not return to Georgia until 1736. He was received with gladness alike by the colonists and the red men, all of whom regarded him with reverence and love. He took with him one hundred and fifty Scotch Highlanders, who were excellently drilled soldiers, and may be regarded as the first regular troops in Georgia. They were well armed, and brought with them a number of cannon. Two notable passengers accompanied Oglethorpe. They were the brothers, John and Charles Wesley, the founders of Methodism, whose names will doubtless be revered for all time. Charles, the younger, was Oglethorpe's secretary, while John was a missionary to the Indians. With the emigrants were a number of Moravians, and so superior were all as a class that their arrival in the colony is often referred to as the "Grand Embarkation."

The Wesleys at that time were young in years, and the earnestness of their convictions led them to a course of action which did not always result in the good intended. John disagreed with Oglethorpe, who advised him to temper his zeal with discretion. Charles stayed but

a short time, when he returned to England, and John followed him in 1737, under the conviction that, although he was a minister of the Church of England, he had never been converted to God.

It is somewhat singular that the man who was sent to take the place of John Wesley became one of the greatest preachers of the eighteenth century. He was George Whitefield (*whit'-field*), who possessed a sweet, penetrating voice, and an eloquence that swayed his hearers with resistless power. He did a work for his divine Master the extent of which is beyond measurement by human standards. Although Whitefield was also a young man, he was more practical than the Wesleys, and was popular from the first. He founded an asylum for orphans at Savannah, and supported it by voluntary subscriptions, obtained mostly in England; and his broad, catholic spirit enabled him to join hands with the Moravians and all who had the good of mankind at heart.

Oglethorpe brought with him from England two acts of Parliament intended to have an important bearing upon the moral welfare and material progress of the colony. One forbade the holding of slaves, and the other prohibited the bringing of spirituous liquors into the province. He had been instrumental in the passage of these laws, but it was well-nigh impossible to enforce them. Just over the border, in South Carolina, the chief traffic was that in rum. The people there were anxious to sell to the Georgians, and the Georgians were just as anxious to buy, and so the vile business went on.

As to slave labor, no place could have been better adapted to it than Georgia, and while it existed in the Carolinas it was impossible to keep it out of the neighboring province. A pretence of obeying the law was made by hiring gangs of slaves from South Carolina, but soon that pretext was flung aside, and slavery flourished as much on one side of the boundary line as on the other. While these two laws were morally right, though impossible of enforcement, there were others that were unwise. Thus the trustees had ordered that every grant of land should be in such form that widows and daughters were debarred from all interest in the property of husband and father. Hence, if any owner died without a son, the whole property went back to the trustees, who could dispose of it as they pleased. This law was not changed until it had done much mischief in the province.

The high estimation in which Oglethorpe was held in England

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The Preacher Whitefield

Slavery and the Rum-traffic

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gave him great influence, and he obtained almost anything in reason for which he asked. Parliament voted more money to the Georgia colony, and showed it so many favors that, as has already been intimated, it was a question whether too much indulgence was not shown to the colonists, who would have done better if left to work out their own well-being as did the sturdy emigrants in Massachusetts and other places. Still, whatever errors were committed by the founder of Georgia, he had at bottom the influencing motive of love for his kind.

Scottish  
 Immi-  
 gration

With a number of his Highland soldiers, Oglethorpe made an exploratory voyage among the islands and along the coast. Frederica was founded on St. Simon's Island, where a fort was erected. The Highlanders had been assigned to a tract of land on the Altamaha, which England affirmed was the true boundary between her possessions and those of Spain. The town was named New Inverness, and the fort, Darien. The Highlanders were joined by other emigrants from Scotland, and formed a community by themselves, in which the customs and the picturesque dress of their native country were preserved. Oglethorpe paid this settlement a friendly call, and as a compliment to the people he presented himself in Highland costume. He was received with the lively tunes of the national pipes, and made welcome by the hospitable people.

The towns outside of Savannah were Darien, Ebenezer, and Augusta. Never forgetful of the Spaniards in the south, Oglethorpe took special interest in Frederica, on St. Simon's Island. He erected excellent fortifications on St. Simon's and Cumberland islands, which served their purpose as a bulwark against Spanish encroachments.

The Salzburgers thrived wonderfully. They would not permit any slave labor among them, and, by and by, exported five tons of raw silk annually. Indigo was largely cultivated, and it may be said that the prosperity of this portion of Georgia surpassed all expectations.

Southern  
 Limits  
 of  
 Georgia  
 defined

Oglethorpe now took a bold step. With a number of his favorite Highlanders, he made a journey to the south, and marked St. John's River as the southern limits of Georgia. His argument for going beyond the claims of the trustees was that the domain thus placed in dispute was in possession of Indian subjects of Britain in 1713, when the war between that country on the one hand, and Spain and

France on the other, was concluded by treaty. True to the national love of conquest, Great Britain backed him up in this position.

Oglethorpe sent an embassy to St. Augustine with a notification of his claim, but modified it by making St. Mary's the southern boundary. He knew that the Spaniards would not assent to this until compelled by force of arms, and hence the military preparations he then carefully made. A fort was built which commanded the mouth of the St. Mary's, and Fort St. George, at the mouth of the St. John's River, was completed.

The Spaniards were so angered by the course of the governor that, when his messengers reached St. Augustine, they were held as prisoners, and war was threatened. As soon as Tomo-chichi learned of this, he came at the head of a large company of warriors to offer aid to Oglethorpe. So did other chiefs. The powerful Chickasaws formed an alliance with the governor, who felt increased confidence in his strength. The governor of St. Augustine had tried to tamper with these Indians, and, when he learned what they had done, he released Oglethorpe's messengers, and a satisfactory treaty was made. The Georgians were withdrawn from Fort St. George, and all would have been well, had not the Spanish government rejected the agreement, and sent a commission from Cuba to meet Oglethorpe at Frederica. The meeting took place in the latter part of 1736. When it is stated that the commission would listen to no settlement except that of the abandonment of all of Georgia and a part of South Carolina by the English, it need not be added that the interview did not end satisfactorily on either side.

The situation was so perilous that Oglethorpe proceeded to England to consult with the trustees. He reported that Spain was moving soldiers into Florida, and undoubtedly meant to enforce her claims by going to war. Oglethorpe was commissioned a brigadier-general, given command of all the military in South Carolina and Georgia, and authorized to raise troops in England. He did this, and arrived in Georgia, in the autumn of 1738, with a trained military force of six hundred men, backed by a grant from Parliament of one hundred thousand dollars.

He found much discontent in the province. Georgia and South Carolina were at swords'-points over the law about traffic in rum; and while the Moravians and Salzburgers would not permit slave labor among themselves, the remainder of the people insisted that it was

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Difficulties with the Spanish in Florida

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as much a necessity as in South Carolina. Oglethorpe declared that he would resign and abandon the province if slavery were permitted. The ill-feeling became so general that a good many settlers removed to South Carolina.

During the governor's absence in England, the Spaniards strove to win his Indian allies from him, but they could not influence them. Then they tampered with his own soldiers, and succeeded to such an extent that an attempt was made upon Oglethorpe's life. A speedy court-martial and several hangings followed, when all danger from that source disappeared.

England, then under the administration of Walpole, declared war against Spain in 1739. Oglethorpe received early notice of what was coming, and moved with characteristic energy and skill. He knew the Spaniards were strengthening St. Augustine, and his design was to strike it before their plans were completed. He urged South Carolina to join him; but, without waiting for her help, he marched into Florida early in 1740, with four hundred soldiers and a strong force of Indians. On the march he dressed like a common soldier, and shared in all the privations.

Ogle-  
 thorpe's  
 Invasion  
 of  
 Florida,  
 1740

Oglethorpe invested Diego, a small fort twenty-five miles from the town. It held out but a short time, and placing a garrison in possession, he pushed on to Fort Moosa, two miles from St. Augustine, only to find that it had been abandoned by the Spaniards, who were gathered in the larger fortification.

The governor's force was too weak to hope for success, so he proceeded to Charleston to hasten the coming of the troops from that province. He came back with sufficient North and South Carolinians and Virginians to swell the attacking force, including Indians, to two thousand. He appeared before the fort in June, and summoned it to surrender. The demand was refused, and he invested it, a small squadron blockading the harbor, but the blockade was so weak that the enemy easily broke it whenever necessary. The English had no cannon of sufficient range to do effective work, and the sickly season was at hand. Among those stricken down by fever was the governor himself, who was compelled to abandon the siege.

No military events of moment took place in Georgia for a couple of years; but in May, 1742, two thousand troops, under Don Antonio de Rodondo, arrived at St. Augustine from Cuba.

Oglethorpe asked South Carolina to help him to repel the invasion that this foreshadowed, but the aid was withheld, and the governor prepared to do the best he could with the weak force at his command.

The captain-general of Florida arrived at St. Simon's Island, in July, with a fleet of thirty-six vessels, and a force of probably five thousand men. All the governor could muster of Highlanders, Indians, and negroes, was barely eight hundred. But the undaunted general said to his men: "We must protect Carolina and the rest of the colonies from destruction, or die in the attempt. For myself, I am prepared for all dangers. I know the enemy are far more numerous than we, but I rely on the valor of our men, and by God's help, I believe we shall be victorious."

St. Simon's was untenable, and, ordering his vessels to run up to Frederica, Oglethorpe spiked his guns and followed. The position taken was almost invulnerable, and he repulsed every attack made upon him. At Bloody Marsh, a body of Spanish troops was not only routed, but almost destroyed by an impetuous charge of the Highlanders. Then Oglethorpe assumed the offensive, encouraged by the knowledge that the quarrels between the forces from St. Augustine and Cuba were so bitter that they did not occupy the same encampments. He reached a point within a few miles of the Spanish position at night, and halted, intending to make the attack at day-break. While the situation was thus delicate, one of Oglethorpe's men suddenly fired his gun, and dashed out of the encampment. He was a spy, and was gone before any one could shoot him. The report of his musket was a signal to the enemy, and the governor saved himself from the crushing attack that he knew would be made, as soon as his weakness was known, by falling back upon Frederica.

Oglethorpe now put into execution a clever scheme to defeat the mischief threatened by the action of the deserter. He wrote a letter of instructions to him, as if he were really a British spy. He told him to impress upon the Spanish commander that Frederica was so weak that, if an immediate attack were made, its fall was certain. If the spy were unable to bring about the assault, he must manage to hold the Spanish forces where they were for three days more, during which time the Georgia troops would be reinforced by two thousand soldiers, escorted by six ships-of-war. Mention was also made of an attack soon to be made upon St. Augustine by Admiral Vernon, the English commander. The deserter was promised

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**An In-  
 genious  
 Scheme  
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a large sum in gold if he succeeded in carrying out these several instructions.

Now, of course, the greater portion of these "tall" stories were the identical ones which Oglethorpe knew the deserter would relate to the Spanish commander, and the aim of the governor was to throw discredit upon them. The letter was sealed and given to a Spanish prisoner, who was promised a large reward on condition that he de-



THE DESERTER

livered it privately to the deserter. Upon the arrival of the Spaniard in the enemy's camp, since he was not known, he was taken before the Spanish commander, searched, and the letter found on him.

This was just what Oglethorpe planned should take place. The real deserter was brought before the general, and ordered to give an account of himself. He told the truth, but that only placed him in a more suspicious position. In doubt what it all meant, the commander had the man put in irons until he could investigate more fully. He saw that, after all, the whole thing might be a stratagem of the English commander, who he did not intend should overreach him.



At this critical juncture, several ships with reinforcements from Charleston arrived. Nothing could have been more providential. The commander hanged the spy, and hurried back to St. Augustine to defend it from Admiral Vernon and the English fleet. By this singular chance were Georgia and Carolina saved from capture and probable destruction. The Spanish leader was dismissed in disgrace from the service, and the military fame of Oglethorpe was greatly increased. Whitefield pronounced the salvation of the provinces equal to any of the marvellous deliverances recorded in Holy Writ.

Having founded, colonized, defended, and firmly established the province of Georgia, Oglethorpe returned to England in 1743, and did valiant military service for his king. He was eighty years old when he was urged to take command of the military forces in America at the breaking out of the Revolution, but, as we have seen, was deemed too humane by the British ministry for the work. He lived to be nearly a hundred years old, with the brightness of his eyes undimmed, his form unbowed, and his faculties unimpaired. He was pronounced the handsomest old man of his time, and died universally revered for his brave, unselfish spirit, his commanding ability, and his many Christian virtues.

Rest and peace came for a time to Georgia, but the province nevertheless languished. The restrictive laws did not work well. The gifts received from the parent land, from time to time, amounted to three quarters of a million of dollars. The inhabitants became in consequence thriftless, and in 1752 there was not a town, but only three small villages, in the whole province. The white population numbered barely two thousand, and the exports of the colony amounted to little more than three thousand dollars annually. In June, 1752, just twenty years after the issuance of its charter, the trustees surrendered the patent to the Crown, and it became a royal province, and so remained until the Revolution. As a Crown colony an impetus was given to immigration and industry, and, in 1758, Georgia was divided into eight parishes, and the Church of England was by law established. Its progress continued with its prosperity, and not many years elapsed ere it earned the proud title of "the Empire State of the South."

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Oglethorpe's return to England

Georgia becomes A Royal Province



## PERIOD III.—ENGLAND AND FRANCE IN AMERICA

### CHAPTER XXII

#### *FRENCH COLONIZATION IN AMERICA*

[*Authorities* : The sources are many and important that throw light upon the interesting events related in the present chapter. They cover a period not only of heroic French exploration in the region of the Great Lakes, and southward, by the valley of the Mississippi, to the Gulf of Mexico, but of vital moment to the English colonies on the seaboard, in the daring aggressions of France in the Ohio Valley, which were presently to be checkmated by the combined action of Virginia and Maryland in the region west of the Alleghanies. The chief authorities on the period, in addition to the general histories, are Vols. IV. and V. of Winsor's "Narrative and Critical History of America," Winsor's "Cartier to Frontenac," Parkman's "Count Frontenac and New France under Louis XIV.," and the same writer's "La Salle, and the Discovery of the Great West," Sparks's "Life of La Salle," Shea's "Discovery and Exploration in the Mississippi Valley," together with Garneau's, Ferland's, and Kingsford's histories of Canada. For additional accounts of the Jesuit missions in New France, see "*Relations des Jesuites*" (Paris and Quebec), Le Clercq's "*L'Etablissement de la Foi*" (Dr. J. Gilmary Shea's translation), and Abbé Faillon's "*Histoire de la Colonie Française en Canada.*"



**G**REAT BRITAIN and France have for hundreds of years ranked among the greatest nations in the world, and during most of this period they have been rivals of each other. Their mutual wars have been almost innumerable; but it is to be hoped that their advance in Christian civilization, their enlightenment, and the growing favor of international arbitration, will avert forever the appalling consequences of further conflict between them.

We have completed the early study of what is known as the "thirteen original colonies," and learned the principal facts in the annals of each, down to the middle of the eighteenth century. It may seem that since our aim is to become acquainted with the his-

tory of our own country, and since all of those colonies were either settled by the English, or came into their possession before the opening of the Revolution, we have no concern with the doings of other European nations. The time has come, however, when we must glance at the work of the French in the way of colonization, for that work intruded upon the English field, and a tremendous struggle for supremacy between those mighty powers was soon to be fought out on the soil of the New World.

While the English settlements were fast spreading along the Atlantic coast from Maine to Florida, France was engaged with fitful vigor in colonizing Canada and pushing her conquest of the wilderness westward to the fur-bearing plains beyond the Red River, and southward through the Mississippi valley, where she aimed to establish an empire of such grandeur that it would overshadow the possessions of all other nations and make her mistress of the American continent. In this enterprise, the French displayed a wisdom which gave them an immense advantage over the English; they succeeded in winning the good will of the Indian tribes with which they chiefly came in contact and with whom they engaged in the pursuit of the fur trade. The most powerful agency in the accomplishment of this work was first the Récollets, then the Jesuits, who cheerfully underwent every hardship, privation, suffering, and peril in the hope of securing the conversion of the red men. These missionaries of the Cross took their lives in their hands, and many lost them in the depths of the dismal solitude, where the blinding snow, the resistless cyclone, the smothering heat, the arctic cold, starvation, and the fierce hostility of the savages, drove back every one else.

As long ago as the time of Champlain, the Jesuits helped him to cement an alliance with the Ottawas and the Hurons on the Georgian Bay, to the westward. Three of the priests of this order, Brebœuf, Daniel, and Davost, excited the wonder even of the savages by their sacrificing work and the cheerfulness with which they endured every trial of whatever nature, and even death, at the hands of the Iroquois, the inveterate enemies of their once kinsmen, the Hurons. These men tramped through the desolate woods with the Indians to the shores of distant Lake Huron, where they erected the first mission house of the Jesuits among the natives of the Huron country. The devotion of these priests brought its fruit in the conversion of scores, hundreds, and in some instances whole tribes of Indians who

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Jesuit  
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French  
 Priests  
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bowed at the rude altar shrines in the wilderness and became nominal Christians. The missionary work was steadily pushed, since it helped in every way the interests of France, for that nation, in addition to the moral aspect of the question, saw the almost inestimable gain in a political sense to her. By the middle of the seventeenth century, the conquest of the Jesuits had been carried from the gates of Quebec to the farthest post on the shores of Lake Superior. In 1656, two French traders and a company of Indians arrived at Quebec from a two years' absence in the west. The stories which they told of the wonderful country they had seen stirred the interest of every one in the colony, and both the church and the state resolved to take possession of the land. Father Allouez (*ăl'-loo-ā*) advanced without hesitation into the region, built mission houses, preached to the Chippewas and Sioux and proclaimed the king of France sovereign of the dusky people.

Father  
 Mar-  
 quette

While among the Sioux, Father Allouez heard of a mighty river, called by the Indians the Father of Waters. The news which he sent back to Quebec caused Fathers Marquette (*mar-ket'*) and Dablon to set out with the resolve to rear the cross in the very heart of the distant solitudes. These two men labored with much success among the Chippewas and aided the political designs of Joliet, who followed them thither. Marquette's interest in the Mississippi was deepened by the many accounts he heard from the Indians regarding it, and he and Joliet ascended the Fox River to the watershed between the immense streams and the Lakes. They used light birch canoes, which were carried across to the Wisconsin, down which they floated to the main river itself, called by the Indians "Mississippi," meaning The Great Water. Marquette and his companions descended the chief stream, past the turbid Missouri and the clearer waters of the Ohio and other rivers, stopping at many points to hold friendly meetings with the natives. They continued their course down the stream until, satisfied that it did not flow into the Atlantic or the Pacific oceans, the little party turned about and reached Green Bay, in Lake Michigan, early in the autumn. They used light sails over their canoes and found their help valuable. Marquette labored for two years more among the Indians in the country surrounding the present city of Chicago. Then, worn out by toil and suffering, he lay down and peacefully died, surrounded by his loving companions, who laid him tenderly in the earth and marked the grave with a large

cross. Father Marquette was one of the several discoverers of the Mississippi whose memory will always be cherished by those that come after him.

Let us now go back to the latter part of the seventeenth century. It was an important period in our history. New England was in a prosperous condition and had just brought King Philip's War to a close; Bacon's Rebellion had been subdued in Virginia; New York had passed from under Dutch to English rule, and William Penn was turning his attention to America as a land of refuge for the per-

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MARQUETTE AND HIS COMPANIONS

secuted of his sect. It was at this time that the most remarkable of all explorations of the Mississippi was made by the Frenchman, René Robert Cavalier, known in American history from an estate of his family in France, as the Sieur de la Salle (*läh-säl*).

It has been already shown that the Spaniards were the real discoverers of the Mississippi. In 1519, Pineda described a great river flowing from the north, which must have been the Father of Waters, seen twenty-two years later by De Soto, who reached the stream about the middle of its course. La Salle\* belonged to an old

La  
 Salle

\* The Sieur de la Salle [1643-1687], was in early life a member of the Society of Jesus, but, renouncing the church, came to Canada in 1666, during Count Frontenac's

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and rich burgher family at Rouen. He was educated for the priesthood, but his ardent temperament and independent bearing led him to adopt a secular life. Having a brother a member of the Sulpician order in Canada, he joined him at the age of twenty-three years. Young La Salle obtained a grant of territory at the head of the rapids of the St. Lawrence, and, by the close of 1668, had begun a palisaded post, subsequently known as Fort Frontenac, and had a considerable tract of land under cultivation. His intention seemed to have been to spend his life there as a landed gentleman; but he soon became so fascinated with visions of exploration that nothing else possessed any charm for him. One day, in the winter of 1668-69, a party of Seneca Indians visited the post, and in their picturesque way described the course of a river, rising in their country and flowing southward for so great a distance that it would take a canoe, as they said, eight or nine months to follow it to the sea. Since this represented more miles than belonged to the Mississippi, mighty as it is, they must have included with it the course of the Alleghany and the Ohio rivers. In this great stream, La Salle saw the waterway which had been searched for in vain ever since the time of Cartier, and which he believed must have its outlet in the Gulf of California. If such were the fact, it would give to France a water highway to the South Sea, and a route to China, as convenient as that which the Spaniards followed from Acapulco (*ä-kä-pōōl'-kō*).

Fired by the resolve to explore this great stream, La Salle applied to the authorities of Quebec for help. Count Frontenac, then gov-

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administration, and acquired a seigniory on the St. Lawrence, near the site of the present Canadian city of Kingston, Ont. Fond of adventure, he brought himself to the notice of Governor Frontenac, by his activity in extending the outposts and influence of the French among the Western tribes, and Frontenac made him commandant of the fort at the foot of Lake Ontario and aided him materially in prosecuting his explorations. In 1674, he visited France to report upon his discoveries, and there received important grants from the crown, and was also ennobled. He returned to Canada in 1678 and traversed the Great Lakes, founding outposts of France on the site of what is now the city of Detroit, and at Michilimackinac, on the Straits of Mackinaw. Entering Lake Michigan, he sailed across to Green Bay, from which he proceeded southward to the St. Joseph River, on the banks of which he established Fort Miamis, and also founded a trading-post on the site of modern Chicago. In 1682, he descended the Illinois and the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico and named the region Louisiana. In the following year, he returned to France, and, in 1684, proceeded once more to the mouth of the Mississippi, with the design of founding a colony. Failing to reach his destination he spent a couple of years in Texas, and in 1687 lost his life, as we shall presently see, in a fruitless attempt to reach the Mississippi—the goal of his hopes.

ernor of New France, gave him letters patent, authorizing him to make discoveries, and commended him to the rulers in Virginia and Florida, should his researches take him into their dominions. Thus armed, as may be said, La Salle returned to Cataraqui, at the foot of Lake Ontario, where, as has been related, he erected a fort, and in July, 1669, sold all his landed property, and, on the day that the deed was signed, his little flotilla left the post at the head of the St. Lawrence and steered westward. His party numbered twenty, most of whom he had selected, the rest being furnished by the Sulpicians, who wished to establish an agency of their order in the western region. La Salle first went to the Seneca villages for guides. Passing into Lake Ontario, he followed the southern shore to Irondequoit Bay, and there made his way to the Jesuit mission, only to find that the missionaries had gone to Onondaga. They had left an interpreter behind who told them of a broad prairie land to the south, which stretched many miles, without trees, and of a people who lived in a warm and productive country, near a river whose flow was such that it must empty into the Mexican Gulf or the Vermilion Sea. The river thus referred to was the then undiscovered Ohio. Heading westward, the flotilla passed the Niagara River without entering, but heard the distant roar of the cataract, and in time reached the extreme western end of Lake Ontario. At that point the party divided, the Sulpicians taking the trail to Grand River and Lake Erie. The precise course of La Salle after parting with the Sulpicians is not known with certainty. The claim has been made that he discovered the Ohio in 1670, and by it reached the Mississippi, and that a year later he went by Lake Michigan to the Chicago portage, and reached the "Great Water" a second time by the channel of the Illinois. In Montreal, however, the expedition was considered as having wholly failed of its object.

Count Frontenac was appointed governor of New France, in 1672, and the following year he strengthened the fort named in honor of himself, at Cataraqui [now Kingston, Ontario], at the eastern end of Lake Ontario. He formed plans also at Niagara for another fort and for building a vessel on Lake Erie, his object being to shut out the Dutch and English from the waters of the upper lakes. He was a friend of La Salle, and in 1674 sent him to France to urge the favoring of his plans by the French government. La Salle did his duty so well that the king granted Fort Frontenac and the adjacent

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La  
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lands to him as a seigniory, and in recognition of the services he proposed to render in New France gave to the explorer a patent of nobility. He was bound to an agreement to rebuild the fort of stone masonry,—apparently a trifling condition, but one which afterwards caused trouble. La Salle occupied himself for a time in increasing the efficiency of Frontenac as a trading-post. He did this work effectually, gathering settlers within the walls, and afterwards made his way, in company with a Franciscan missionary and explorer, named Father Hennepin, to the Falls of Niagara, which it is supposed they were the first white men to see. Passing on beyond the falls, La Salle built and launched a small vessel, called *The Griffin*, on Lake Erie. No doubt he had come to believe that it was easy to open communication with the Mississippi valley by way of the Maumee and Wabash, and to extend French trade beyond Niagara in that direction.

Tonti  
 Joins  
 La Salle

In 1677, La Salle again visited France, where he obtained authority from the king to establish, during a term of five years, other posts to the south and west of Fort Frontenac. His relatives advanced him the needed funds, and he secured the support of a remarkable man named the Chevalier Tonti. He was the son of an Italian refugee and stood loyally by the explorer to the end. It is worth while perhaps to know that the system of Tontine life insurance received its name from this person. La Salle sailed from Rochelle, France, in 1678, taking with him shipwrights and mechanics, including anchors, sails, and cordage, for the vessel he built on Lake Erie. Now came three years of severe trial to La Salle. The vessel built for Lake Erie foundered; another vessel begun on the banks of the Illinois River, had to be abandoned; efforts to establish fortified posts on the same river failed, and the explorer was repeatedly betrayed and deserted by friends whom he trusted. Finally, in August, 1681, he again faced westward with about fifty persons in his train, and in the course of three months reached Fort Miami, where he divided his party. The larger division, under Tonti and a French priest named Membré (*maum'brā*), passed around the head of Lake Michigan one hundred miles to the Chicago River, and then dragged their loads over nearly three hundred miles of frozen streams to the Illinois. Following the Kan Ka Kee route, La Salle joined them early in January, 1682. Open water was found for their canoes at Fort Crèvecoeur (*krěv-kuir*), La Salle's ruined





FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY W. H. LIPPINCOTT

LA SALLE TAKES POSSESSION OF THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY FOR FRANCE

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post on the Illinois, and February 6th they glided out upon the Mississippi, known at the time as the Colbert River.\* The canoes floated past the mouth of the Osage (Missouri) and the Ohio, which La Salle it seems failed to identify as the stream discovered by him in 1669, probably because he supposed that river reached the sea through a basin east of the Mississippi.

In February, 1682, the explorers had penetrated southward to the third Chickasaw bluff, and the following month found them in the region of the Arkansas Indians. On the 14th of March, La Salle planted a post upon which he hung the arms of France, as notice to all that the whole Mississippi valley was claimed by that country. Entering the territory of the Natchez Indians, the Frenchmen were impressed by their ways and manner of worship. A peculiar religious caste was found among them, and one of their buildings was dignified with the name of a temple. La Salle slept in their village and again set up the emblem of French authority. The mouth of the Red River was passed in the latter part of March, and on April 6th they saw the Mississippi divide into three channels. The party separated into the same number of divisions, and La Salle led one of them down the western passage. Three days later, they came together again and an interesting ceremony was performed within one of the outlets. The usual column was set up, proclamation was made in the name of the king, and France assumed dominion over the whole watershed of the great stream. The *Voxilla Regis* and *Te Deum* were sung, a notary drew up the record, and the immense stretch took its name in history as Louisiana. A leaden plate, with the facts engraved upon it, was buried at the foot of the columns.

Immense  
 Area of  
 Louisiana in  
 1684

Now observe the enormous area of ancient Louisiana as contrasted with that of the present large State of that name. The boundaries, as fixed in 1684, were the Gulf of Mexico westward to the Rio Grande, thence northwesterly to the vague watershed of what is now known as the Rocky Mountains, with a shadowy line along the sources of the upper Mississippi and its higher tributaries, bounding on the height of land which shut off the valley of the great Lakes until the Appalachians were reached. The line followed these mountains south, kept to the northern limits of Spanish Florida, and then

\* So named after the great French statesman, Jean Baptiste Colbert (*kol-bār'*), Louis XIV's minister of state and controller-general. Colbert died at Paris in 1683, in his sixty-fourth year.

turned to the Gulf. It is difficult to conceive the vast extent of this domain. The floods which coursed the great basin drained an area of more than twelve hundred thousand square miles. La Salle was the first Frenchman to reach the mouth of the Mississippi from the north.

The return was begun with gloomy prospects. Food was so scarce that they were glad to eat the flesh of alligators, and the Indians were hostile. Several fights took place, and La Salle was ill for six weeks, during which time no one believed he could recover. When

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THE HARDSHIPS OF THE EXPLORERS

the journey was resumed, he was so weak that he could hardly walk. He was anxious to reach Quebec, but upon entering the Illinois country was obliged to stay for some time to protect the missionaries and traders. De la Barre was now governor of New France, and he rewarded La Salle for his discoveries by taking away his forts at Frontenac, on Lake Ontario, and at Starved Rock, on the Illinois River. When La Salle, as full of pluck as ever, landed in France, December 23, 1683, he was bankrupt. The importance of the work done by the intrepid explorer was partly recognized in his native land. When he submitted to the king his scheme for conducting an expe-

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La  
 Salle's  
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dition to the mouths of the Mississippi, it was accepted, and he was treated more liberally by his sovereign than he had asked. His commission authorized him to plant colonies in Louisiana, and to govern the enormous territory from Lake Michigan to the Gulf of Mexico. He was also furnished with one war-ship, the *Joly*, of thirty-six guns, another of six guns, and two smaller craft. He had a force of marines, a hundred soldiers, and nearly three hundred other persons, including women and children.

This little fleet sailed July 24th, but did not leave the island of San Domingo until November 25th. When land was sighted, a month later, it was believed to be Appalachee Bay, three hundred miles east of the Mississippi, when in fact the vessels were a hundred miles west of that river, and in the vicinity of Atchafalaya Bay. Here La Salle anchored and waited for the *Joly*, which he had outsailed. On January 6th, he discovered an opening, which it is believed was Galveston Bay, and landed a few days later on what was probably Matagorda Island. The *Joly* soon appeared, and her captain and La Salle mutually blamed each other, and finally separated. One of the ships was wrecked on a sand-bar, and, as another had been captured by the Spaniards, the *Joly* and a small messenger vessel were the only craft left. The company landed and intrenched a camp, which was a wise precaution, since the Indians attacked them, killed several of the French, and fired the prairie. Disease made ravages, too, and when the captain with the *Joly* sailed for France, March 12, 1685, the colony, which had lost itself, was left to its fate, whatever that might prove to be. Convinced, at last, that he had gone far astray, La Salle set out to search for the mouth of the Mississippi. Before doing so, he built, with the material of the wrecked vessel, Fort St. Louis, on a river a short distance from the head of the bay. The fort was finished in July, 1685, and during the following year and a half two unsuccessful attempts were made to reach the Mississippi by land expeditions eastward and northeastward. When La Salle returned from his second expedition, he found that death and desertion had reduced his company to forty-five souls.

The situation was now so desperate that twenty men were left at Fort St. Louis, while La Salle set out with the remainder on his final search for the Mississippi. Nothing was ever again heard of the garrison that remained behind. In the party under charge of La Salle were his nephew Moranget (*mō-ran-gé*), and a man named Du-

haut (*du-hō'*). Starting in January, 1687, they followed a course mainly northward. The rain fell almost incessantly, compelling them to spend much of their time in camp, where idleness and discontent set them to plotting, a fact of which La Salle seemed to have had no suspicion.

About the middle of March, the explorer found himself within a few miles of a spot on the southern branch of the Trinity River, where, on his previous visit, he had buried a quantity of corn. He sent some of the men to recover it, while he and the remainder of the party stayed behind. Those who went after the corn found it spoiled, but they killed a buffalo and sent back for the horses to take the meat into camp. The nephew of La Salle, while a division of the meat was under way, quarrelled with Duhaut, who shot him, and the company split into two bitter factions. The friends of Duhaut conspired to kill La Salle also, and the opportunity was not long in coming.

The explorer feeling anxious over the delay in the return of the foraging party, set out with one companion to learn the cause. As he drew near the camp, he fired his gun to attract attention. This gave the conspirators time to prepare an ambush. When he came within close range, two shots from the tall brakes stretched him lifeless. The body was stripped and left a prey to the wolves. The murder of La Salle did not become known in France until October, 1688. Nothing was done to rescue the miserable remnants of the colony left on the shore of the Gulf. Finally an order was sent to the governor of Canada to arrest the assassins if they appeared in that province, but no one was ever punished for the crime.

The energy shown by La Salle in his explorations was typical of the vigor of the French nation in conquering the American wilderness. Within the half-century following his death, France had made permanent settlements on the Maumee, at Detroit, at the mouth of the St. Joseph, at Green Bay, at Vincennes (*vīn-senz'*), on the Mississippi at the mouth of the Kaskaskia, on the site of Natchez, and at the head of Biloxi (*bīl-ox'-i*) Bay, on the Gulf of Mexico. By the middle of the eighteenth century, the French claimed dominion over all the American continent north of the Spanish possessions, excepting the strip along the Atlantic occupied by the English settlements. They were not content even with these possessions: they coveted the whole country and set about to obtain it. The cordon

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of fortifications between Montreal and New Orleans were more than sixty in number, and, as the next step, France now prepared to occupy the Ohio Valley. This done, the English provinces would not have a foothold west of the Alleghanies. The steady intrusion of the French alarmed the English, and especially the inhabitants of Virginia and Maryland, who had proposed planting an English colony west of the Alleghanies. The king ordered the governor of Virginia to grant to a company of speculators half a million acres of land, lying to the north of Ohio, between the mouth of the Kanawha and the site of the present city of Pittsburg. The name of the association was The Ohio Land Company, against which no claim for quit-rent was to be made for a period of ten years. The company was required to settle at least one hundred families on the tract, and to build a fort. One of the proprietors was Robert Dinwiddie, of Scotland, surveyor-general for the southern colonies, and afterwards lieutenant-governor of Virginia. The English at that time in America numbered about a million and a half, and the French only one hundred thousand.

The Ohio  
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 pany

By her ancient charter, Virginia claimed all the country between her western borders and Lake Erie, and the formation of the Ohio Company was for the purpose of shutting out intruders. Thomas Lee, Augustine and Lawrence Washington, and other Virginia members of the company, ordered goods sent from London suitable for the Indian trade, and took measures to secure the friendship of the red men within the territory. In order to gain accurate information of the tract where it was evident the first collision would take place, Christopher Gist, one of the most famous scouts and woodmen of his time, was sent into the territory to make a thorough examination, learn all about the Indians, and prepare a chart of the territory. Gist set out from Alexandria, in October, 1750, travelling on horseback. He made his way across the Blue Ridge and the Shenandoah Valley, his horse at times floundering through the deep snow or swimming the icy streams, and finally reached Logstown, where it was intended to hold an Indian council. Gist said he was an ambassador from King George. The chief was cordial, but the warriors looked at their visitor askance. They told him plainly that he would never be allowed to settle on the lands in the Ohio Valley; but Gist was a brave man, and, instead of turning back, pushed forward to the Muskingum, where the Wyandots received him in a friendly spirit. At

their village, he found an agent of the Pennsylvanians, who were astir, through fear that the Ohio Company would get a monopoly of trade with the Indians of the northwest. In company with the agent and several traders, Gist visited the Delawares and Shawanoes, both of which tribes expressed good-will towards the English and promised to attend a general council at Logstown.

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The next visit was to the powerful confederacy of the Miamis, who made a treaty of peace and alliance with the English. Gist was filled with admiration for the beautiful country and went on almost to the Falls of the Ohio, and into the blue-grass region of Kentucky. He had traversed an enormous extent of territory, and at the end of seven months went back with his information to Lawrence Washington, at Mount Vernon, who was the leading director of the Ohio Company. The great council of the western tribes was not held until June, 1752. Gist was present as the agent of the Ohio Company, and Virginia was represented by several commissioners. The Indians agreed to hold friendly relations with the English, but sturdily refused to recognize their title to lands west of the Alleghanies. They were equally determined with the French. One of the chiefs said: "You English claim all the land on one side of the river and the French all on the other side: where is *our* land?" Gist replied: "The red and white men are subjects of the British king, and all have the same right in taking up and occupying the land in accordance with the laws he has made."

Council  
 of the  
 Western  
 Tribes,  
 1752

The Ohio Company pressed its work with vigor. Surveyors were sent into the country to prepare it for settlement, and the English traders penetrated further and further and built up a trade with the Indians. The French became alarmed, for they saw in this movement a proof of their waning influence with the tribes and a menace to their fortified line extending from the St. Lawrence to the Gulf of Mexico. So in 1753 they seized and imprisoned a number of English traders and surveyors and sent more than a thousand soldiers to build forts between Lake Erie and the headwaters of the Alleghany. It is worth noting that one of these stood on the present site of Erie, then known as Presque Isle (*pres-keel'*), on the southern shore of the lake of that name; another, now Waterford, was Le Bœuf (*leh-bœuf'*), and a third was at the junction of French Creek and the Alleghany River, where now is the town of Franklin. This action gave offence to the Ohio Company, and since its lands lay within the

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jurisdiction of Virginia, that province felt it to be her duty to defend the rights of the company. The governors of Virginia and Pennsylvania had been ordered from England to drive out the French intruders, by force of arms if necessary, for the feeling in both provinces, especially in Virginia, which was most directly interested, was deep. Dinwiddie, a leading director of the Ohio Company, was now governor of Virginia.\* He was an able man, and decided, before taking extreme measures, to send a protest to the French commander, M. de St. Pierre (*săn pē-air'*), who was at Le Bœuf. So he prepared a strong remonstrance against the intrusion of the French into English or Virginian territory, and then, without hesitation, picked out the man to carry the letter, through the five hundred miles of wilderness, to the distant French post.

\* Robert Dinwiddie (1690-1770), Crown Governor of Virginia from 1752 to 1758, figures interestingly in history from his friendly regard for the youthful Washington, at the outset of the latter's career, and whom he intrusted with his first mission, half military, half diplomatic, to the commander of the French posts on the Ohio. Dinwiddie, who was a Scotchman of rather irascible temper, was for a time a civil servant of the Crown in the West Indies, where he held a post in the Imperial Customs. In 1752, he was appointed Lieutenant-Governor of Virginia, and one of his earliest acts, after organizing the militia of the colony into districts, was to appoint Washington, then in his twenty-first year, to the command of one of them, with the rank of major. During his régime, he was active in inciting the colony to resist French encroachments on the western frontier, in which Washington conspicuously figured. When the troubles increased, he fell to wrangling with the Colonial Assembly, and when the latter retorted, and almost threatened impeachment, he returned to England in 1758, and died there twelve years later. Some years before his departure, the governor promoted Washington to the rank of lieutenant-colonel; but as the colonial levies were to be placed under royal officers, and no native officer was to hold a rank higher than that of captain, Washington resigned, though he afterwards served under Braddock as a volunteer aide-de-camp.



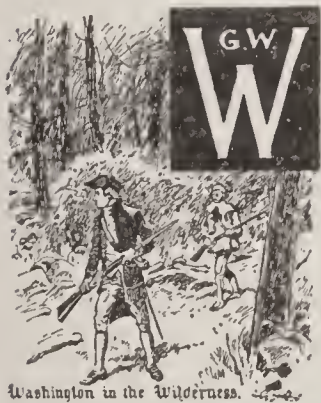




## CHAPTER XXIII

### *YOUNG WASHINGTON'S JOURNEY THROUGH THE WILDERNESS*

[*Authorities :* The present chapter brings us to the fateful era when, as it has been said, "the firing of a gun in the woods of North America brought on a conflict which drenched Europe in blood." The conflict is known as the "Seven Years' War."\* Hostilities between the two nations were precipitated in the valley of the Ohio by the encroachment of the English. In the collision between the two races, the youthful Washington, it will be seen, figures and begins to play his great rôle in the history of the Anglo-American colonies. The expedition on which he now sets forth brought the young officer into collision with Jumonville, and a small French command, which he partly killed, and partly took captive, a proceeding so precipitate as to incite the French to further hostilities, and which led to a long and bitter controversy. In the encounter, Washington's personal bravery was early exemplified, though the consequences of the collision were more far-reaching than either he or the colonies at the time thought possible. The present and next following chapter will apprise the reader of what occurred. The authorities for the period, besides Bancroft's and Hildreth's histories, and Winsor's "Narrative and Critical History," are Hart's "Formation of the Union," Frothingham's "Rise of the Republic," Fiske's "The American Revolution," the Canadian histories of Garneau and Kingsford, the English histories of Green and Lecky, and the biographies of Washington, by Sparks, H. C. Lodge, and Washington Irving.]



WE have said that Governor Dinwiddie had no hesitation in selecting the right man to perform the delicate and dangerous duty he had in view. The person whom he had selected was about twenty-one years old, six feet two inches in height, and the swiftest runner, the longest thrower, the best wrestler, the most skilful horseman, the strongest swimmer, and the finest athlete in all the country round. Besides these striking physical traits, he was truthful, high-

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\* During the eight years' peace with France that followed the Treaty of Aix-la-Cha-

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minded, a fine soldier and an experienced surveyor, and withal the soul of honor, a person, in short, who from his earliest boyhood lived in accordance with the Golden Rule.

Having related this much, there can hardly be any need of naming the person entrusted with the commission. His honored name, George Washington, stands on the bead-roll of his country. Washington was born in a large, old-fashioned house in Westmoreland county, Virginia, February 22, 1732. Sometimes the date is given as February 11, O. S. This is in accordance with the Old Style of reckoning. Towards the close of the last century, the astronomers saw that in order to record time as it should be recorded, it was necessary to add eleven days to the date then current, because we were drifting behindhand. This was done, the method being referred to as N. S. or New Style. Then perfectly to adjust matters it was decided that in every period of four hundred years, three leap years should be omitted. Thus A.D. 1900 is not a leap year; A.D. 2000 will be, and then the even centuries will not be leap years until A.D. 2400 comes round. All the even centuries that are divisible by 400 are leap years and the others are not.

Now, if any American youths happened to be born February 29,

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pelle, there had been considerable ill-feeling, as is shown in the present chapter, between the English and French colonists in America, and in distant India, which led, in 1756, to a renewal of hostilities between the two countries, on England's taking the side of Prussia in the Seven Years' War. This war had broken out between Frederick the Great and a confederacy of European Powers, consisting mainly of Austria, Russia, Spain, and France, the object of the confederacy being to crush the growing power of Frederick and to partition Prussia. Between England and France, aside from European complications, there was cause enough for war, in the desire of both nations to settle who should be the masters of India and North America. On the latter continent, France, as we have seen, colonized Canada and Louisiana, while England, as we already know, had established colonies along that part of the Atlantic coast which separated the French settlements. To connect the latter and to exclude England from the great fur trade of the interior, France began to erect a series of military posts from the Niagara River to the mouth of the Mississippi. This action was naturally resented by Britain and her American colonies, and, in 1755, the conflict began, as we shall discover in the chapter following this, by an attack on the French forts in the Ohio Valley. The English, as we shall find, however, were at first not successful, and their general, Braddock, was in the following year mortally wounded and his troops defeated while marching to attack Fort Du Quesne. From the disastrous consequences of this defeat, the English and colonial troops were in large measure saved by the tactics of young Washington, who now comes upon the scene and enters upon his notable career. Subsequent successes in other parts of the Continent atoned for the disaster, and three years later came the fall of French dominion in the New World, and, within the same period, the supremacy of English arms was asserted in India.

1896, they will have to wait eight years before reaching their second birthday, but no doubt their parents will see that they are not deprived for so long of a celebration of the anniversary of their birth. George Washington was a diligent student at school, though he never attended any college, and he cannot be said ever to have become a profound scholar. He was popular with his classmates, since he not only surpassed them all in athletic sports, but always "played fair." He never deceived another, or took a wrong or questionable advantage of any one. He was so honest in this respect, that when the other boys got into a dispute they appealed to him to decide it, and every one was satisfied, for whatever he said was right. The game of base-ball was unknown in those days, therefore one cannot be quite sure that there might not have been a situation in which the youth could be placed where his decisions would not always have given satisfaction.

Young Washington had a liking for military matters. His brother Lawrence, being the elder, was sent to England to be educated and became an officer in the British army. It kindled George's ardor when he looked at his handsome brother in his fine uniform, and he drilled his playmates, with their wooden guns, and fought many sham battles, with as much earnestness as if they were real soldiers. Lawrence was proud of George because he was manly and brave, and, moreover, was clean in his words and actions. He saw what a splendid midshipman he would make, and advised him to become one. Nothing could have suited the younger brother better, and he made ready to go to sea. The expression on his mother's face, however, told the son that something troubled her, and when he tenderly asked the cause she said she could not bear the thought of his leaving her. "Then I shall *not* go," said George, glad that it was in his power to bring back the sunshine to the face that was dearer to him than all the world beside. The reader may be sure that the mother was gratified at this evidence of filial consideration, for George's father had died when the boy was only eleven years old, and he was left in charge of the noble woman, who lived to see her son become the greatest man ever born in America. One cannot help thinking how different would have been the history of our country if Washington had not cared for his mother and had become a midshipman in the British navy. George was so skilful a surveyor that when he was but sixteen years old, Lord Fairfax, who was very

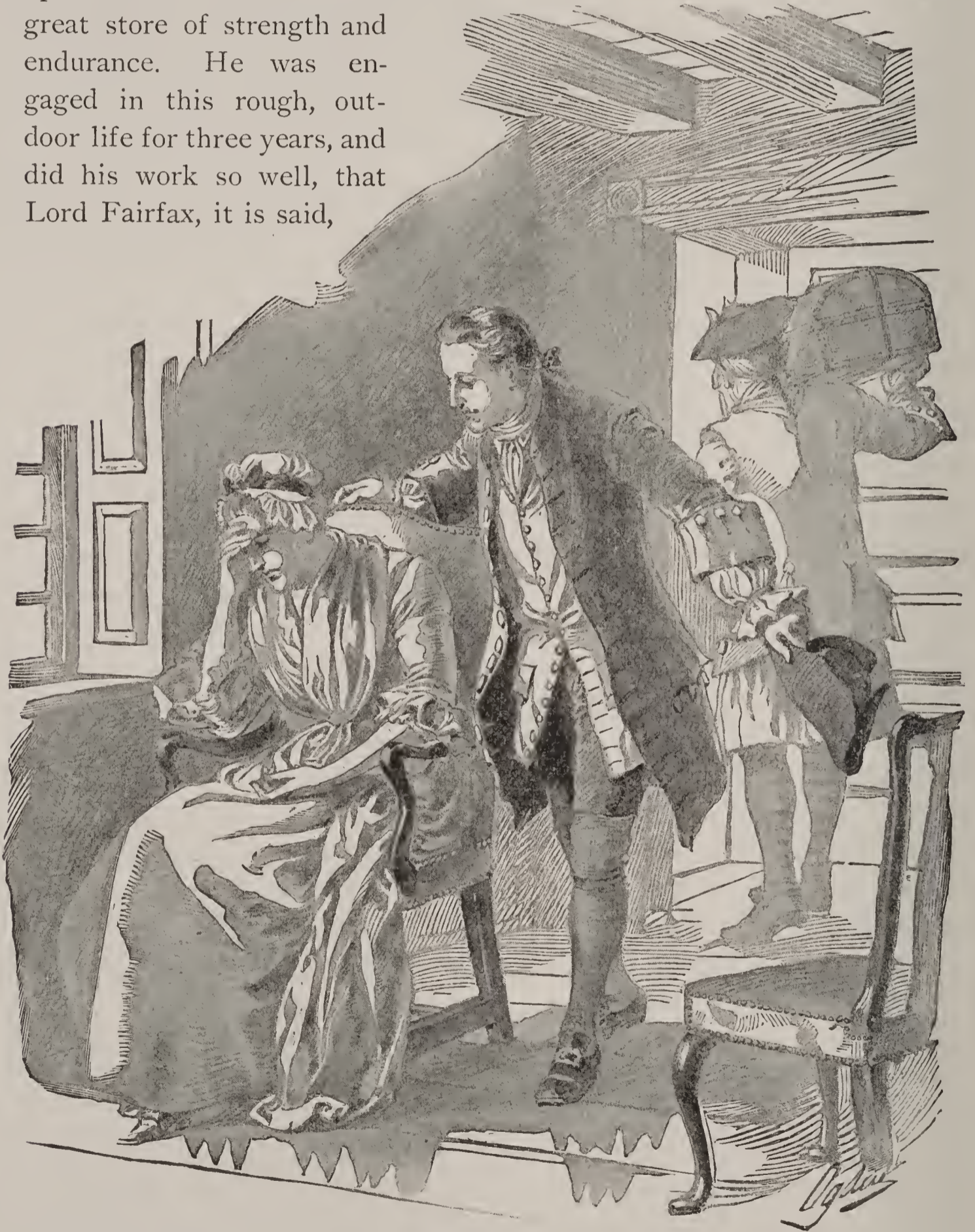
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His Dutifulness

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AND FRANCE  
IN  
AMERICA  
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fond of the lad, hired him to survey an immense area of mountainous wilderness. The youth traversed tracts of the Virginia solitudes, climbing rugged hills, swimming his horse through turbid torrents, sleeping in the open woods beside his lonely camp-fire, shooting a wild turkey or deer when in need of food, and building up a robust health and a great store of strength and endurance. He was engaged in this rough, outdoor life for three years, and did his work so well, that Lord Fairfax, it is said,



WASHINGTON AND HIS MOTHER

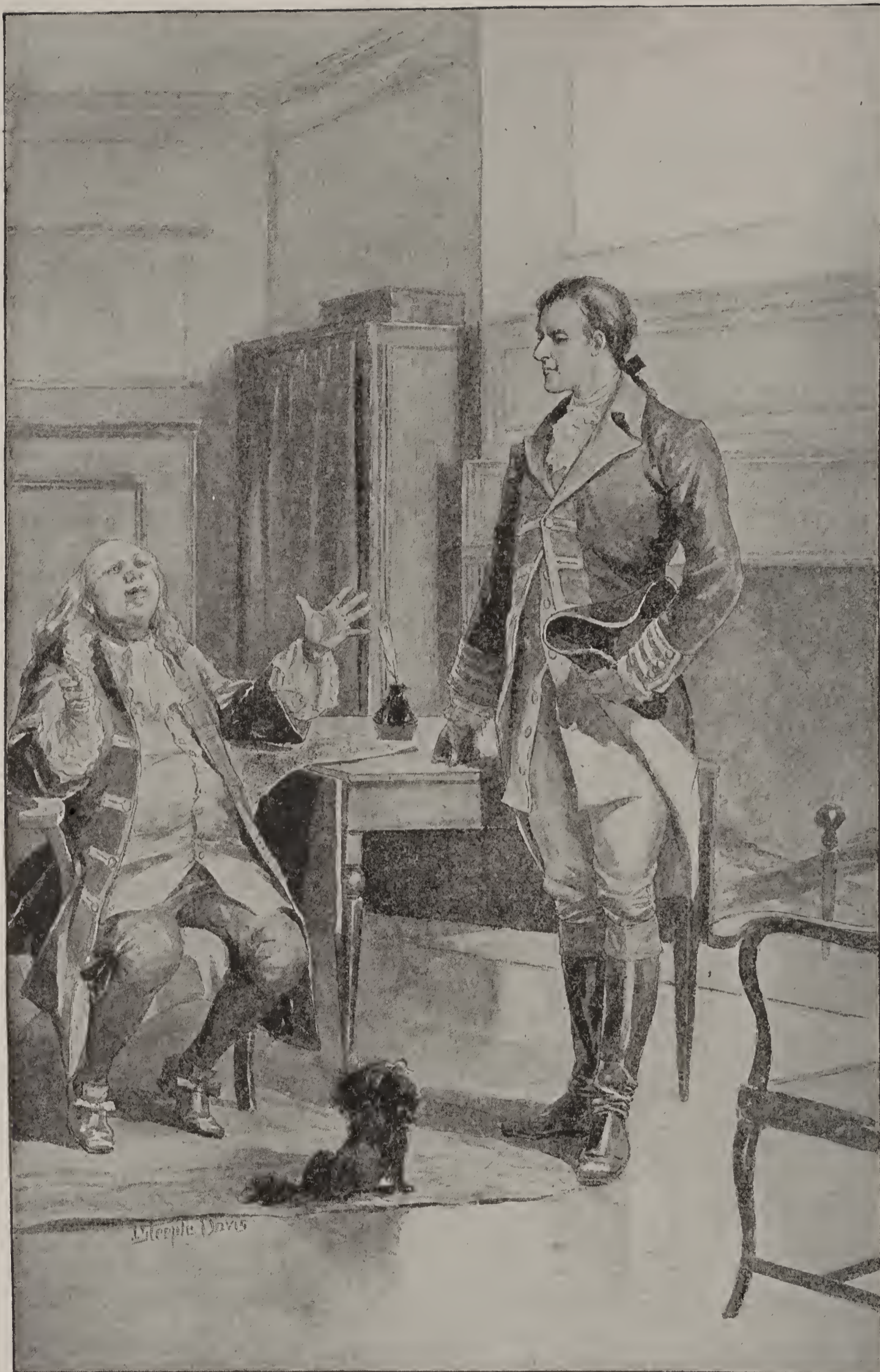
paid him very liberally for his services. In many cases the young man's pay amounted to twenty dollars a day.

At nineteen years of age Washington was made a major of militia. He received lessons in military drill from a veteran swordsman, and was so well liked that when the change in the militia organization of Virginia took place, and it became necessary to relieve most of the officers, Washington was kept in command of one of the military districts. So Governor Dinwiddie, one day in October, 1753, sent a request to Major Washington to call at his office, at Williamsburg, which was then the capital of Virginia. The young officer obeyed with alacrity. The meeting in the governor's plainly furnished office was an interesting one. Dinwiddie was more than three-score years old, short, stout, with a bald head, and very nervous and fidgety in his manner. He looked admiringly at the stalwart Virginian, towering above him, with his florid face, his noble mien, and fine physique, and explained the delicate mission which he wished to intrust to him. Washington replied that he would be ready to set out as soon as the letter to the French commander should be placed in his hands.

Now the reader must not suppose that all Washington had to do was to carry the governor's letter to the French post, five hundred miles away, and bring back the officer's reply. That of itself was a great task, but much more was required of him. He was to proceed to Logstown, on the right bank of the Ohio, fourteen miles below the site of Pittsburg, bring together the leading Indian chiefs in that region, explain to them the purpose of his visit, and ask them to give him an escort to the headquarters of the French commander, to whom the governor's letter was to be handed, and from whom a reply was to be brought; learn, if possible, the number of French troops that had crossed the lake; the number and strength of the enemy's forts, their location, and, in brief, to gather all the information possible about the doings and intentions of the French in the region. Washington left Williamsburg, October 31st, 1753. His companions were John Davidson, Indian interpreter, Jacob Van Braam, who spoke French, Christopher Gist, the hunter, who acted as guide, and four other men, two of whom were Indian traders. They took with them extra horses, tents, and baggage. At the mouth of Will's Creek, now the Cumberland, Maryland, they bade good-by to civilization and climbed over the Alleghany Mountains, which, early as it was in the season, were already covered with snow.

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His  
 Early  
 Mission



FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY J. STEEPLE DAVIS  
WASHINGTON AND GOVERNOR DINWIDDIE

What might seem, during its early stages, a pleasant excursion was accompanied by the severest hardships. The valley streams were overflowing, and such as could not be waded, were crossed on treacherous rafts, which often broke apart and plunged the men into the chilling waters. The month of November was nearly gone when they arrived at the Forks of the Ohio, where Pittsburg now stands. There they rested a few days and then made their way to Logstown. They had now reached a point within one hundred and twenty miles of the headquarters of M. de St. Pierre, the French commander.

Among the Indians gathered at Logstown was a chief named Half-King, who had protested against the invasion of his country by the French, but was thrust aside. He was a strong friend of the English under the ingenuous belief that they came merely to establish trade, when in truth their purpose was the same as that of the French. Half-King, with two other chiefs and a trained warrior, agreed to escort the eight Virginians to the French headquarters. Still meeting all manner of hardships and perils, the party early in December reached Fort Venango (now Franklin), which was a French outpost in charge of M. Joncaire (*jon-kār'*). He received the white men with courtesy, but tried to persuade, without success, the Indians to desert them. Ascending the French Creek, the party reached Fort Le Bœuf, where the French commandant was found. He was a polite old soldier, who treated his visitors with courtesy, entertaining them for four days, at the end of which he handed his sealed reply to Washington. Meanwhile, the young Virginian had kept his eyes and ears open and obtained valuable information. Expressing his thanks to M. de St. Pierre for his hospitality, Washington and his companions set out on their return journey to Williamsburg.

It was now the depth of winter, and the return was a great deal harder than had been the coming. The weather became intensely cold, and the snow in many places was several feet deep. When the party reached Venango, the pack-horses were so exhausted that they gave out. Washington and Gist dismounted, and turned over their animals to assist in carrying the baggage. Then each strapped a few articles on his back, and these two hardy fellows bade their friends good-by and pressed forward on foot through the sleet and snow and fearful cold. One needed to have rugged health and great endurance to undergo the experience that was theirs day after day and night after night. The soft, crunching snow often reached

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Chief  
 Half-  
 King

Meeting  
 with the  
 French  
 Com-  
 mander

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The  
 Return  
 Journey

above their knees, and the heavy boots were at times saturated with the rain and slush. The ice which bore them for some distance from shore sometimes gave away further out and let them sink to their armpits in the current rushing beneath. In the natural openings or clearings, the gale blinded them with the whirling snow. Many a time, on rising in the morning, their wet clothing was frozen to their bodies. Not one man in a thousand could have undergone what young Washington and the veteran Gist passed through. But they bravely pushed on until they stood on the bank of the Alleghany River, whose swollen current was filled with masses of rushing ice. There was only one way of crossing the stream, which was by means of a raft. They spent the day in putting it together, and shoved out from shore as the wintry night was closing in. They were instantly in danger of having the structure knocked to fragments. Washington was plying a pole with all his strength, when the action of the ice flung him into water a dozen feet deep. On his back was his pack, with his rifle strapped to it, and his clothing was thick and cumbrous, so that, despite his great power and skill, he might have been drowned had he not seized one of the logs of the raft that was knocked apart by the force of the current. The men were flung upon a small island, where they lay all night, without an ember of fire, or a particle of food, and half-frozen to death. Washington suffered no injury, but most of Gist's fingers and toes were frozen. This island, near Lawrenceville, Pennsylvania, is still known as Washington's Island. In the morning the surface of the river was solid, and the two walked on it to the mainland.

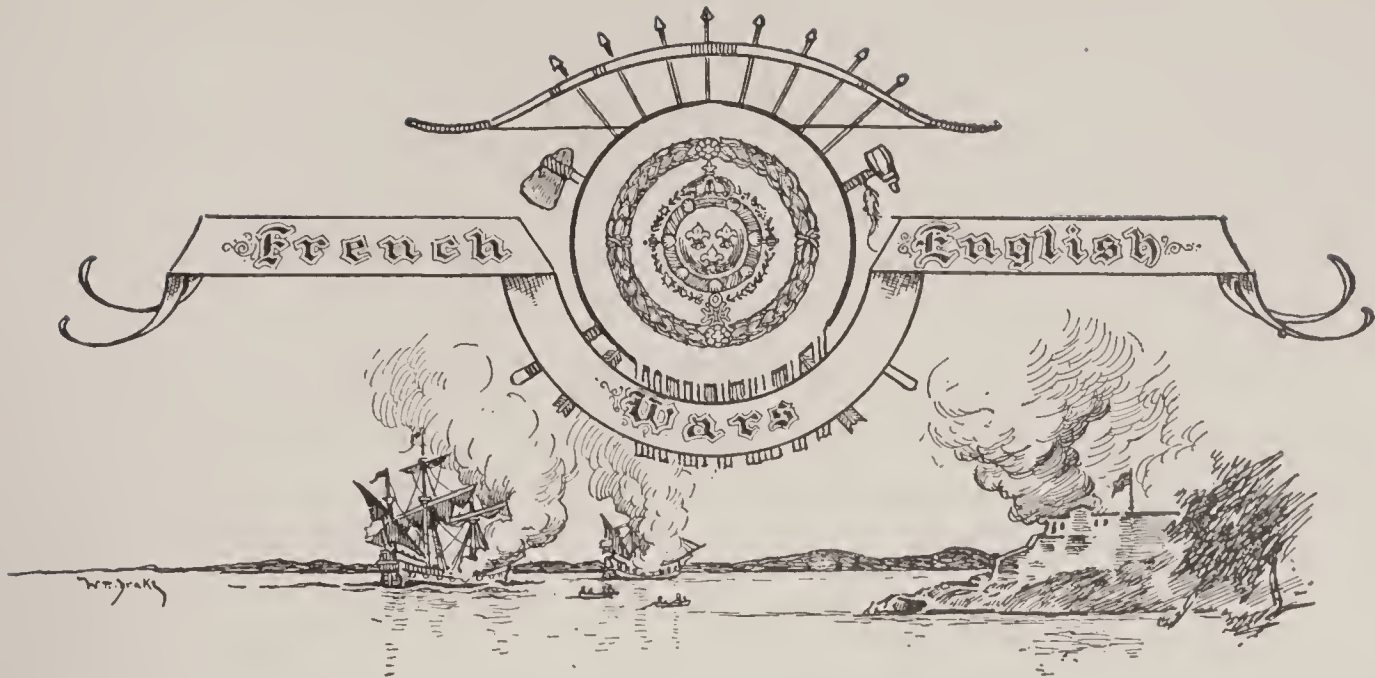
Encountering an Indian, they pressed him into their service as guide. He was a treacherous rogue, who was so very friendly at first that the white men became suspicious of him. He asked Washington to allow him to carry his gun, but the young Virginian was prudent enough to keep it in his own hands. One afternoon the Indian deliberately raised his rifle and fired at Washington, when barely fifty feet distant, but missed him. Gist leaped upon the savage, flung him to the earth, and would have killed him had not Washington interfered. He was allowed to go, and, fearful that he would lead a party in pursuit, the two travelled all night. Nothing more, however, was seen or heard of the fellow. On the 16th of January, 1754, Washington and Gist reached Williamsburg, and the reply of St. Pierre was placed in the hands of Governor Dinwiddie.







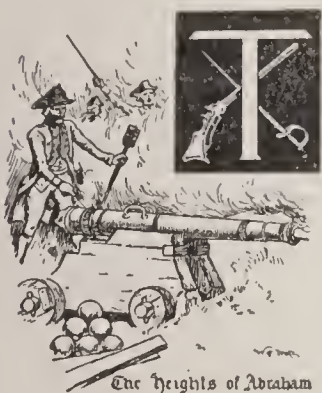
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## CHAPTER XXIV

### CAMPAIGN OF 1755

[*Authorities*: The collision between the Virginia frontiersmen and the intruding French in the Ohio Valley led to the despatch of European troops by the mother nations of both belligerents, and to a more serious test of strength, first of all in the region west of the Alleghanies. In 1754, England sent out a couple of regiments, under General Braddock, to co-operate with the Colonial forces in occupying the debatable territory, and in keeping the French in check. Military reinforcements were also sent out by France, under Baron Dieskau, a Dutch general in the French service, accompanied by a new governor, the Marquis de Vaudreuil. At a meeting of the English Colonial governors, it was decided to attack the French posts on the Ohio, on the Niagara River, on Lake Champlain, and at Beauséjour, in Acadia. The present chapter relates the incidents connected with the various projects, together with some account of the expulsion of the French neutrals from Acadia—a lamentable war necessity of the period. Besides the authorities quoted at the head of the previous chapter, the reader will do well to refer to the following supplementary works as throwing further light upon the military operations of the year, and the tragedy in Nova Scotia: Parkman's "Wolfe and Montcalm," Hannay's "Acadia," Richard's "Acadia," Murdoch's, and Judge Haliburton's "Nova Scotia."]



THE reply of St. Pierre was what might have been expected. Being a soldier, who knew his duty, he wrote that it did not become him to discuss civil matters; that Dinwiddie's letter should have been sent to the Marquis Du Quesne (*dōō-kāne'*), governor of Canada, under whose orders St. Pierre was acting, and which required him to remain where he was and follow his instructions. Dinwiddie laid this letter before his council, and it was decided not to wait for the legislature to meet, the members of which gave little thought to the impending danger. The instructions sent from England authorized

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the governor to call for the enlistment of two hundred men to proceed to the Ohio River and build two forts, before the French could forestall them. Washington was commissioned a lieutenant-colonel and given command of the troops to be raised.

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 Aggres-  
 sive  
 Meas-  
 ures

While the enlistment was under way, the legislature came together and issued an appeal to the other colonies to assist Virginia in the work she had begun. All save North Carolina were backward in answering the appeal, for there was much disputation between the royal governors and colonial assemblies over the respective rights of the Americans and of parliament. The Virginia House of Burgesses voted £10,000 towards fitting out an expedition and authorized the raising of a regiment of six companies. Joshua Fry, a gentleman of English birth, was appointed colonel, with Washington as his assistant. A bounty was offered of two hundred thousand acres of land on the Ohio, to be divided among the soldiers who enlisted, and Alexandria was fixed upon as the rallying-place of the volunteers. It was on the recommendation of Washington that the Forks of the Ohio (the site of Pittsburg) were selected as a point for the fort to be erected. His recent visit had shown him the natural strength of the place.

Chief  
 Half-  
 King's  
 Message

The precious days were passing, and Washington was ordered to march from Alexandria with the advance of the military force and aid Captain Trent, who had already gone thither, to complete the fortification, and "drive away, capture, or kill" all who interfered with the English settlement of the country. Washington left Alexandria in April and arrived at Will's Creek (now known as the Cumberland) on the 20th. While on the road a strange message reached him. It was from his old friend, Chief Half-King, who notified him that the French had lately embarked at Venango, on the Alleghany, and the Indians were in a state of consternation. "Come to our help as soon as you can," besought Half-King, "or we are lost." Washington sent back word by the messenger that he was on his way to help him and would lose no time in doing so. Before reaching Will's Creek, another Indian runner met Washington with the news that the French were at the Forks. The report was confirmed the following day in a startling manner, when one of Trent's men brought word that a thousand French soldiers, with eighteen cannon, three hundred canoes, and sixty bateaux, had descended the Alleghany and taken possession of the partly finished fort. There was some

exaggeration in this report, but there was no doubt that the French had occupied the commanding position at the Forks of the Ohio. They speedily completed the fort and

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 AND FRANCE  
 IN  
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THE MESSAGE FROM CHIEF HALF-KING

named it Du Quesne, in compliment to the then governor of Canada. Without waiting for Colonel Fry, Washington pressed on with

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 AND FRANCE  
 IN  
 AMERICA  
 1758  
 TO  
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First  
 Conflict  
 in the  
 French  
 and  
 Indian  
 War

his small force, and, after much labor, arrived late in May within forty miles of Du Quesne, at which point a warning came from Half-King that the French had prepared an ambush for the destruction of the Virginians. The rain was falling in torrents and the night was intensely dark; but with forty picked men, Washington tramped six miles through the forest to Half-King's camp, where he formed a plan with the friendly Mingo to surprise the French. The Indians and Virginians advanced in single file, along parallel lines, until at daybreak they discovered the ambuscade. Washington was at the head of his men, with a musket in his grasp. The instant he saw the Frenchmen, he discharged his gun at them and gave the order to his men to fire. Hence, it came about that the first hostile shot in the French and Indian War was fired by Washington.

Although the attack was a surprise to the French, they fought with great spirit. When Jumonville (*shōō-mon-veel'*), their commander, and about a dozen of his men were killed, the conflict was ended. Only one Virginian lost his life, and twenty-two Frenchmen were taken prisoners. The news of the fight made a deep impression throughout the colonies as well as in England and France. Few failed to see, despite its slight nature, the great struggle which it made inevitable and which would never cease until either France or England became master of the New World. Washington fell back to the stockaded fort he had hastily thrown together under the name of Fort Necessity; Colonel Fry died at Will's Creek, and Washington took the chief command. Reinforcements had been promised and were said to be on the way, but only a few soldiers from South Carolina arrived. Half-King and forty other Indians brought their families to the fort, and the care of them became a great burden to Washington. His force, in all, numbered barely four hundred, but weak as it was he marched with it against Fort Du Quesne. On the road he received news that M. de Villiers, brother of Jumonville, was advancing against him with six hundred soldiers and a thousand Indians. Washington thereupon fell back on Fort Necessity, which was attacked July 3d. Though a severe rain-storm prevailed, the assault was maintained without cessation for ten hours, and the loss of life on both sides was considerable.

The French had so far gained the advantage, but despite that fact De Villiers proposed a parley. Washington's force was so much in-



FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY J. STEEPLE DAVIS

WASHINGTON'S FIRST VICTORY

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 AND FRANCE  
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 TO  
 1783

Surrender of  
 Fort  
 Necessity

ferior that he saw he was certain to be defeated; hence, when the Frenchmen offered honorable terms they were accepted. The Virginian agreed to surrender the fort, on the condition that he and his men should withdraw from the stockade with the honors of war. He also agreed to restore the prisoners taken in the engagement with Jumonville, and to give a pledge not to erect any fort or post west of the mountains for the space of one year. It is noteworthy that this surrender took place on the 4th of July. All its terms were observed by both parties, and Fort Necessity was destroyed.

Before this time, the need for joint action on the part of the colonies was so evident that a convention was called at Albany on the 19th of June, 1754. Twenty-five delegates, representing every colony north of the Potomac, appeared, including representatives also from the Iroquois Confederacy or Six Nation Indians. The last-named step was a wise one, for those Indians were growing restless through the intrigues of French agents, and there was danger of their becoming enemies of the English. The Colonial governors explained to the British government its action in inviting the various Colonial assemblies and the leaders of the Six Nations to the convention which assembled in Albany.

The  
 Albany  
 Congress,  
 1754

The management of the Six Nations was a delicate task. They were at this time inclined to support the French, and made no secret of their preference. James De Lancey, acting-governor of New York, was chairman, and was authorized to represent Virginia, while the famous philosopher, Benjamin Franklin, was the most prominent member of the convention. By the exercise of great tact, the Iroquois chiefs were won over, and, with some reluctance, they signed a treaty pledging themselves to support the English in the impending war with the French. A far-reaching step was taken by this convention—one that foreshadowed the great struggle that was to come twenty years later. The Massachusetts delegation went to Albany with the question of a union of the thirteen colonies for mutual defence. It was favorably received, and a committee, consisting of one delegate from each colony represented, was named to prepare a draft of a Federal Constitution. Franklin was the member from Pennsylvania, and when the committee met, that wise man had his scheme ready, for he saw, more clearly than any other person, the urgent and increasing need of the country.

Franklin's plan made Philadelphia the capital of the colonial



league, with a governor-general appointed and supported by the crown of England, while the legislative authority was vested in Congress, whose members were to be chosen every three years by the general assemblies of the respective provinces. The ratio of representation was to be proportioned to the contribution of each colony to the general government, no one colony being allowed more than seven or less than two representatives. The governor was to appoint all military officers, and to have the power of vetoing objectionable legislation. To Congress was given the appointment of all civil officers, the raising of troops, the levying of taxes, the superintendence of affairs, the regulation of commerce, and the general duties of government. Congress was to meet annually, choose its own officers, and remain in session not longer than six weeks.

It will give the reader an idea of the relative strength of the colonies at this time to name the number of representatives to which each was entitled by Franklin's scheme. They were: Massachusetts Bay, 7; Virginia, 7; Pennsylvania, 6; Connecticut, 5; Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, and New York, each 4; New Jersey, 3; New Hampshire and Rhode Island, each 2; Georgia, at this time was so insignificant a province that she was not included in the scheme. "The Plan of Union," after earnest debate, was adopted by the Congress at Albany, the Connecticut delegates alone opposing its adoption. It was then submitted to the Lords of Trades and Plantations in England. That body disapproved of the measure, and declined to lay it before the king. The colonies objected to the veto feature. So it turned out that the attempt to please the king and the people resulted in a failure to please either.

England, however, saw that she must recover the ground already lost and maintain her honor against her old and aggressive rival. France was sending reinforcements to America, and strengthening her defences at Crown Point and Fort Niagara.<sup>2</sup> She was exultant over her success in western Pennsylvania, and England decided to create a new colony in that section. There was as yet no declaration of war between the two nations, who were continually assuring each other of their pacific intentions and their profound esteem, while making vigorous preparations the while for the conflict that all saw was coming. General Edward Braddock,<sup>\*</sup> a distinguished officer,

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The  
 Plan of  
 Union

General  
 Brad-  
 dock

<sup>\*</sup> Major-General Edward Braddock [1695-1755], son of a general in the British army, was born in Perthshire, Scotland, and in 1710 became an ensign in the Coldstream

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was recalled from Ireland, appointed commander-in-chief of the British forces in America and was sent to Virginia with two regiments of regular troops. France at the same time despatched three thousand soldiers to Canada.

In obedience to orders, Braddock, on arriving, called a council of colonial governors, who met him at Alexandria, April 14, 1755. The decision reached was that since there had been no declaration of war, Canada should not be invaded, but three separate plans of campaign were agreed upon.

General Braddock, the commander-in-chief, was to proceed against Fort Du Quesne, capture the place, and expel the French from the Ohio valley. Governor Shirley, of Massachusetts, was to equip a regiment and attack Fort Niagara, at the mouth of the Niagara River, and Fort Frontenac at the foot of Lake Ontario. Colonel William Johnson, the government superintendent of Indian affairs among the Six Nations, was to enroll a force of volunteers and Mohawks, and with them capture Crown Point, on Lake Champlain.

Guards. Thirty-five years later, while on duty at Gibraltar, he attained to a lieutenant-colonelcy, and for a time saw active service in Holland. In 1754 he became a major-general, and through the interest of the Duke of Cumberland he was appointed to a command in America. Arriving in Virginia with Commodore Keppel's fleet, in February of the following year, he set out against Fort Du Quesne with a large force, Colonel George Washington accompanying him as one of his aides-de-camp. After many delays, the expedition reached Little Meadows, whence Braddock pushed on with twelve hundred picked troops, regulars and provincials, for the Monongahela River, which was reached on the 8th of July. On the following day, heedless of Washington's caution against too precipitate a movement and an exposed order of march, the head of the column encountered an ambush of French and Indians in the dense woods within eight miles of Fort Du Quesne. Familiar with Indian fighting, the Virginian levies discreetly sought shelter, but Braddock unwisely marshalled his men in platoons and thus exposed them to so hot a fire that, after a time, they broke and fled. Braddock strove bravely to re-form his men, but without success, while he himself was struck down by a bullet and was carried off the field. Disorder now became a rout, and the whole column fell back upon Great Meadows, nearly sixty miles in the rear. Here, on Sunday the 13th, Braddock died and was hastily interred, the small remnant of the expedition returning to Virginia, covered in its retreat by Washington. The failure and rout of the expedition naturally provoked much comment, of a deprecatory kind, on Braddock's manner and methods. There was no impeachment of his courage, but only of inexperience of military tactics in the backwoods, and an overweening confidence in his "regulars" and in himself. Franklin rightly says of him: "He was, I think, a brave man, and might have made a good figure in some European war, but he had too much self-confidence, and had too high an idea of the validity of European troops, and too low an one of Americans and Indians." See Winthrop Sargent's monograph on Braddock, *Voi. V.*, "Memoirs of Historical Society of Pennsylvania" (Philadelphia, 1856), Montcalm's "Wolfe and Montcalm," and an illustrated article on Colonel Washington, by Woodrow Wilson, in *Harper's Magazine*, March, 1896.



GENERAL EDWARD BRADDOCK

A fourth campaign was in progress at that time in Nova Scotia, which it was agreed should be pressed, until the French were driven from the province. Time was important, and none of it was lost in pushing on these varied and aggressive schemes. Three thousand New England troops sailed from Boston, May 20, 1755, under command of General John Winslow, a great-grandson of Edward Winslow, who came over in the *Mayflower*. Landing near the head of the Bay of Fundy,

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The  
 Campaign in  
 Nova  
 Scotia

dy, they were joined by Colonel Monckton and a force of regulars. There were only two fortified French posts in the province, both on the neck of land uniting Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. Beauséjour (*bō'-say-joor*), the principal one, stood at the head of Chignecto Bay, while the other, Gaspereaux, was on the north side of the neck. The French commander had no suspicion of his danger until the English fleet appeared. The landing was made June 3d, and the siege of the fort (Beauséjour) was begun the following day. No effective resistance was offered, and the fort, with the whole peninsula, passed into the possession of the English before the close of the month. The French soldiers were sent to Louisbourg, and the Aca-

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dians were granted an amnesty, owing to their being forced into the French service.

Now, it will be recalled, that the province of Acadia, or Nova Scotia, was ceded to England by France by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, and this invasion and conquest of it by the English has a curious look; but it was, in fact, still a French province, whose population (almost wholly French-speaking) numbered sixteen thousand. It was deemed a necessary war measure that this colony should be crushed. Another reason for this action by the English colonial authorities was this, that the French—"neutrals," they were called—incited by their kinsmen at Louisbourg and Quebec, and especially by a meddlesome priest named La Loutre, constantly violated their neutrality by engaging in hostile acts against the English-speaking minority, until forbearance was no longer a virtue.

The conquest having been made, and the French population continuing not only more numerous than the English, but becoming increasingly hostile, the condition of affairs grew intolerable, and decisive measures became a necessity. After fully considering the grave situation, the chief-justice of the province (Belcher) and the British admiral (Boscawen) agreed with Governor Lawrence that the only effectual, though painful, remedy was to drive the whole French population out of the country. The scenes which followed this cruel but politic decision are among the most pathetic in history. First, an oath of allegiance was prescribed which might necessitate the neutrals fighting against their own countrymen, though afterwards a modified formula was framed. By advice of the priests, the ignorant and secretly hostile people refused the oath, though they declared their loyalty to their conquerors. When their boats and fire-arms were taken from them, many became so terrified that they offered to take the oath. They were answered that it was then too late.

Expul-  
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 1755

The country was filled with the smoke of burning dwellings; the peaceful hamlets were laid waste, and the helpless inhabitants driven into the larger towns along the seaboard. By proclamation all the people were ordered to assemble on the 5th of September, 1755, in their respective villages. At Grand Pré (*prā*) near Minas Basin, in the Bay of Fundy, four hundred and eighteen men presented themselves and were marched into church. The doors were closed and guarded, and then General Winslow, commander of the New Eng-

land troops, rose and read the royal proclamation, which told the Acadians that their lands, tenements, cattle, and live stock were forfeited to the Crown, with all their effects, except their money and household goods. They were ordered to make ready at once to leave the country. From Grand Pré alone were driven nearly two thousand souls, including the helpless, the sick, and the aged. These and

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THE DEPORTATION OF THE ACADIANS

five thousand more broken-hearted French Acadians were distributed among the different colonies. They were peremptorily ordered by the soldiery into the waiting boats, and as the weeping victims turned to take a last look at their loved homes, they saw through their streaming tears their dwellings in flames. A land of fertility and beauty became the abode of woe and desolation. The decree which enforced, and the circumstances which called for, the expulsion of the Acadians have been variously commented on by historians, most of them agreeing that, however deplorable the act, it had become a

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necessity of the situation. Longfellow, in his poem "Evangeline," tells the story from the sentimental rather than from the strictly historic point of view, and with a poet's license as well as with a heart of pity.

Meanwhile, General Braddock's campaign in the Ohio valley had begun and ended. He assembled his forces at Alexandria, and Colonel Washington, by invitation, joined the expedition, but only as a volunteer. The whole force, including regulars and provincials (about equally divided), was two thousand men. General Braddock was a quick-tempered, conceited man, very overbearing, harsh in his manner, though resolute and brave. When he looked at the provincials, he laughed with contempt. Washington, who was always guarded in his expressions, wrote of him: "He is incapable of arguing without warmth, or giving up any point he asserts, be it ever so incompatible with reason or common-sense." From the first everything seemed to go wrong with the ill-fated expedition. The Virginia contractors failed to send the necessary provisions, or transportation for the material of war. When the troops were well on the march, they received their supplies through the activity of Franklin. The army left Fort Cumberland on the last day of May and had a march before it of one hundred and thirty miles to reach Fort Du Quesne. The column was strung out for a distance of four miles, Sir Peter Halket leading the advance, with five hundred picked men, and Braddock following with the main body. The progress was so slow that the French had plenty of time in which to prepare for attack. Washington could not repress his impatience, and it was through his own urgency that more vigor was put into the movement. The provincials were under his charge, but their eagerness was checked by the regulars.

On the 8th of July the advance reached the forks of the Monongahela (*mō-nōn-gă-hē'-lă*) and Youghiogeny (*yō'-ho-gă'-nē*) rivers, where they rested until the following morning. Some twelve miles now lay between them and Fort Du Quesne. The supports were several miles to the rear, and Halket, alarmed at the carelessness of his superior officer, begged him to be more careful, since they had a vigilant foe in their front who was sure to seize any chance presented. Washington knowing the danger of advancing in solid platoons, as if against a civilized foe, urged Braddock to dispose his army in open order. The British commander turned angrily on



FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY H. A. OGDEN  
THE BRADDOCK MASSACRE

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him. "What! do you, a provincial colonel, presume to teach a British general how to fight?" Washington bit his lip and held his peace, but his heart was heavy, for he felt the shadow of impending danger closing around them.

The army recrossed the Monongahela to the north side, a little distance above the confluence of Turtle Creek. Lieutenant-Colonel Thomas Gage led the advance with a detachment of three hundred and fifty men, accompanied by a working party of two hundred and fifty, with guides and flanking parties. They entered a road hardly more than a dozen feet wide, and enclosed by a dense undergrowth. It was the very place which an Indian foe would select for an ambushade. Suddenly the gorge was lit up by a burst of flame, and the air resounded with the crash of musketry and the war-cries of the savages, who were on every side. From behind trees, rocks, and knolls of ground, flashed the deadly guns, and the gloom was deepened by the clouds of arrows. The English troops were caught at a hopeless disadvantage.

The  
 Braddock  
 Massacre

The attacking force consisted of three hundred French and Canadians, and between six and seven hundred Indians. At the first return fire of the English, de Beaujeau (*bō-shō'*), one of the French leaders, was killed. The vanguard retreated in disorder, leaving their two six-pounders with the enemy. Braddock heard the firing, and, leaving four hundred troops in charge of the baggage, hurried to the front with the bulk of the column. On the way, they met the routed vanguard, who were firing so wildly that they did as much injury to friends as foes, while their invisible enemies poured incessant volleys into the struggling mass. No man ever strove more valiantly to rally his troops than did General Braddock. He partly succeeded, and the unequal battle raged for more than two hours. The French and Indians, encouraged by their success, pushed further along the flanks of the English, and the wild disorder became greater than ever. The provincials followed Indian tactics, leaping behind cover, but Braddock had no patience with that kind of warfare and refused to adopt it. The brave but rash commander had five horses shot under him before he fell mortally wounded.

Washington's  
 narrow  
 Escape

The escape of Washington was marvellous. He had two horses killed, and four bullets passed through his coat. His tall figure attracted attention, and an Indian chief not only singled him out for death, but ordered his warriors to do the same. Years afterwards the



chief claimed that he fired a dozen times at Washington, and became convinced that he was under the protection of the Great Spirit. Who dare affirm that such was not the fact, for Washington was never wounded in battle? When a bullet through Braddock's lungs brought him gasping to the earth, Washington ran to his help.

"What shall we do now?" feebly asked the stricken officer.

"We must retreat at once," replied the Virginian.

Braddock was unwilling to do this, and, partly regaining his strength, he continued to give orders for some minutes while stretched on the ground. Word coming to him that the rear of the confused mass had been attacked, and that the French and Indians were endeavoring to surround the force, the drums beat the retreat. The withdrawal was covered by Washington and his small force of Virginians. Artillery, baggage, ammunition, provisions, indeed everything, including the dead and most of the wounded, were abandoned. The survivors were allowed the chance to retreat, because the savages stayed behind to revel in the spoils that had fallen into their hands. When they straggled with shouts and war-whoops back to Fort Du Quesne, they were laden with scalps, laced coats, brilliant uniforms, extra firearms and weapons, and an almost endless variety of plunder.

In this frightful massacre twenty-six officers were killed and thirty-seven wounded out of a total of eighty-two. One-half the rank and file were slain or disabled. The bravery of the Virginian troops was attested by the fact that out of three companies only thirty were left alive. On the side of the enemy, three officers and thirty men were killed and about the same number wounded. General Braddock was carried to Fort Cumberland, where he died on the third day and was buried at Great Meadows. The burial took place by torchlight, on the evening of July 15th. Washington, amid a group of sorrowing officers, read the solemn burial service of the Church of England. The grave may be seen to-day, close to the National Road, between the 54th and 55th milestones. The troops did not remain at Fort Cumberland, but abandoned that post and marched to Philadelphia. Washington and his provincials returned to Virginia, and thus the campaign ended in gloom and disaster.

Governor Shirley, of Massachusetts, succeeded Braddock in command of the British forces in America. He was to conduct the campaign against Forts Niagara and Frontenac. It was less impor-

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Governor  
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tant than that of Braddock and brought no great results. The march through the wilderness from Albany to Oswego, on the southern shore of Lake Ontario, was exhausting. He set out with fifteen hundred troops, many of whom were disabled by sickness before he arrived at his destination in August. The New York assembly voted men and money, and the Six Nations promised many warriors, but both pledges were only partly kept, for by September 1st the whole force in camp was less than three thousand. Shirley strengthened the tumble-down fort at Oswego, known to the Indians as Chouegan, and built a strong one on each side of the river. The one on the east bank was made of logs and earth, and the other had a stone wall. Boats were also constructed to take Shirley's troops across the lake, but, though he waited all through September, no reinforcements came, and the approach of winter forced him to abandon the expedition for the season. Seven hundred troops were left in the garrison under Colonel Hugh Mercer, who had been with "the Pretender" at Culloden, and with the remainder the governor marched back to Albany.

Marquis de Montcalm, a French soldier of great skill and energy, was now governor of Canada, and Shirley worked hard to reinforce and provision the post at Oswego, lest it should fall into French hands. This done, the governor returned to Massachusetts, leaving his aide-de-camp Lord Stirling\* (William Alexander), in New York, with Colonel John Bradstreet as commissary-general at Albany, and Captain Philip Schuyler (*skī-ler*) his chief assistant. Meanwhile, Colonel William Johnson, who possessed almost unbounded influence over the Mohawk Indians, had undertaken the assault of Crown Point and the task of driving the French from the shores of Lake Champlain. He was at the head of three thousand four hundred troops, many of whom were Mohawks. These were brought together near Fort Orange, on the upper Hudson, General Phineas Lyman being in command of the New England forces. The army, which finally assembled in July at a point forty-five miles north of Albany, numbered about six thousand men.

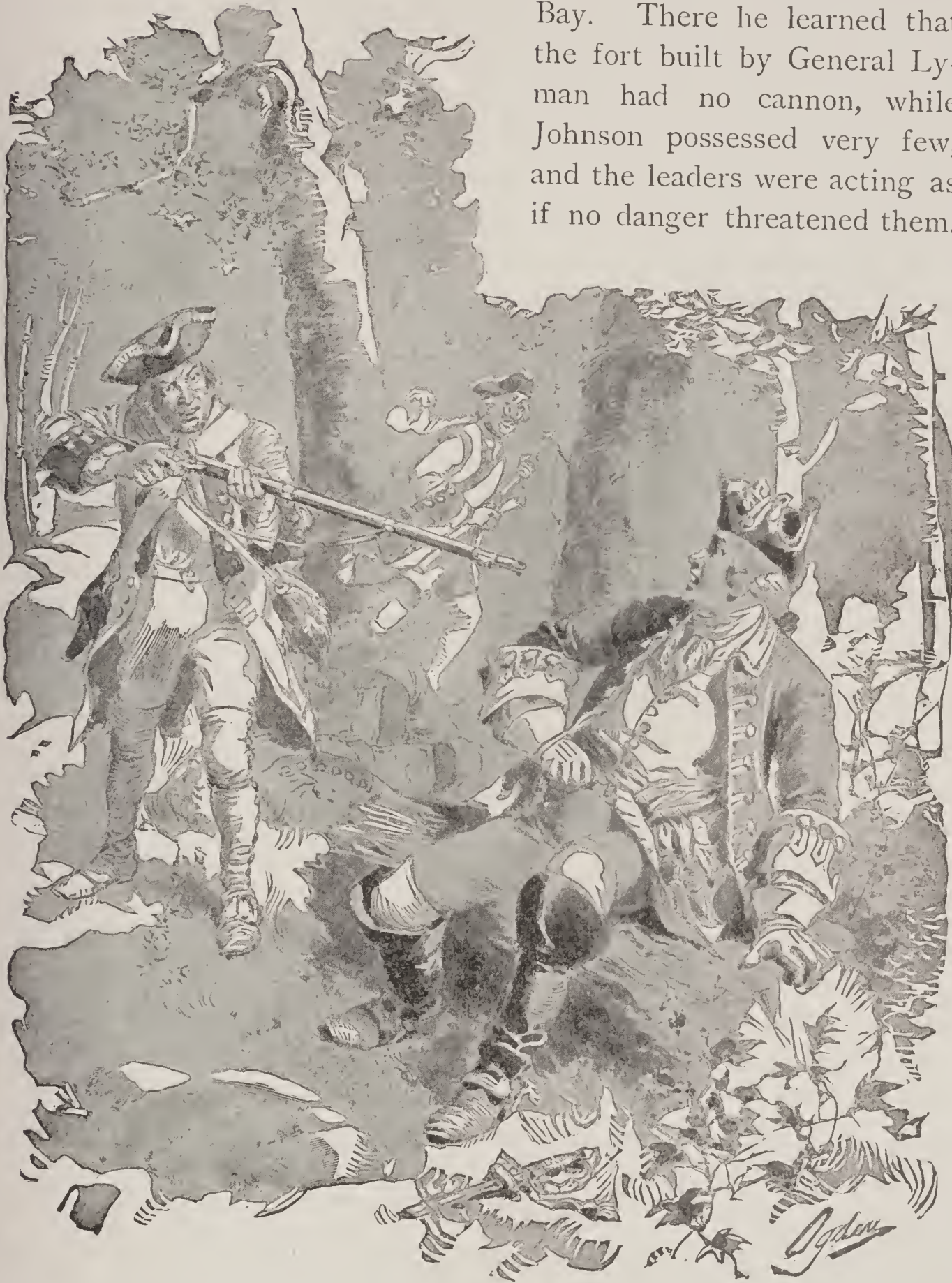
Colonel  
 (after-  
 wards  
 Sir  
 William)  
 Johnson

The French forces at Crown Point were under the command of Baron Dieskau (*decs'-kow*), who with two hundred regulars, seven hundred Canadians, and six hundred Indians, sailed up the lake to the site

\* Afterwards Brigadier-General, and taken prisoner at the battle of Long Island. Alexander was the first governor of King's (now Columbia) College, N.Y.

of Whitehall, then called South Bay. There he learned that the fort built by General Lyman had no cannon, while Johnson possessed very few, and the leaders were acting as if no danger threatened them.

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THE SHOOTING OF DIESKAU

These facts led Dieskau to organize a sudden attack upon Fort Lyman, thus cutting off Johnson from his supplies. In the event of success, Dieskau would thus open the way to Albany, and sever the communication with Oswego, when he would attack the New Eng-

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Encoun-  
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land border. Discovering his danger, Johnson sent a thousand men under Colonel Williams, and two thousand Mohawks under Chief Hendrick, for the protection of the fort, whose name he changed from Fort Lyman to Fort Edward. Dieskau's intention was to make a rapid secret march upon Fort Edward, but his guides led him astray, and at the end of four days he was on the path to the head of Lake George, four miles north of Fort Edward. On the evening of September 7th, Johnson was startled by the arrival of an Indian scout with news that the enemy in large force had landed at the head of Lake Champlain. Some hours later, another runner came in with the tidings that the French and Indians were advancing upon Fort Edward. Johnson now ordered Colonel Ephraim Williams, with twelve hundred soldiers and two hundred Indians, to march to the fort. They were hurrying to obey this order, when they ran into an ambush prepared by Dieskau. At the first fire, Williams and Chief Hendrick and a large number of men were killed. Lieutenant Whiting rallied his men, returned the fire, and withdrew towards the lake. Colonel Johnson now did that which he ought to have done before—made vigorous preparations against assault. He succeeded in getting his cannon into position at the moment the fugitives and their pursuers came in view. The sight of the "big guns" so terrified the Indians that they refused to attack, while they were also unwilling to fire upon their kinsmen the Mohawks; but the French regulars fell upon them with great spirit and bravery. The fight in front of Fort Edward was one of the severest that had been fought up to that time in this country. The French charged with great gallantry, the Canadians and Indians on their flanks keeping up a continuous fire on the breastworks. The provincials were shaken at first, but soon regained steadiness, and charged in turn upon their assailants, who were scattered in all directions, though the French regulars displayed such heroism that nearly all were killed.

Dieskau was thrice wounded, but refused to retire. Several of his aides ran forward to his help. One fell dead, and the baron ordered the others to leave him alone. He sat down on a log and continued to give directions as coolly as if on parade. A Frenchman, fighting on the side of the English, ran forward to make him prisoner. Dieskau began feeling for his watch to offer his captor, when the latter, supposing he was about to draw his pistol, shot him. The baron, although severely wounded, did not die, but was carried into

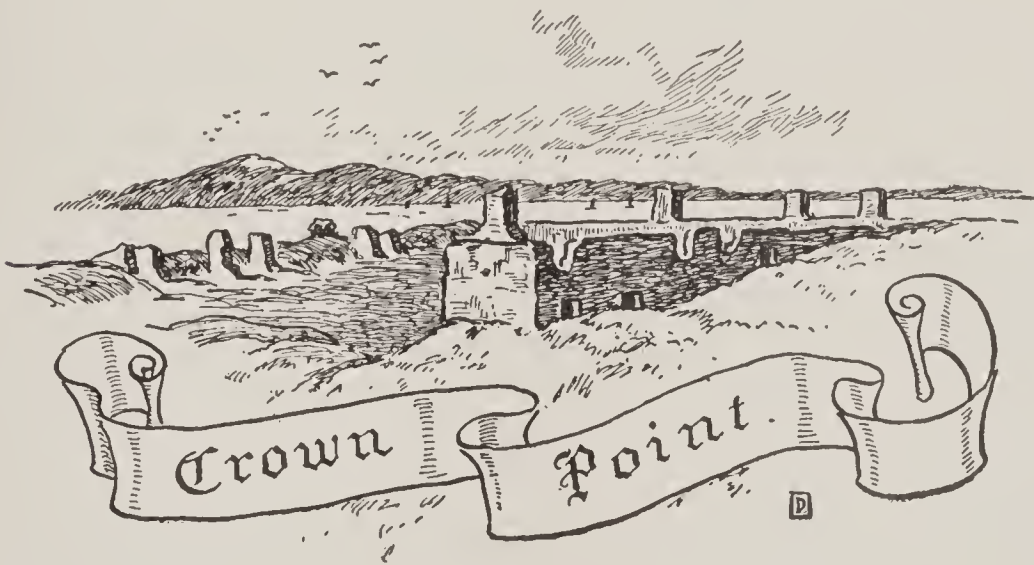
the camp of the victors, where he received the kindest attention from General Johnson and his family. The Frenchman, some time later, presented an elegant sword to Johnson, expressive of his gratitude, and after he was exchanged he sailed for France, where he died two years later from the effects of his wounds.

The victory by the shores of Lake George was a dear one for England, but following close upon Braddock's disaster, much was made of it in that country and in the seaboard colonies. Colonel William Johnson, who was really no soldier, was also wounded, but for his services on this occasion the Crown made him a baronet and presented him with £5,000. He erected a fort which he named William Henry, and having strengthened Fort Edward, the troops returned to their homes. "The Crown Point expedition," says Parkman, "was a failure disguised under an incidental success." The French, on their part, reinforced Crown Point and fortified Ticonderoga.

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SIR WILLIAM JOHNSON





## CHAPTER XXV

### *CAMPAIGNS OF 1756-1757*

[*Authorities:* The events detailed in this chapter continue the narrative of the great struggle between France and England, a struggle which had its field of conflict not alone in America, but in the East Indies, and, by the outbreak of the Seven Years' War (1756-63), on the European Continent. The decisive issues of the strife begin to be seen when the elder Pitt, shaking himself free from corrupt alliances in Parliament, and even from the dictation of the King, becomes master of the House of Commons and the practical ruler as well as the idol of the nation. Until Pitt's guiding hand is seen and his influence felt in military administration, Loudon's irresolute and incapable command on this continent has to be borne with, and the disasters faced which Montcalm brought about, in concert with his allied savages, in the vicinity both of Lake Champlain and Lake Ontario. The authorities for the narrative of this period, besides the United States histories (see especially Bryant and Gay) and those of an English source (see especially J. R. Green and W. H. Lecky), are Winsor's "Narrative and Critical History," and Parkman's "Montcalm and Wolfe." The "Correspondence of the Earl of Chatham" (the elder Pitt) might be profitably referred to; also Sparks' "Life of Washington" (for the narrative of his Western expeditions), and Benjamin Franklin's Works (for an account of that astute diplomat's relations with the Albany Congress).]



**I**T is not a little curious that while all this fighting was going on in America, England and France claimed to be at peace! The communications which passed between the two governments were models of hypocrisy. But the farce could not continue, and on the 17th of May, 1756, England declared war against France, and the latter country returned the compliment on the 9th of June.

Thus was fairly launched the great struggle between those nations for supremacy in America.

Shirley, the commander-in-chief, had called a convention of the

royal governors at New York, in the autumn of 1755, and formed the plan of campaign for the following year. It was a bold one and included the capture of Quebec, Forts Niagara, Frontenac, Du Quesne, Detroit, and numerous other French posts in the northwest. The governors urged Parliament to compel the colonists to raise a fund for general military purposes in America. In the mean time, the settlements on the borders of Virginia, Maryland, and Pennsylvania were assailed by the Indians, and the people fled for safety to the older towns. The peril was so great that those colonies were compelled to take prompt action. Virginia made Washington commander-in-chief of all her forces, while the other two joined in measures of defence.

Few people in referring to Benjamin Franklin, the philosopher, and afterwards a diplomatist, know that at one time he was an officer in military service. In 1756, Pennsylvania commissioned him colonel and gave him orders to raise troops and build a line of forts or block-houses along the frontier, and he put his orders in execution.

Shirley was now succeeded by the Earl of Loudon as commander-in-chief of the British forces in America, and governor of Virginia. The latter was one of the most incompetent of the many incompetent men England at this time entrusted with high office. He was lazy, cowardly, and stupid. He waited until near the end of April before sending over his subordinate, Gen. James Abercrombie, with troops, and the summer was nearly gone before the earl himself arrived. The plan of campaign, as arranged for 1756, required ten thousand men to capture Crown Point, six thousand to assail Niagara, three thousand to operate against Fort Du Quesne, and two thousand to attack certain French settlements in Canada. Abercrombie was as indolent as the earl, and though, when he arrived at Albany, a large portion of the troops intended for Crown Point and Niagara were at the town, he showed little desire to move forward. He caused resentment among the provincial officers by compelling them to obey the orders of those of equal rank in the regulars. Anger was also excited among the citizens by forcing them to provide quarters for the troops. Abercrombie, disregarding the ardor of the provincials, stayed week after week in Albany, erecting elaborate fortifications, for which no necessity existed, and unwilling to undertake any aggressive movement before the arrival of Loudon. When the brave Colonel John Bradstreet came from Oswego with the

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startling news that the French and Indians were threatening the forts there, and that an attack was imminent, Abercrombie failed even then to put his ten thousand men in motion.

There was good cause for fear, for the activity of the French was in strong contrast with the sloth of their enemies. The Marquis de Montcalm (*mōnt-kä'm*), had arrived in Quebec as governor-general and commander-in-chief of the French forces. He possessed remarkable ability, and though of slight stature, was endowed with great energy, and seemed scarcely to sleep because of his eager patriotism. By pressing forward night and day, he passed through the long stretch of wilderness to Ticonderoga, where his countrymen had erected Fort Carillon. He recognized its military value at a glance, and, making all haste to Quebec, prepared a secret expedition against Oswego. With three regiments, he ascended the St. Lawrence to Fort Frontenac (now Kingston), receiving at Montreal, on his way to Lake Ontario, a large reinforcement of Canadians and Indians. With this force, he crossed the lake in canoes and bateaux, and early in August halted in Sacket's Harbor. Fort Ontario, on the eastern side of the river, was weaker than Fort Oswego on the western side, so Montcalm moved against the former. He landed and marched his troops with such secrecy and despatch that they were not discovered by the English scouts until passing through the woods. Mercer, who commanded the garrison, had one thousand men and made instant preparations against attack. Montcalm had, however, come equipped for serious work, and he at once invested the fort with his large force. He had thirty pieces of cannon and pressed the siege with so much vigor that Mercer, seeing that he must soon succumb, surrendered on the 14th of August to Montcalm, who secured a large number of cannon and a quantity of military supplies. Both forts were destroyed to quiet the jealousy of the Six Nations. This step was a wise one, and so pleased the Iroquois that nearly all were won over to the support of the French.

Lord Loudon arrived in time to learn of the fall of Oswego. Instead of being roused to action, he expressed his gratitude that no greater disaster had befallen the country. Then he devoted what energy he had to compelling the citizens of New York, and afterwards those of Philadelphia, to consent to the quartering of the troops. This imposition was bitterly resented, but backed by the troops themselves, the earl forced the people to submit, and was more elated



over the victory than if he had defeated the army of the public enemy. It is not to be wondered at that the Indians despised the sluggishness of the English and were attracted by the dash and daring of the French. It was this feeling which led the Delawares in western Pennsylvania to take the war-path. Col. Benjamin Franklin, as has already been stated, caused the construction of a chain of small posts along the Pennsylvania frontier; but the Indians continued their outrages until a thousand people had been either killed or captured. The philosophic Franklin thereupon concluded that nature had not intended him for a military career, so he turned his back upon it forever, for which sensible course he is perhaps to be commended. Col. John Armstrong was his successor, and, with three hundred volunteers, he crossed the Alleghanies by a swift and secret march, and reached Kittaning, the principal Delaware village, within forty miles of Fort Du Quesne. It was a warm night in September, and the savages had no thought of danger. Imitating the tactics of the red men, Armstrong attacked the hostiles at daybreak. The town was destroyed and nearly every warrior killed, though all fought with desperation. That tribe for a long time caused no further trouble. It will be noted that the campaign of 1756 closed with little accomplished on either side. What gain was made was by the French. Towards the close of the year, fifteen hundred volunteers and drafted militia, under Colonel Washington, garrisoned the stockades for the defence of the frontiers of Virginia and Pennsylvania; while, farther south, measures of protection were taken against the savages among whom French agents were busy.

Loudon was compelled to make a pretence of doing something, so he called a council in Boston in January, 1757, at which were present the governors of New England and Nova Scotia. He had thought out a scheme for the capture of the strong fortress of Louisbourg, which, though taken once before, was ceded to France by the treaty of Utrecht. Loudon's conduct and bearing at the conference were not those of a soldier, for he made no effort to conceal his contempt for the members of the council, listened to no argument, and obliged all to agree with his plans.

The most important work before the English was to expel the French from the frontier posts and from the strongholds of Montreal and Quebec; but it was meantime decided to confine the military operations to the campaign against Louisbourg. This decision was

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a grievous disappointment to the colonists, who better comprehended the situation, but they had no choice except to submit, and they gallantly responded to the call made upon them. In a brief time Loudon had an army under his command with which he ought at once to have driven the French out of America. Sailing from New York, June 20th, with six thousand regulars, he landed at Halifax on the 1st of July. Before departing upon this formidable expedition



THE DELAWARES ON THE WAR-PATH

Loudon directed Colonel Bouquet (*boo-kay*) to guard the Carolina borders with the few troops at his disposal; General Stanwix, with two thousand men, was to protect the western frontiers; while General Webb was furnished with six thousand troops with which to defend Forts Edward and William Henry.

At Halifax, Loudon was joined by Admiral Holborn, with a fleet of sixteen men-of-war, carrying five thousand additional British regulars. This large army being landed, the officers began drilling the regiments, which were already well trained. Besides this work, which

continued a month, a large area of ground was tilled and an immense quantity of onions and other vegetables planted. The earl thought that one of those days the scurvy might attack his marines and soldiers, and he intended to be prepared for it. The soldiers chafed under inaction, and now and then the exasperated officers openly expressed their feelings, but this did little good. The delay gave the French a chance to reinforce the garrison at Louisbourg and the beleaguering fleet. Loudon bustled about and was making ready to fight the latter when he learned that the enemy had one more vessel than he. He was so scared by the fact that he ordered his fleet to cruise around Cape Breton and embarked his army for New York. There he began fortifying Long Island against an attack which France never dreamed of making. The action of Montcalm was in strong contrast with that of the imbecile Loudon. With six thousand French and Canadians and two thousand Indians, he forced his way to Ticonderoga, by way of the Sorel and Lake Champlain. He dragged his artillery and boats across the portage to Lake George, where the troops re-embarked, and on the 3d of August he began the siege of Fort William Henry. Colonel Monro, with a garrison of five hundred men, gallantly defended the post for six days. At the end of that time his ammunition was used up, many of his guns were disabled, and his men exhausted. Montcalm offered honorable terms, and the fort was surrendered on the 9th of August.

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Loudon's  
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Several noticeable facts are connected with this surrender. At Fort Edward, a dozen miles distant, was General Webb with four thousand troops, while quite near the fort seventeen hundred men lay entrenched, and yet none of these made a movement to help the beleaguered Monro. In fact, General Webb was so frightened that he sent a letter to Monro, exaggerating the numbers of the French and Indians, and advising him to save his force from massacre by surrendering. This letter fell into Montcalm's hands, and, we may be sure that, after reading it, he saw that it reached its destination, for the capitulation immediately followed. By the terms the garrison were to march out with the honors of war, taking with them their baggage and side-arms and one cannon. The last favor was in the nature of a compliment to Monro for his gallant defence of the fort. He agreed that he and his troops should not bear arms against France for the period of a year and a half, and that he would deliver at Ticonderoga all the French and Indian captives in the hands of

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the English. Montcalm pledged himself to furnish the prisoners with a strong escort half-way to Fort Edward. His only fear was that his Indians would cause trouble. He kept all liquor from them, and warned the English to do the same. Unfortunately they disregarded the advice and the savages spent a night in carousal. The morning found them in an ugly mood and ready for any mischief.

Hardly had the garrison begun its march for Fort Edward when the warriors attacked them. They were first murdered, then plundered, and many women and soldiers were carried off prisoners. Montcalm was filled with anguish at the sight, and with his officers rushed among the Indians and did his utmost to stay the massacre. "Kill me! kill me!" he shouted, "but spare these prisoners!" After thirty had been tomahawked and others dragged away, the slaughter was stayed. A sufficient escort accompanied the remainder to Fort Edward, and the captives who were taken to Canada were afterwards ransomed. With his usual energy Montcalm destroyed the fort, and, laden with an immense amount of spoils, moved down the lake on the same day. The structure was never rebuilt.

All this time General Webb was trembling with fear among his four thousand men at Fort Edward lest Montcalm should come that way and destroy him. He made ready to retreat to the Highlands of the Hudson, but the French passed him by.

It is hard to imagine a more humiliating campaign than that of Loudon's in 1757, at the close of which year it looked as if nothing could prevent the French from becoming masters of the American continent. The English had been driven out of the Ohio valley; their arm was paralyzed in northern New York, and the iron hand of the Gallic conqueror had closed round the St. Lawrence, the Great Lakes, and the valley of the Mississippi. At the end of this year the territory held by France was twenty-fold greater than that under the dominion of England. In the general consternation and confusion Governor Pownall, of Massachusetts, ordered the people living west of the Connecticut to destroy their wagons and drive in their cattle. This was done by many, and the suffering was great. The only section of the country exempt from alarm and disorder was the extreme South. Governor Ellis, of Georgia, kept up friendly relations with the powerful Creek confederacy, and the colony became a refuge for the endangered people of the North, hundreds of whom made their way thither. Many refugees from the borders of Virginia,



FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY J. STEEPLE DAVIS

MONTCALM ON THE MARCH

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William  
 Pitt

Maryland, and Pennsylvania fled to South Carolina after Braddock's massacre, but the hostile Cherokees caused much trouble.

One of the best friends that America ever had was William Pitt, who, in the latter part of 1756, was made English Secretary of State. The aristocracy were opposed to him, but the people saw in his towering genius, his fervid patriotism, and his unflinching courage and integrity the hope of the country, at the time torn by scandals, wrangles, intrigue, and imbecility. When urged to recommend a



PANIC OF THE SETTLERS

stamp-tax for the colonies, Pitt replied: "With the enemy at their back, and British bayonets at their breasts, in the day of their distress, perhaps the Americans may submit to the imposition." No one in England understood our people so well as William Pitt. He was determined to do the Americans justice, and neither the blandishments nor the threats of the aristocracy in the least affected him. Nor would he resign his office, for he knew that the British nation wished him to hold it. In the spring of 1757, however, he and the abler members of the Cabinet were dismissed by the king, who, after the country had suffered nearly three months without a ministry, was

glad to recall Pitt\* to the Cabinet in June. Soon thereafter he was invested with powers which practically made him Prime Minister of the realm, and happily so, as the issue soon proved in North America.

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\* Much of the success of British arms at this eventful period, as will be seen from the narrative, was due to William Pitt, who became Earl of Chatham, and one of England's greatest statesmen. Pitt, who entered Parliament in 1735, was one of the chief opponents of Walpole (for over twenty years Prime Minister of England), and from 1756 to 1761, save for a brief interval, was the ruling spirit of the government. In 1756 Pitt was made Secretary of State, and during the Seven Years' War his vigorous and large-minded policy did much to restore England's military fame abroad and add to the laurels of the nation. His nobility of character and lofty, unsullied patriotism, together with his great talents as an orator and a war minister, won him the respect and affection of the English people. His steady advocacy of the rights of the people, his passionate and almost resistless eloquence, and his marvellous power to animate and inspire a desponding nation, earned for him the title of "The Great Commoner." During his administration the war against France was prosecuted with great spirit, and her navy was all but annihilated. His attitude towards this country, in the War of the Revolution, bespeaks at once his humanity and his patriotism, for while he strongly opposed the taxation of the American Colonies, he was equally opposed to granting them their independence. While delivering a now memorable speech in the House of Lords, against making peace with America, he was seized with an apoplectic fit, and died a few weeks afterwards, on the 11th of May, 1778. For a characterization of Pitt and his policy, see Brougham's "Statesmen of the Time of George III."





## CHAPTER XXVI

### CAMPAIGNS OF 1758-1760

[*Authorities*: The steady trend of events, to the fateful close of French dominion on this continent, which has its counterpart at the period in the downfall of French power in India, is narrated in the present chapter. The issue signalizes Pitt's prevision in the selection of military commanders, such as the heroic Wolfe, and his genius in the administration of affairs in England at a crucial era in the nation's history. The gallant Montcalm, though ill-supported by Old France, and worried by the maladministration of affairs in the St. Lawrence colony, was able for a time, however, to protract the struggle in America, though forced now to act purely on the defensive. The nation's Nemesis marched sullenly onward, and there fell successively before it Louisbourg, Frontenac, and Niagara, while Du Quesne, Crown Point, and Ticonderoga had reluctantly to be abandoned. The end at last came with the fall of Quebec, the capitulation of Montreal, and the cession of New France to the British Crown. The authorities, besides the standard United States histories, are Parkman's "Montcalm and Wolfe," Warburton's "Conquest of Canada," Kingsford's "Canada," Miles' "History of Canada during the French Régime" (Montreal, 1881), Hannay's "Acadia," "Life of Major-General James Wolfe," by Robert Wright; Knox's "Historical Journal of the Campaigns in North America, 1757-60," and the admirable monograph by J. Bradley, on Wolfe, in the *English Men of Action* Series].



ONE of the first wise acts of William Pitt was to recall the incompetent Loudon. General Amherst\* was made his successor, and, counting on the patriotism of the colonies, Pitt asked them to raise all the men they could for the capture of Quebec and Montreal. He promised them that England would provide them arms, ammunition, and tents, and the king would recommend Parliament to repay them for expenses incurred in clothing and paying the soldiers. The Colo-

\* Sir Jeffery Amherst, afterwards Lord Amherst (1717-1797), was the son of a country gentleman in the County of Kent, England. He entered the army at an early



nia] troops were to choose their own officers up to and including colonels, who would rank with English officers of the same grade. England furnished the leaders. Lord Howe was next in seniority to Amherst; Abercrombie was given an important command; James Wolfe, who had seen service in Flanders, and in Scotland during the rising of the Highland clans in 1745, was at the head of a brigade; while Richard Montgomery \* was colonel of a regiment.

The colonies nobly responded to the call of Pitt. A powerful naval armament was placed under Admiral Boscawen, and twelve thousand English troops were assigned to service in America. The number of provincial troops asked for by Pitt was twenty thousand. More than this number offered their services, New England alone furnishing fifteen thousand, while Massachusetts advanced a million dollars. The taxes, in many cases, amounted to two-thirds of an individual's income, but, for all that, they were cheerfully paid. When Abercrombie assumed command, in May 1758, he found fifty thousand men at his disposal. The three campaigns planned for 1758 had the same object as before: the capture of Louisbourg, on Cape Breton; Crown Point and Ticonderoga, on Lake Champlain; and Du Quesne, in the valley of the Ohio. Sir Jeffery Amherst, with the brilliant James Wolfe as his assistant, had charge of the expedition against Louisbourg, together with the fleet of Boscawen. To Gen. Joseph Forbes was assigned the task of conquering Fort Du Quesne and the Ohio valley, while Abercrombie, with Lord Howe

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age, and in 1741 was aide-de-camp to General Ligonier, under whom he distinguished himself at Dettingen and Fontenoy, and afterwards served on the staff of the Duke of Cumberland. In 1758, he attained the rank of major-general, and on the recall of Lord Loudon was appointed to the command of the army in America. His first enterprise on this continent was the expedition against Louisbourg, Wolfe serving under him at the siege, while Boscawen commanded the naval force. Later in the year he planned and accomplished the capture of Fort Du Quesne, and in the following season ordered the reduction of Niagara, under Colonel Sir Wm. Johnson. The day after the fall of Niagara, Ticonderoga surrendered to his forces, and on the 14th of August (1759) the strong post of Crown Point, on Lake Champlain. After the fall of Quebec, Amherst received, on behalf of England, the capitulation of Montreal, and was appointed Governor-General of Canada. Later on, he was commander-in-chief of the army in England, and became field-marshal. He died in 1797, at his seat, "Montreal," in Kent.

\* It has been taken for granted that Richard Montgomery, who led the hapless attack on Quebec in 1775, took part with Wolfe in the conquest of Quebec. This, it has now been ascertained, was not the case, since at the period he was serving with the 17th Regiment under General Amherst at Lake Champlain, and subsequently under Colonel Haviland at Montreal.

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TO

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as his aide, was to drive the French from Lake Champlain, and, if possible, expel them from Montreal and the St. Lawrence.

The expedition against Louisbourg sailed from Halifax, May 28th. The fleet numbered thirty-seven vessels, carrying fourteen thousand troops, most of whom were regulars. They were delayed by a strong wind, but at dawn on June 8th, a landing was made at Gabarus Bay, the inlet on which the French stronghold of Louisbourg stood. The surf was high and breaking angrily upon the beach. It was hardly light when Wolfe, at the head of the first division, was rowed among the breakers. A number of the boats were capsized or broken. Impatient at the delay, Wolfe leaped into the water waist-deep, waved his sword, and led his soldiers against the French batteries, passed the rampart of felled trees, took the defences, and drove in the enemy. The northeast harbor was next captured, and large guns were planted on the cape near the lighthouse. The island battery was soon silenced and the siege of Louisbourg began. The garrison comprised twenty-five hundred regulars and six hundred militia, while the harbor contained several ships-of-the-line and frigates. Vessels were sunk at the entrance to keep out the enemy, and the siege was pressed with a skill and persistence that left no hope for the garrison. Four of the vessels in the harbor were burned and another was captured. The English cannon played upon the town, the fort, and the ships.

Siege  
and  
Surrender  
of  
Louis-  
bourg,  
1758

The bombardment laid Louisbourg in ruins. The walls were breached, and three-fourths of the guns were disabled. The French commander surrendered July 26th, giving up all his artillery, military stores, and provisions, with the islands of Cape Breton and Prince Edward, and the coast almost to the mouth of the St. Lawrence. The garrison, including the marines, numbering about six thousand in all, were sent as prisoners of war to England, while Louisbourg as a military stronghold ceased to exist. Wolfe was the hero of this great victory, which marked the beginning of the decline of French dominion in America.

Pitt's generous course toward the Americans stirred them to enthusiasm and incited the other leaders to an activity which none had shown before. General Abercrombie and young Lord Howe, with an army of sixteen thousand, marched through the forests of the upper Hudson, and, reaching Lake George on the 5th of July, embarked for Ticonderoga in more than one hundred whale-boats, nine

hundred bateaux, and with the artillery on rafts. It was an impressive sight when this immense array glided over the placid sheet of water with streaming banners and to the strains of martial music. As the balmy summer day was drawing to a close they landed on the grassy slope of Sabbath-day Point. The soldiers strolled through the leafy woods in the cool of the evening, while Lord Howe, who was the soul of the expedition, consulted with Stark and other provincial officers about the surrounding region and the neighborhood of Ticonderoga, with which both were familiar.

Young Lord Howe was a man with as much military genius as Wolfe, and was the idol of the army. He lived a life of the severest simplicity, eating sparingly of the plainest fare, and discarding all ornament in dress as he required the other officers to do. He had the muskets shortened for convenience in marching through the woods, and the barrels were painted a dull color to prevent the gleam attracting the eyes of the Indians. All useless baggage was thrown aside, and the men were furnished with leggings to protect them from briars and insects. It was almost midnight when the army re-embarked under a serene sky, studded with stars. The oars were muffled and the immense force moved along the lake like so many phantoms. The watchful scouts of the enemy on the surrounding hills saw nothing of them, and when it began growing light in the east, the troops were within four miles of their landing-place. The first warning the sentinels of the enemy received was when the thousands of scarlet uniforms swept into sight around a point of the lake and the army made ready to land.

It was found that the roughness of the ground and the numerous trees rendered the artillery useless, so the guns were left behind with the provisions and baggage. The army advanced in four columns, and, led by incompetent guides, were soon in the depths of a tangled forest. The advance guard, under Lord Howe, suddenly collided with three hundred French soldiers who had lost their way, and a sharp exchange of shots took place. Almost the first man killed was Lord Howe. His death threw the army into confusion, and Abercrombie hurriedly retreated to the lake, although nearly every member of the French detachment was killed, while the English troops were, as it turned out, in little danger.

Colonel Bradstreet, with his pioneers, opened the way to the Falls the next day, and on the morning of the 8th, Abercrombie, leaving

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Lord  
 George  
 Howe

Death of  
 Howe

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 ENGLAND  
 AND FRANCE  
 IN  
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 1758  
 TO  
 1783

Failure  
 of Aber-  
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his artillery behind, advanced to attack the outworks of the enemy at Ticonderoga, the fort being garrisoned by four thousand men, under the brave Montcalm. Abercrombie was deceived as to the strength of the works and the number of men behind them. For four hours he tried with the utmost energy to get within the *abatis*, but was driven back each time. The day was sultry, and while the fighting was going on, Montcalm was repeatedly seen, in his shirt sleeves, running back and forth among his men and inspiring them by his own heroic example. So effective was the defence by the gallant Frenchman, that as the warm afternoon drew to a close Abercrombie retreated, leaving two thousand of his dead and wounded in the forest.

Capture  
 of Fort  
 Fron-  
 tenac,  
 1758

The incompetent Abercrombie kept out of harm's way during the fighting, and he now continued the retreat until the old encampment was reached at the head of Lake George. Colonel Bradstreet, one of the bravest of officers, begged to be allowed to lead three thousand men against Fort Frontenac, which stood on the present site of Kingston, at the foot of Lake Ontario. Permission was given, and, after a siege of two days, the place was captured, with forty-six cannon, nine vessels of war, and a quantity of military stores. The victory was depressing to the French, for they saw that they were not only losing ground, but a famine impended, because of a failure of the crops in Canada. English dominion over Lake Ontario was thus established and the power of France continued to wane. In this brilliant achievement, Bradstreet lost only three men, but a malignant fever soon afterwards carried off nearly five hundred. With the others, he helped to build Fort Stanwix, on the site of the village of Rome. Abercrombie seemed to feel that he had had enough of fighting, and after garrisoning Fort George, near the head of the lake, he withdrew with the remainder of the troops to Albany.

Montcalm stayed on at Ticonderoga and there applied himself to the strengthening of the fortifications. The detachments which he sent out to harass and capture parties of English were in turn assailed by a famous body of rangers, commanded by Major Rogers, of New Hampshire. These men roamed through the woods, sometimes (in winter) on snow-shoes, and had numerous thrilling encounters with the French and Indians.

It will be noticed in studying the French and Indian War that many of the provincial leaders who took part in it became famous



FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY J. STEEPLE DAVIS

ABERCROMBIE'S EXPEDITION AGAINST FORT TICONDEROGA

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 AND FRANCE  
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 AMERICA  
 1758  
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Putnam  
 and  
 Rogers'  
 Rangers

afterwards in the Revolution. The contest between France and England, as fought on our soil from 1755 to 1759, was a few years later an invaluable training-school to the patriots in the great struggle for independence. Israel Putnam, of whom we shall hear more later on, was the second in command of Rogers' Rangers. He was one of the most daring of men. Some days after the attack on Ticonderoga, Captain Molang captured an escort of English wagoners. Rogers and Putnam set out to intercept him on his return, but fell into an Indian ambush, and Putnam and several of his comrades were made prisoners. All except Putnam were tomahawked. His intrepidity was well known to his captors, who reserved him for a more cruel fate. While the fight was under way between the Rangers and Indians, Putnam was tied to a tree, in such a situation that his clothing was repeatedly pierced by bullets from both sides. As if that were not enough, a young warrior amused himself by hurling his tomahawk at the tree, in the attempt to see how near he could come to Putnam's head without hitting it. Several narrow misses took place, but the captive was not hurt. Putnam was now led deeper into the forest and tied to another tree. Dry limbs were piled to his waist and set on fire. The flames had begun to scorch him and he was almost suffocated by the smoke, when a sudden fall of rain quenched the fire. It soon revived and burned so fiercely that he must have perished in a few minutes had not Captain Molang learned what was going on, and, rushing to the spot, released the victim and saw him safely to Ticonderoga.

Amherst was at Cape Breton when news reached him of the disaster at Ticonderoga. He immediately sailed for Boston with four regiments and pushed across New England to Albany, arriving at Abercrombie's camp in October. The following month his commission as commander-in-chief reached him, and Abercrombie sailed for England.

We must not forget that, as has been related, one of the campaigns was directed against Fort Du Quesne, in western Pennsylvania. Gen. John Forbes gathered six thousand men at Fort Cumberland, in Maryland, where Washington joined him with two thousand Virginians, and Colonel Bouquet had marched from the Carolinas with a thousand Highlanders, three hundred royal Americans, and a force of Cherokee Indians. This took place during the month of July, and it was known that Du Quesne was feebly

garrisoned. Washington urged an immediate advance, assured that the post must fall, and when the route than the one should be taken. Forbes fell ill on and was carried on

but his counsels were not heeded, and when the march began it was by another route than he advised. General Forbes followed the road

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ISRAEL PUTNAM AND HIS CAPTORS

PERIOD III  
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a litter, while the army wound its way so slowly over the mountains that Raystown was not reached until September. The indignant Washington wrote to a friend: "See how our time has been mis-spent! Behold how the golden opportunity has been lost, perhaps never more to be regained."

Bouquet was sent forward, with two thousand men, to Loyal Hanna, with orders to erect a fort. While thus engaged, he directed Major Grant to make a reconnoissance with about a thousand men. Grant posted himself on a hill near the fort, and, dividing his force, sought to draw the garrison out and into ambush, but was himself ambuscaded and suffered the loss of nearly half of his men. The French were so elated over their success that they followed it up with an attack on Bouquet at Loyal Hanna, but were repulsed with severe casualties.

Capture  
 of Fort  
 Du  
 Quesne

The days and weeks passed and fifty miles still separated the English army from Du Quesne. The weather was cold and an early winter was at hand. A council of war agreed that the season was too far advanced for further operations, but the impatient Washington, who was at Loyal Hanna, was allowed to advance with a thousand men. The troops were filled with ardor and the main army followed. On the evening of November 24th, the Virginians were within ten miles of Du Quesne, and eager to be led forward. The garrison numbered only five hundred and at once saw the hopelessness of their situation. That night they set fire to the fort, and by the glare of the flames floated down the Ohio in their boats. The next day the place was entered and Washington with his own hand planted the British flag over the charred fortifications. The name of the fort was changed to Fort Pitt, in honor of the illustrious English commoner and statesman, and around the ruins grew up in time the thriving city of Pittsburg. A strong garrison was left in charge of the place, and the remainder of the army marched eastward.

Marriage  
 of Wash-  
 ington

It is interesting to record here that Washington took leave of the troops at Williamsburg, with the intention of abandoning military life. He had been elected a member of the Virginia House of Burgesses, and, on the 17th of January, 1759, was married to Martha, the accomplished widow of Daniel Parke Custis. The wedding took place at the "White House," the residence of the bride. She and her husband were about the same age—twenty-six years. Both were in good circumstances, and in time Washington became one of the



wealthiest men in America. He took his seat in the Assembly at Williamsburg, little dreaming of the illustrious career upon which he was soon to enter.

One day, early in the session, the Speaker of the House, in obedience to its order, rose and thanked the young colonel in the name of Virginia for his great services. Washington, overcome with confusion, attempted to reply, but stammered like a schoolboy. "Sit down, Colonel Washington," said the smiling speaker, "your modesty equals your valor, and that surpasses the power of any language at my command."

The campaign of 1758 had been very successful for England. Three of the most important posts, Louisbourg, Frontenac, and Du Quesne, were captured. The power of the English was steadily waxing, as that of the French waned. The faith of the Indians in the prowess of France was so shaken, that at the great council held at Easton, in the autumn of 1758, several leading tribes decided to join the Six Nations in making treaties of neutrality with the English. This action brought peace to the frontiers of Virginia and Pennsylvania, and greatly discouraged Canada.

Pitt once more saw the golden opportunity for his country. He hurried reinforcements to America, and Parliament voted twelve million pounds to carry on the war. In the early summer of 1759, the number of English and provincial troops in the colonies was nearly fifty thousand. This formidable array equalled two-thirds of the French population in Canada, and was six times the number of French troops in America.

Three great campaigns were now arranged. Wolfe was to lead an expedition up the St. Lawrence against Quebec, while Amherst was to advance against Ticonderoga and Crown Point, and invade Canada by the northern route. General Prideaux (*Pree-dō*), commanding chiefly provincials and Indians, was to capture Niagara, descend the St. Lawrence, and join the other two armies at Montreal, which were to converge on that point. Amherst, with an army of nearly twelve thousand men, composed about equally of regulars and provincials, advanced against Ticonderoga, and disembarking on July 22d, near the landing-place of Abercrombie, marched towards Fort Carillon. The French were afraid to make a stand, and, destroying the fort, retreated down the lake to Fort Frederic, on Crown Point. Amherst followed, and upon his arrival, August 1st, found that post

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also deserted, the French having fled to Isle aux Noix (*eel'-o-nwah'*) on the northern shore of Lake Champlain. Amherst took possession of Crown Point, the whole country around Lake Champlain thus falling into the hands of the English without a battle. Had Amherst made a prompt pursuit, Montreal must have fallen, but he spent the remainder of the season in improving the defences of Ticonderoga and Crown Point.

Meanwhile Prideaux advanced against Niagara, commanded at the period by Captain Pouchot (*poosh'-oh*). He left Oswego on July 1st,



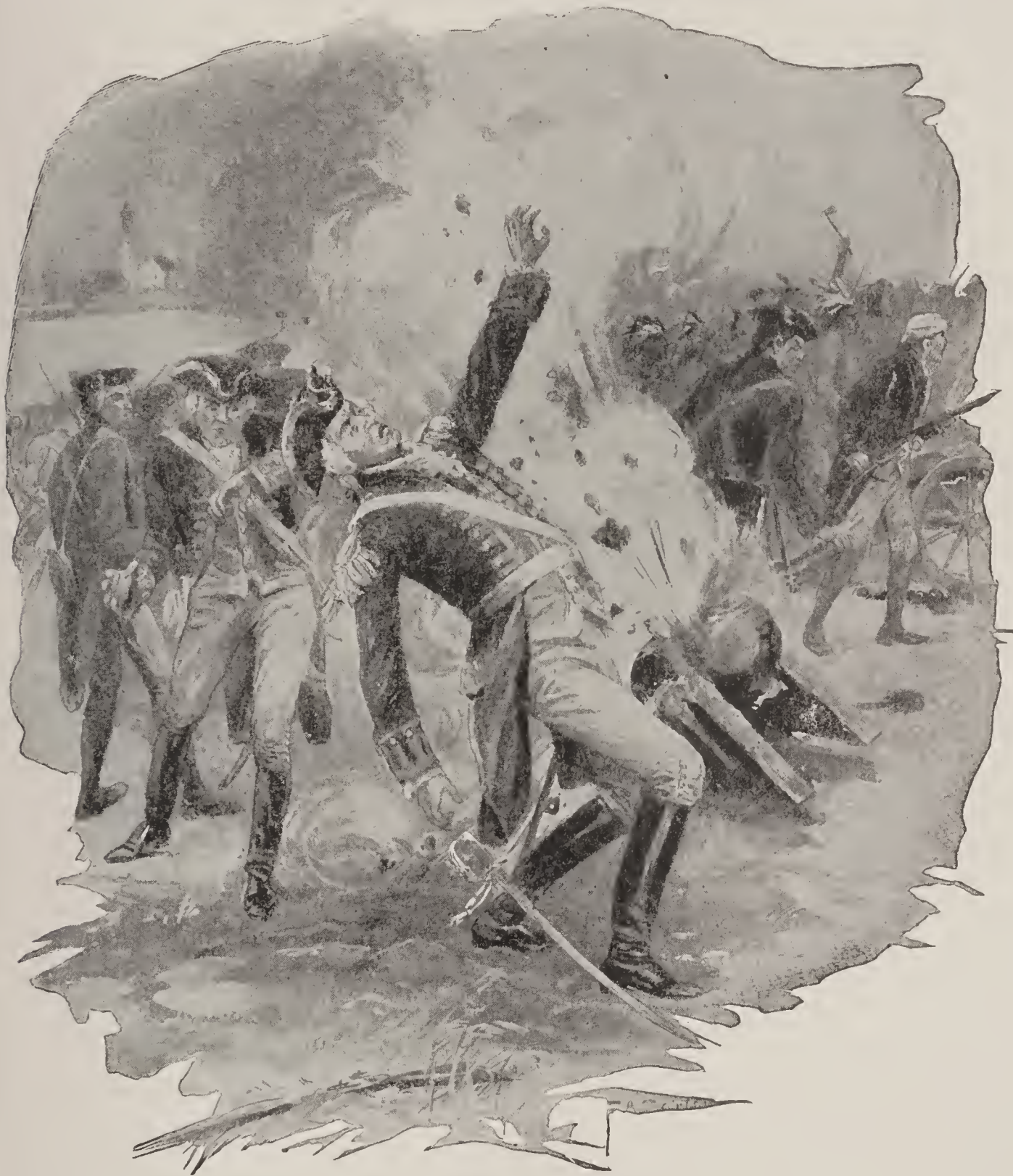
EVACUATION OF FORT DU QUESNE

Death of  
 General  
 Prideaux

with two New York battalions, one of Royal Americans, two British regiments, with artillery and a force of Indians under Sir William Johnson. They passed along the southern shore of Lake Ontario, and landed without opposition six miles east of Fort Niagara, on the 15th of July. The siege was begun at once. It had hardly opened when Prideaux was killed by the bursting of a mortar, and Johnson succeeded him in the command. The garrison numbered about six hundred, but three thousand reinforcements, of whom one-half were Indians, were on their way from different points. These attacked

Johnson on the 24th of July. The French and Indians suffered a decisive repulse and fled, leaving nearly all their killed and wounded in the woods. The French commander, when he saw the extent of the disaster, saw too that he was powerless, and surrendered the fort

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DEATH OF PRIDEAUX

and its dependencies to the English, whose dominion was thus extended along Lake Erie to Presque Isle. The instructions of Sir William Johnson, it will be remembered, were to press on to Montreal and join Amherst, but he was encumbered with prisoners, and unable to procure enough boats for transportation. So he garri-

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Wolfe's  
 Expedi-  
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soned Fort Niagara, and with the remainder of his troops returned to Albany.

And now came the grand and decisive campaign of all—that of Wolfe against Quebec. The youthful hero passed the winter in England, where he came into close contact with War Minister Pitt; but early in the following spring (1759) was back again at Louisbourg with three brigades of soldiers and a large fleet. The brilliant commander was forced to wait until the St. Lawrence was free from ice, so that it was not until June that he left Louisbourg, with eight thousand troops and a fleet of forty-four vessels, under Admirals Saunders and Holmes. His brigadiers were Gen. Robert Monckton, afterwards governor of New York; Gen. George Townshend, soon made a peer of the realm; and the daring General Murray, first English governor of Quebec. Col. Guy Carleton and Lieut.-Col. William Howe, both of whom became prominent during our War for Independence, were among Wolfe's subordinate commanders.

Towards the end of June the formidable English fleet sailed up the St. Lawrence to Quebec. The army landed upon the upper end of the picturesque Island of Orleans, June 27th, and encamped partly there, and partly on the eastern side of the Montmorency (*Mont'-mo-ren'-si*) River. The troops were in full view of Cape Diamond and the citadel of Quebec, built on an elevated rocky promontory at the junction of the St. Charles and the St. Lawrence. The upper town was surrounded by a wall with five gates, two of which opened out upon a high plateau, to the southwest, known as the Plains of Abraham, which was separated from the St. Lawrence by abrupt declivities. The lower town, close to the river, was only a village, but the shores of the St. Lawrence bristled with batteries, both above and below the city. Between the latter and the Montmorency River, a distance of several miles, was the vigilant Montcalm, with a force of French Canadians and Indians. The opposing armies were about equal in number, being each some nine thousand strong.

The night after the arrival of the fleet was intensely dark, and a terrific storm set in. About midnight the gloom was lit up by the bright glare of several fire-ships, which the French had set floating down the river towards the English shipping. But that which threatened the destruction of the fleet really saved it. The illumination enabled the British seamen to catch each blazing vessel in turn, and so change its course that no harm followed. On the succeeding

night, General Monckton with four battalions seized Point Levis, on the southern shore of the St. Lawrence, and planted a battery opposite the city, about a mile across. Thence bombs and red-hot cannonballs were launched into the lower town, which was soon destroyed. But the destructive missiles could not reach the citadel, and, securely perched in their lofty fortress, the French complacently viewed the attacks of their enemies. The citadel is on the most elevated portion of the upper town, three hundred and fifty feet above the river, and the fortifications, extending almost across the peninsula, enclosed a circuit of about three miles.

The Heights of Abraham lay west of the fortifications, and rose to more than three hundred feet above the river. The French were warranted in believing it impossible for any force to storm the town from that side. Accordingly they extended their line of entrenchments along the northern or Beauport shore of the St. Lawrence, reaching for five miles from the gorge of the Montmorency to the St. Charles River, close by the city.

The resolute Wolfe believed that Montcalm could be conquered not by capturing the stronghold of Quebec, but rather by attacking him in his fortified camp to the east of the citadel. On the 10th of July, he landed a strong force below the Montmorency, on the Beauport shore, but was disappointed to discover that the only place at which an attack could be made was three miles west of the mouth, and the point was strongly fortified by the French commander, whose vigilance equalled that of Wolfe. A council of war decided to make an advance on the 31st of July, at low water. Generals Townshend and Murray charged across with their two brigades, but Monckton, who was to advance at the same time from Point Levis, caused delay by running his boats aground on the shoals. Before his regiments could come up, the others attacked the entrenchments and were decisively repulsed. A furious rain-storm added to the confusion, the tide was rapidly rising, and after suffering a loss of five hundred men, Wolfe was obliged to withdraw. The young general earnestly scanned the whole vicinity of Quebec, seeking how best to bring the French to battle, but so far without avail. He took his disappointment so to heart that, combined with the extreme heat, fatigue and anxiety, he fell into a violent fever. For several weeks his life hung by a thread, but he finally rallied, and, early in September, a council of war was held at his bedside. The decision reached was

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Repulse  
 of the  
 English  
 at the  
 Beauport  
 Flats

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to land a strong force above Quebec, with the view of drawing Montcalm from his entrenchments. Meanwhile, the doomed city continued to be swept by the cannon from the ships in the river and from the batteries on Point Levis. Preparations were made early in September to test the feasibility of attacking Quebec from above the city. With several companions, in an open boat, Wolfe reconnoitred the shores, and selected the cove still bearing his name for the landing-place. A path was found on the face of the cliff, amid tangled



QUEBEC DURING THE SIEGE

shrubbery, leading up to the Plains of Abraham, and it was resolved that this should be used as the means of getting the army into position in rear of the citadel. Making a feigned movement about the Beauport shore, Wolfe sent a portion of the fleet with the attacking force up the river. After darkness had closed over the scene, on the night of the 12th, the main army was embarked on flat-boats, and drifted up stream with the flood tide, beyond the landing-place. The utmost secrecy was enjoined as to the commander's projects,

which were not disclosed until at a given signal from Wolfe. In the boats were sixteen hundred men, and about as many more were on board the sloops and frigates, all impatient to get the word of command.

It is said that Wolfe, who was still weak from his illness, believed that he would meet his death in the impending battle. He added a codicil to his will, and handed the portrait of a young lady to whom he was betrothed to a friend, with the request that he would give it to her in case his presentiments were fulfilled. Then his spirits rallied, and he entered upon his great task with strong hopes of success. There was no moon that night, but the clear sky glittered with stars. While the silence of the tomb brooded over the scene, two star-like points of light, one above the other, suddenly shone from the main-mast of the temporary flagship, the *Sutherland*, which Wolfe had boarded. All were waiting for the signal, which about two o'clock on the morning of the 13th was given by Wolfe, who with his chief officers had now transferred themselves to the flat-bottomed boats, bearing their heroic but silent freight of men, and drifted down stream with the ebb tide, toward the landing-place.

They hugged the northwestern shore, so as not to miss the spot, and no one dared to speak, for success depended upon the utmost secrecy. The oars were muffled, but Wolfe repeated in a low, thoughtful tone to the officers around him, a verse from Gray's "Elegy in a Country Churchyard," a copy of which had lately been sent to him from England:

"The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,  
And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,  
Await alike the inevitable hour:  
The path of glory leads but to the grave."

"I would prefer," said Wolfe, "to be the author of that poem than to defeat the French to-morrow." "No one was there," says the historian Parkman, "to tell him that the hero is greater than the poet."

The general was among the first to leap ashore, and his eye kindled, as, in the gloom, he glanced upward at the heights towering before them. All set to work to scale the cliffs through a tangled path, where two could barely walk abreast. They moved with the utmost stealth, catching hold of bushes, roots, vines, rocks, and anything that could aid them. It was comparatively easy work for the Highland-

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The  
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the  
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Victory

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ers, and the enthusiasm of the English caused them to make light of the obstacles which they had to overcome at every step. The ears of the French sentinels above caught the suspicious rustling and they fired down in the darkness. The next minute the shadowy figures swarmed over the edge of the elevated plain, and the guard fled with the terrifying news that the enemy had scaled the Heights of Abraham. When the sun rose, it reflected the gleam of five thousand muskets in battle array. The returning boats had met the squadron under Holmes, which followed the first division, and then climbed the acclivity after them. The force had only one cannon, which with great labor they dragged up the cliffs with them. A light shower of rain was falling when the English took up a position on the plain in rear of the citadel.

Meantime, the alarming news had been carried to Montcalm, who was some distance away at Beauport. He had been constantly in the saddle, and was so alert that for a week he did not remove his clothing, and seemed scarcely to sleep.

“They have found our weak side at last,” he exclaimed as the news reached him, “and now we must crush them.” Montcalm hastily led his troops over the St. Charles, by the bridge of boats across the river, and, hardly pausing to place them in battle order, attacked the British.

The latter showed finer discipline and delivered their volleys with decisive effect. Wolfe was at the head of the grenadiers,\* whom he

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\* The brief conflict of the fateful September morning brought to Wolfe, as it brought to Montcalm, the close of a life that might well be envied. Each hero, in a special sense, sacrificed himself for the country he best loved. To Montcalm, in his last hour, bitter must have been the thought that the country of his heart was at the time not worthy of him. England could afford to be more generous and appreciative. Proud of her gallant son, she rendered to his remains what unavailing honor could be paid to them. At Quebec, generous hands have erected a touching memorial of regret and reconciliation. But in the quaint historic city, still half-military, half-monastic, little is needed to perpetuate the memory of either hero; the place is forever eloquent of them. The age Wolfe fell upon was contemporary with the thirty-three years' reign of George II., the monarch he served. It was a troubled time for England, and though not a great era of action until Walpole was replaced by the great commoner Pitt, it was marked, as we have seen, by much military strife and hallowed by many a heroic deed. Wolfe was born in Kent, England, in 1726, and was the son of Edward Wolfe, a lieutenant-general in the army. When a mere stripling, he received a commission and took part in the campaigns in Flanders, into which England was carried by her Hanoverian connections; and he was also in Scotland with the Duke of Cumberland during the grim suppression of the Stuart cause. There was glory to England in neither of these campaigns, though they brought



had censured for their defeat in the attack some time before at Montmorency, and they were eager to win his praise by their bravery. They double-shotted their muskets by his orders, and the effect was so fearful that the French were soon thrown into confusion. Quick to seize his opportunity, Wolfe led a bayonet charge, which has been effective times without number, when made by the Scottish Highlanders. A bullet struck the young hero's wrist, and, a moment later, he was hit in the side, but he paid no attention to the hurts, and still led his impetuous men forward. Then a third bullet entered his breast and made a mortal wound. Wolfe sank to the ground, and was hurriedly carried to the rear. He heard some one order a surgeon to be sent for, but interposed in a weak voice:

"It is useless; this is the end."

He was dying at the time, but he suddenly brightened, when one of the group around him exclaimed:

"They run! they run!"

"Who run?" he asked, with surprising energy.

"The French," was the reply; "they are giving way everywhere."

"Now, God be praised; I die happy," he murmured, and breathed his last.

It was about the same time that Montcalm, while desperately

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Deaths  
 of Wolfe  
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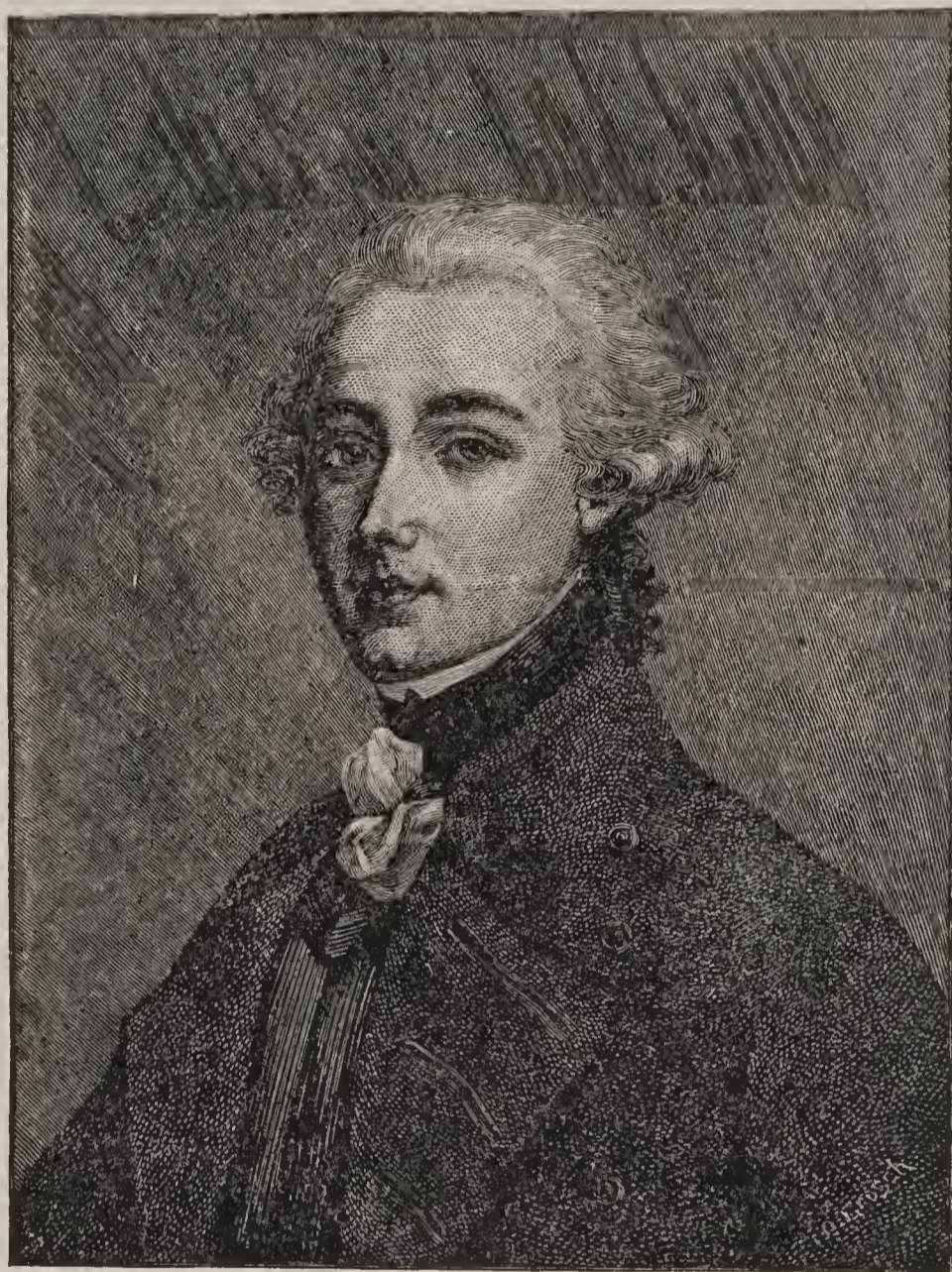
military renown and rapid professional advancement to the future hero of Louisbourg and Quebec. The military ardor manifested by Wolfe at an early age is remarkable, for, when only fifteen, he carried the colors of the Twelfth Regiment of Foot on the march with the allied army from Ghent to the Rhine; while, a year later, we find him acting-adjutant, and, two years afterwards, a brigade-major and an old campaigner, "familiar with Highland broadswords and French bayonets," and carrying several years of individual responsibility, when celebrating with his parents, in an interval of peace, his twenty-first birthday. We have seen what this youthful, impetuous spirit accomplished at Louisbourg, and the momentous results of his conquest of Quebec are signally manifest to-day. To capture a stronghold that had been deemed impregnable, might well seem to Wolfe a hopeless task, for behind its walls, or the earthworks that lined the Beauport shore, lay most of the strength of Canada. "The white-coated infantry of old France," writes his latest biographer, "were there; the regiments of Bearne, Guienne, and royal Roussillon, the blue-clad soldier of the colonial marine, the militia from the seignories in hunting-shirts and homespun, and the trappers (*coureurs de bois*), well-nigh as wild and savage as the Indian, who, in paint and feathers, filled in the picturesque and striking scene. Montcalm was there, of course, in person, and Vaudreuil, the Governor-General, and the skilful soldier Levis, and the active Repentigny, and the Scottish soldier of fortune, Chevalier Johnstone, who had already fought against Wolfe at Falkirk and Culloden." Soon, alas! the whole of the actors in this striking pageant were to pass from the scene, and the emblem of another power was to supplant on the surrendered citadel the crown and lilies of France.

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striving to rally his troops, was struck down by a second wound. He was carried into the city, where the surgeon told him he had but a few hours to live.

“So much the better,” he replied, “for I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec.” He died the next morning.

It thrills one to picture the heroic death of these two brilliant leaders, the one “in the robing of glory, the other in the gloom of



GENERAL JAMES WOLFE

defeat,” and there is much that is touchingly generous in the inscription on the granite shaft, reared many years afterwards, in the city of Quebec, by a British governor of Canada:

“TO THE MEMORY OF WOLFE AND MONTCALM.”

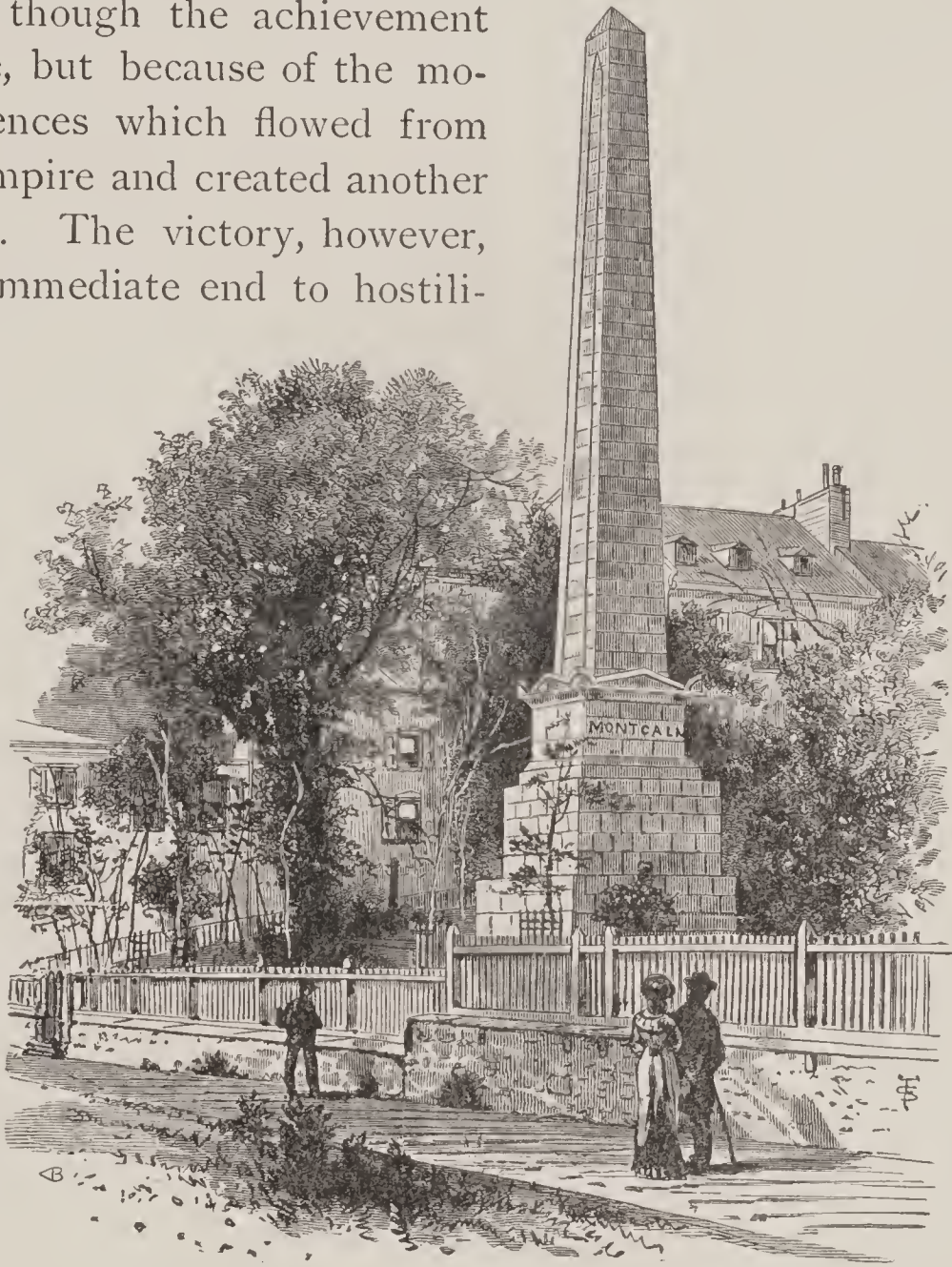
Five days after the battle, Quebec surrendered, and an English garrison occupied the citadel. A month later, Great Britain burst

into a flame of bonfires and illuminations, and the clanging bells spoke the joy of the nation over the splendid victory, while all mourned the death of the hero, who perished before the shouts of triumph could reach his ears.

The conquest of Quebec is ranked by historians as one of the great victories of the world,—not on account of the conflict itself, though the achievement was a daring one, but because of the momentous consequences which flowed from it: it ended one empire and created another in the New World. The victory, however, did not bring an immediate end to hostilities. Chevalier De Levis,\* the successor of Montcalm in command of the French forces at Montreal, withdrew to that city, but nothing was done until the following spring, when he strove to recover Canada. He had a force of ten thousand men, with which he descended the St. Lawrence against Murray,

who marched out of Quebec with less than seven thousand to meet him. They met at Ste. Foye, three miles above the city, and in a sanguinary battle, on the 28th April, 1760, the English were defeated with the loss of a thousand soldiers and a train of artillery.

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MONUMENT TO WOLFE AND MONTCALM

Battle  
 of Ste.  
 Foye

\* This brilliant French officer, who had been Montcalm's second-in-command, had seen long and arduous service in Bohemian, German, Rhenish, and Italian campaigns. Montcalm, just before his death, expressed his satisfaction in entrusting him with the command of the French army, and had written of him "as a very talented man with a

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Murray then fell back into the city, where he was closely besieged by the French army. The situation of the garrison, for a time, became critical; but early in May a British squadron came up the St. Lawrence with reinforcements and provisions. De Levis thereupon abandoned the siege, and made haste to return to Montreal (which was now the last stronghold of the French in America), where all the available forces were collected for the final struggle.

Amherst, the English commander-in-chief, who had spent the winter in New England, now recommenced hostilities. He moved slowly but with irresistible certainty. Waiting until fully ready, he set three armies in motion against Montreal, and advanced them with such remarkable precision, that, starting from widely separated points, their arrival before the town was almost simultaneous. With ten thousand troops, Amherst marched to Oswego, where Sir William Johnson joined him with a thousand warriors belonging to the Six Nations Confederacy. He crossed Lake Ontario, descended the St. Lawrence, and was in front of Montreal on the 6th of September. General Murray arrived on the same day from Quebec with twenty-five hundred soldiers, and on the next day, Colonel Haviland came down the Richelieu with three thousand more who had journeyed from Crown Point, expelling the French from Isle-aux-Noix while *en route*. When De Vaudreuil, the French viceroy, saw the seventeen thousand troops in front of the city, he knew that resistance was useless and Montreal capitulated. This was the final act of the drama. On the 8th of September, 1760, all of Canada passed from the dominion of France to that of England, and the lilies of France were supplanted by the cross of St. George.

Capitu-  
 lation of  
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 1760

On the high seas, as well as in Europe, the war continued till near the close of 1762—the advantage resting almost uniformly with the English. At last, on the 10th of February, 1763, a treaty of peace between the two nations was signed at Paris, and hostilities terminated. By the provisions of this important treaty, France gave up to England all her possessions in America east of the Mississippi, from its source to the river Iberville, and through Lakes Maurepas and Pontchartrain to the Gulf of Mexico. Spain, which had also been involved in war with England, ceded East and West Florida to

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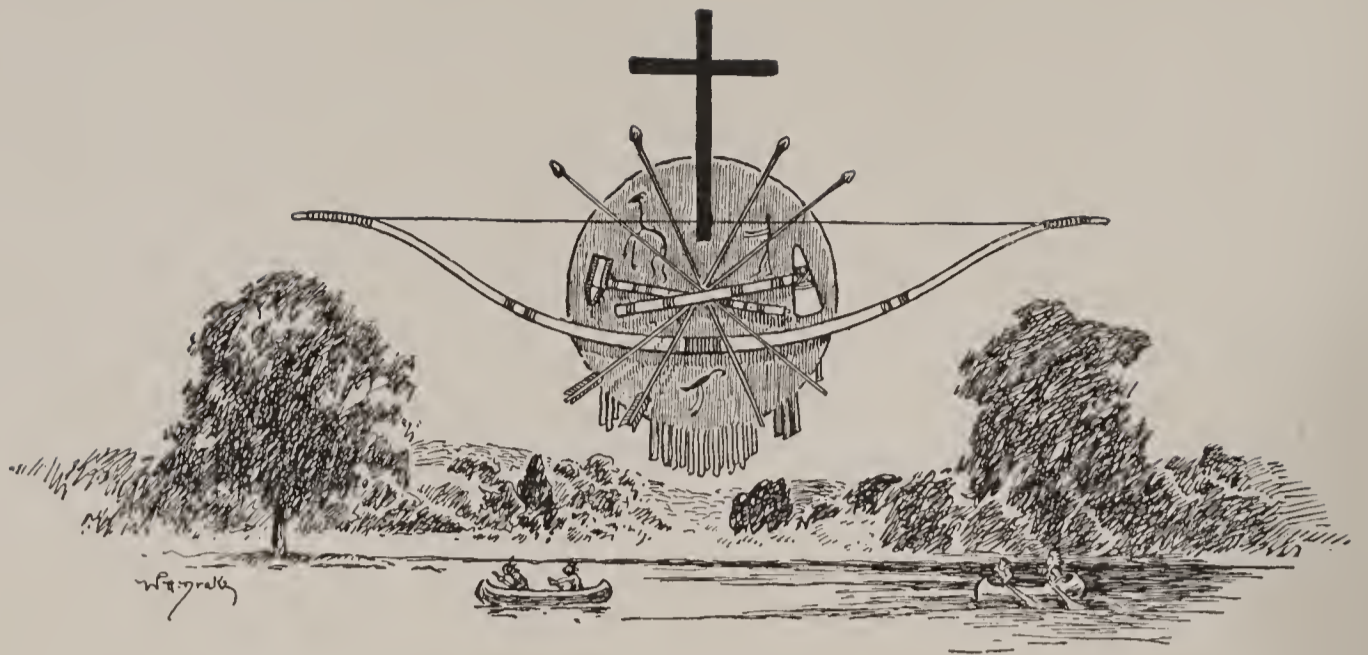
lofty military spirit and great decision of character, indefatigable, courageous, and conversant with military routine." He afterwards became a duke and field-marshal of France, dying in 1787.

that country, while France gave to Spain Louisiana, whose enormous area, it will be remembered, exceeded that of the whole surrendered territory.

Thus it will be seen that the Treaty of Paris took away all of France's possessions in the New World. It looked as if that country had been overwhelmingly outgeneralled, both on the field and in that of diplomacy, and yet her statesmen seemed wiser than those of her rival nations, as the events of the succeeding dozen years appeared to indicate. Had Louis XV. given better support to the colony in its hour of trial, and to his brave and faithful general, Montcalm,\* another issue might have been the result. But this was not to be, all being ordered, no doubt, for the best. The French in Canada, though a conquered people, have, under English rule, had little reason to regret the change of masters. As Parkman, the historian, observes: "A happier calamity never befell a people than the conquest of Canada by the British arms."

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\* Louis Joseph, Marquis de Montcalm [1712-1759], was descended from a noble family, and at an early age entered the French army and distinguished himself in Italy, Bohemia, and Germany. Besides his military qualifications, Montcalm was an enthusiastic lover of his profession, a man of great cultivation and of fine literary tastes. In his forty-fourth year (1756), he came to Canada to replace General Dieskau as commander-in-chief and lieutenant-general of the forces, accompanied by the Chevalier de Levis and two other distinguished French officers—MM. de Bougainville and de Bourslamaque. Shortly after his arrival, Montcalm captured from the English Fort Oswego, on Lake Ontario, and a year later took Fort William Henry and repulsed Abercrombie's attack on Ticonderoga. His defence of Quebec was spirited, thought owing to the incapacity of de Vaudreuil, the governor, and the malfeasance of Bigot, the last of the royal Intendants of Canada, he despaired of saving the colony from overthrow by the British. His integrity of purpose and ardent patriotism, no less than his bravery on the Heights of Abraham when the final issue came, shed lustre upon his career and impart pathos to his death. At Quebec, he shares with his conqueror, Wolfe, the honor, of a fateful day in the annals of the Continent. His remains were interred in the Church of the Ursulines within the walls of the historic city he died to defend. The monument to the joint memory of the two heroes, an illustration of which will be found in a preceding page, stands in the Governor's Garden, just off Dufferin Terrace, in the ancient Capital.



## CHAPTER XXVII

### PONTIAC'S WAR

[*Authorities:* The Peace of Paris, which occurred three years after the capitulation of Montreal and the surrender of the whole French army in Canada, confirmed the cession of the country to Britain, and closed the dominion of France in the vast region extending east of the Mississippi, from New Orleans to Cape Breton, including the great valleys of the Ohio and the St. Lawrence. By the same treaty (1763), France also ceded to Britain a number of her islands in the West Indies; while Spain surrendered her claim to Florida. In the year of the Peace, and while the "Definitive Treaty" was being considered by the European powers, a formidable and widespread Indian rising in western Canada threatened the stability of the English conquest. The present chapter is devoted to the subject of this rising, known as Pontiac's War, which, however, was stamped out in the following year (1764), and the disaffected Indian tribes were subdued. For a fuller account of the events connected with this thrilling episode in the early history of the western settlements, see Parkman's "Conspiracy of Pontiac." Kingsford's "History of Canada" may also be consulted, together with Cooley's "Michigan," in the "American Commonwealths" series.]



It will be remembered that previous to the French and Indian War, France had established a chain of military posts in the West, her intention being to found a great empire in the Mississippi valley; but the dream vanished forever with the conquest of Canada, and it became the duty of France to turn over all her possessions in America to England.\*

A few months after the surrender of Quebec, General Amherst

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\* By the treaty of Paris (1763), France ceded to England all her domain in the New World, with the exception of New Orleans and the adjacent parts of Louisiana, which, by a secret treaty made also at the period, she ceded to Spain. Louisiana, as we shall subsequently learn, was restored to France in 1800, and was acquired by the United States, by purchase, in 1803.

sent Major Robert Rogers, with his famous rangers, to carry the tidings to the commander of the French post at Detroit and to receive the submission of that and the other forts on the border. Rogers set out late in the autumn of 1760, with an escort of two hundred of his men. The journey was comparatively pleasant until they reached the site of the present city of Cleveland. There a bitter storm broke upon them and they decided to go into camp until the

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MAJOR ROGERS AND CHIEF PONTIAC

sun shone again. While resting, Rogers received a visit from a party of Ottawa Indians, accompanied by a chief of striking appearance. He told Rogers that he was the owner of that country, and he demanded to know by what right the white men invaded it. From what has been related about Rogers in another place, it will be understood that no one knew Indian nature better than he. Although among the most daring of men, and the hero of many hairbreadth escapes, he owed much of his success to his tact. He recognized the

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chieftain before him as Pontiac, one of the most gifted of his race, and he set about winning his good-will. He told his visitor that in the war which had been going on for several years between England and France, England had won. Canada was no longer French, but English, and, as soon as Rogers could reach Detroit and tell the commandant there what had occurred, that post would yield. Rogers added the hope that the great Pontiac would allow him and his friends to pass through his dominion, and that the white and red men would always be friends. The officer managed this delicate business with so much skill that Pontiac gave his consent, and said that so long as the English acted rightly they could stay in the country and would not be disturbed by him or his warriors.

Major Rogers reached Detroit without further incident, and the post surrendered November 29, 1760. Hundreds of Indians gathered around and watched the singular scene. Many of them failed to understand why so large a force should submit to one so weak, unless the English were gifted with more than human prowess. But the scowling Pontiac saw through it all, and it filled his soul with wrath. "These English," he reflected, "have conquered the French; now they mean to turn upon the red men and make slaves of them, but it shall not be."

Pontiac  
and his  
Designs

Naturally the French felt resentful towards their conquerors, and the traders helped to inflame the mind of Pontiac by telling him that their king had been asleep, but would soon awake and leave not an Englishman in the country. The chieftain brooded over the matter for days and nights, and then formed one of the most formidable conspiracies ever planned by his race against the white men. His scheme, in short, was to unite all the tribes, and make an attack on the same day upon every western post. France had proved herself almost the equal of England, and now with the aid of a dozen or twenty tribes, she surely would conquer the armies of that country. The Ottawa sachem displayed wonderful ability in carrying forward his grand scheme, so fascinating to him and to his people. He knew that a rash move on his part would destroy all hope of success, and that the blow could not be struck for weeks and months, perhaps not for years. Hence he waited and plotted for two whole years, before he sent his messengers to the different tribes, with an explanation of his plans and a request for their promise to join him in driving the English from the continent. The credentials borne by these ambas-



sadors consisted of a tomahawk, painted red, and a wampum war-belt. So thoroughly did they do their work that they visited every tribe between the Ottawa and the Lower Mississippi. The influence of Sir William Johnson kept all the Six Nations out of the conspiracy, except the Senecas, who sent word to Pontiac that they would join him in his war against the English.

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The tribes under the immediate control of this chieftain were the Ottawas, Ojibwas, and Pottawatomies. The Wyandots and a number of the southern tribes also pledged themselves to him, and the movement threatened to devastate the entire western frontier. The date fixed for this uprising was May 7, 1763. The plan was simple, but it was designed to be thorough: each tribe was to attack the nearest fort, and then join in assailing the settlements.

Now, if the reader will reflect that this conspiracy was more than two years in maturing, that it extended over many thousands of square miles of country, and that of necessity hundreds of Indians were approached who were not friendly to the scheme, it will be seen that with all Pontiac's cunning it was impossible to keep his plans absolutely secret: the wonder is that they were not fully known much sooner. One day a friendly Indian came to Ensign Holmes, commanding at Fort Miami (on the present site of Fort Wayne, Indiana), and gave him the war-belt, which Pontiac's messenger had brought to the tribe. Holmes, by guarded inquiry, learned the whole plot. He sent the war-belt to Major Gladwyn, commanding at Detroit, with a letter asking him to acquaint General Amherst with the ominous doings. Gladwyn would not credit the story, and in his letter to Amherst assured him there was no danger. How many times this woful mistake has been made by those similarly placed!

Vast  
 Scope of  
 the Con-  
 spiracy

Pontiac held a council of war (April 27th), on the Ecorcé (*ā-kor'-sā*) River, near Detroit, at which there was a formidable gathering of warriors. He made them an impassioned speech, roused their ardor, and made clear his plans. He was to make the attack on Detroit, which he visited a few days later with a number of his people, that he might study all its features. Then he again called his faithful ones around him, and assured himself that there was no misunderstanding on the part of any one. Pontiac arranged to visit the fort with a party of his chiefs, each of whom was to carry a gun hidden under his blanket. They would make a formal call upon Major Gladwyn, and Pontiac was to deliver a brief address, at the close of

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which he would present the commandant with a wampum belt, but, in doing so, would hand it reversed. This was to be the signal. Instantly each chief was to whip out his gun and begin the massacre. The warriors lounging in the streets or about the gates would be in a state of expectancy, and, upon hearing the guns fired, would attack the soldiers and settlers.

Detroit at that day was laid out in the form of a square, inclosed by a high palisade. At each corner was a wooden bastion upon which several pieces of artillery were mounted, and there were block-houses over the gateway. The dwellings were about a hundred in number, with narrow streets between, and with a broad space separating the houses and the palisades. All the buildings, including the chapel, were of wood. The garrison numbered one hundred and twenty men, and forty or fifty more were capable of bearing arms in an emergency. In the river near by lay two armed schooners.

Pontiac had always been allowed to enter the town unchallenged. On the fateful morning of May 7th, when he knew that the fearful plot which had been brewing for more than two years must come to a head, he appeared at the gate, with sixty of his warriors, each of whom carried a loaded rifle under his blanket, and with knife and tomahawk within instant reach. The guns had been shortened by the Indians and all their weapons were concealed. The chief led the way through the gate, when one quick, sweeping glance told him that he had been betrayed. The whole garrison was under arms, and every officer had a sword and two pistols in his belt. The sight must have filled the sachem's bosom with fury, but he mastered his emotions by a supreme effort, and, approaching Gladwyn, asked in an indifferent voice :

The Con-  
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“Why do I see so many of my brothers with arms in their hands?”

“I have ordered them out for exercise,” answered Gladwyn.

The Indians coolly took the seats assigned them and Pontiac made his address. A more trying test of one's nerves could hardly be conceived. Although aware that his plot was known, he was on the point of giving the signal for the onslaught. Indeed he essayed to do so, but Gladwyn, who was closely watching him, made a gesture. Instantly the rattle of arms was heard outside, and Pontiac passed the wampum belt to the commandant in proper form. Major Gladwyn answered the address of the chieftain by saying that he would be glad to continue the friendship with his visitor and warriors, but

he would do so only on condition that they proved themselves worthy of it. The infuriated visitors then withdrew.

Jamestown had its Pocahontas, and Detroit was saved through the friendship of an Indian maiden. She learned a short time before that many of the savages had filed off the ends of their gun-barrels. The blacksmith who had been asked to help in the work was suspicious and told Gladwyn of it, and from the Indian girl the commandant learned the whole truth. Pontiac kept up the semblance of

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PONTIAC OUTWITTED AT DETROIT

friendship a brief while longer, but, when told that he could pass through the gates only alone, and that his warriors must stay outside, he threw all disguise aside. His followers emitted their war-whoops, and, dashing off to the houses of several English settlers living outside the palisades, killed the hapless ones and held aloft their scalps before the garrison.

Pontiac now brought the Ottawa village to the Detroit shore of the river, placing it at the mouth of Parent's Creek, which later on was known as Bloody Run. This was a little more than a mile northeast of the fort. The Ojibwas had joined the hostiles and the memorable

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Siege of  
 Detroit,  
 1763

siege of Detroit began. The warriors sheltered themselves behind outbuildings, trees, stumps, and earth, and kept up a desultory fire for several hours. The garrison replied as chance offered, and, with a charge of red-hot slugs from a cannon, set a group of outbuildings ablaze and picked off a number of savages, while they were scurrying to shelter. During this exchange of shots, several of the garrison were wounded, but none killed.

Major Gladwyn was still disposed to look upon the situation as less grave than was the fact. When Pontiac asked to have a talk with Major Campbell, the second in command, that officer was sent to him. The Major passed through the gate with Lieutenant McDougal for his companion. A number of the garrison warned Campbell that Pontiac intended treachery, but the officer was an old acquaintance of the chief, and did not believe that any harm would come to him. After the two had entered the Indian lines, and had the "talk," which amounted to nothing, they were informed that they were prisoners and would not be allowed to return. They were kept for several weeks, when an enraged warrior killed the major in revenge for the death of a relative. Lieutenant McDougal, however, succeeded in making his escape and rejoined the garrison. The force of the besiegers was soon increased by the arrival of the Wyandots. The attacks of the savages were so galling that the garrison made several sallies, and levelled everything that could serve as a screen for their enemies.

The Indians made repeated efforts to fire the buildings, knowing that if a conflagration was once fairly started, it would sweep everything before it. Burning arrows were launched from the surrounding woods, and stuck in the inflammable roofs of the building. Little bursts of flame instantly appeared, but the defenders were watchful and always kept a supply of water at hand. Every attempt of the besiegers was frustrated, and the vigilance of the garrison was relaxed neither night nor day. The food was used sparingly, a great deal being obtained secretly from the Canadians on the other side of the river, who brought it over at night. Pontiac considered them friends and did not suspect what they were doing. He forbade pilfering from them, but, when it became necessary, made regular levies upon the people, for which he gave in payment his promissory notes. These were written on the inside of birch-bark, and signed with his totem, which was the figure of an otter. He was probably the first Ameri-



FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY JULES TURCAS

RED-HOT SHOT

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1783Relief  
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can Indian to issue "paper currency," and to his credit be it recorded that the Ottawa chieftain redeemed every one of his notes.

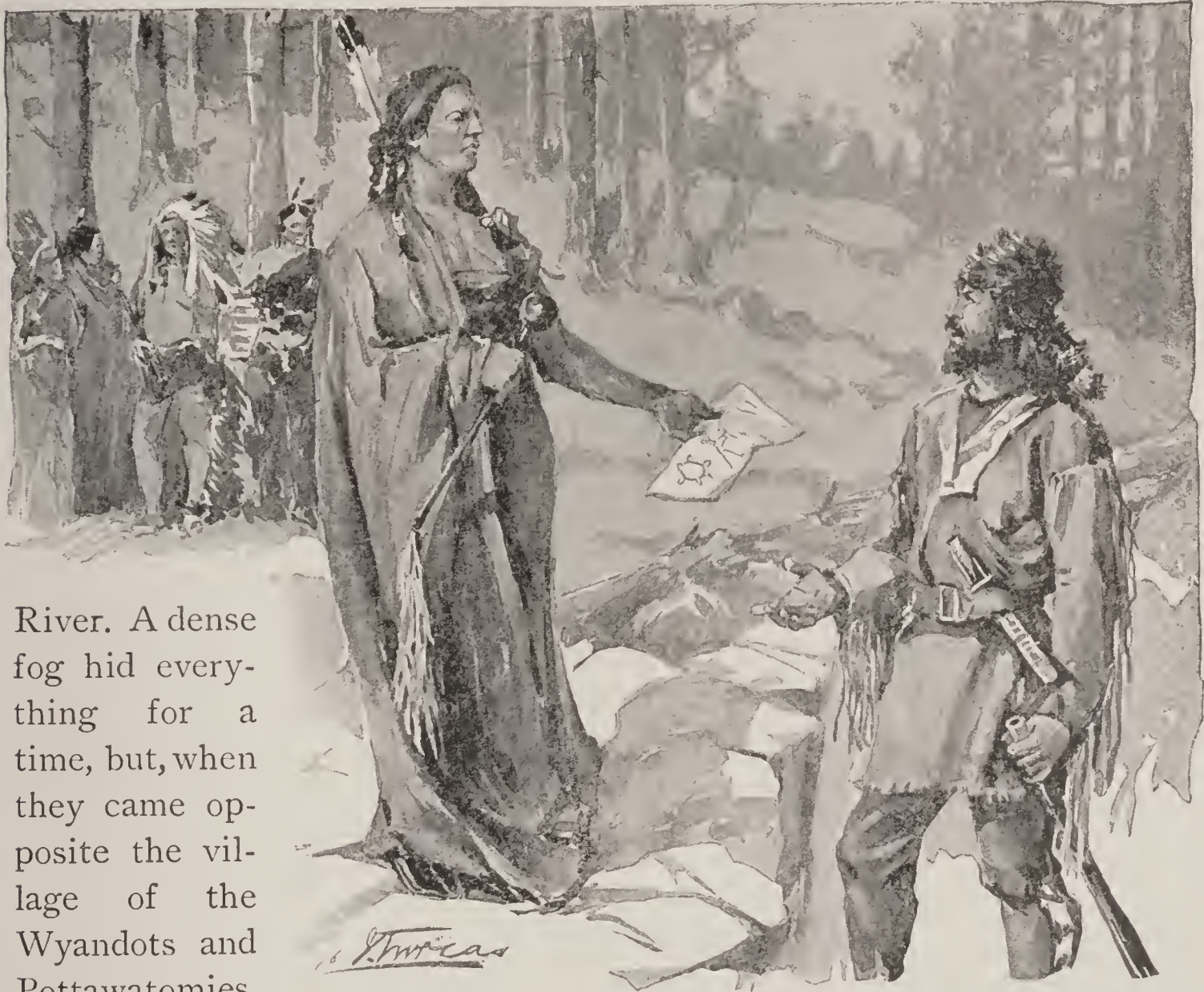
As the days and weeks passed, the danger of Detroit increased. The supply of provisions ran low and the question of supply became a serious one. The besiegers steadily grew in number and held high hopes of success. Reinforcements and supplies were due by way of Lake Erie, but they were so tardy that Major Gladwyn sent one of his schooners to hasten them. When several days had passed, the sentinels on the watch called out that the supply boats were in sight. Scores of eyes were turned towards them, and the crews were seen rowing vigorously. But, suddenly, a strange thing was observed; in one of the boats a white man was seen fighting desperately with an Indian. Each craft contained a number of savages, who were lying down, hoping to enter the fort unsuspected. All the stores, guns, ammunition, and most of the reinforcements intended for the fort had been captured by the besiegers. The schooner, sent some time before, saw nothing of the boats and kept on to Niagara. Meanwhile, the smaller craft followed the coast of Lake Erie to the mouth of the Detroit River. There they landed, and the men were kindling fires for an encampment when they were attacked by a body of Wyandots. Sixty were killed or taken prisoners. Two boats managed to get away, one of which contained Lieutenant Cuyler and forty men. They returned to Niagara, while the Wyandots forced their captives to row to Detroit.

A second expedition was fitted out at Niagara and sailed in the schooner sent from that port. Just as she arrived, the wind died and she was compelled to drop anchor. All knew the peril of the situation and not an eye was closed in slumber. About midnight a number of canoes, laden to the gunwales with Indians, shot out from the gloom, and were paddled swiftly towards the schooner. They were permitted to approach until within a rod or two, when a volley of musket-balls and a broadside of grape killed and wounded more than thirty savages. The remainder pulled frantically for the shore. Soon after, the schooner was able to make her way to the fort. Pontiac chafed at seeing the two vessels, and his fertile mind formed a plan to destroy them. He constructed a number of large rafts, piled them with brushwood, which was fired, and then they were set afloat. But, as in the case of the attempt of the French fire-ships upon Wolfe's

fleet at Quebec, the watchfulness of the crews saved the vessels. The flaming rafts drifted past without harming either of the schooners. As the weeks passed, the Pottawatomies and Wyandots grew tired of the prolonged siege and sent overtures of peace to Major Gladwyn. An exchange of prisoners took place, but the Ottawas and Ojibwas remained as hostile as ever.

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Thus matters stood when, early on July 29th, twenty-two barges, with two hundred and eighty men from Niagara, entered the Detroit



PONTIAC'S PROMISSORY NOTES

River. A dense fog hid everything for a time, but, when they came opposite the village of the Wyandots and Pottawatomies, the barges received a fire

which killed and wounded several men. This, it will be noted, was a characteristic piece of Indian treachery, since the two tribes, only a few days before, had made a pledge of peace with Major Gladwyn. The reinforcements were in charge of Major Dalzell, who was certain that a vigorous movement would crush the savages and end the siege of Detroit. He quickly formed his plans and was so confident

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Battle of  
 Bloody  
 Ridge

of success that the commandant, against his own judgment, gave his consent that he should carry them out.

Before daylight, on the 31st of July, two hundred and fifty men left the fort, and stole through the woods towards the Indian encampment. They followed the shore, and two bateaux, each with a swivel-gun at the bow, advanced at the same pace with the soldiers. The movement was well-conceived, but unfortunately some of the Canadians had told Pontiac of it. He concealed his warriors until the whites had gone by, and then suddenly attacked them just as the van reached the bridge over Parent's Creek. Half the advance guard were slain. Dalzell, to save the remainder, ordered an instant retreat. The hapless soldiers were surrounded, and all would have been massacred to a man had not Major Rogers, with a number of brave fellows, seized a house crowded with fugitives, and held it against an overwhelming assault, while the rest of the troops fought their way back to the fort. The bateaux then added their fire to that of Rogers, and he and his little band withdrew. The English lost fifty-nine in killed and wounded. Major Dalzell was struck and afterwards shot dead while trying to save a fallen sergeant. This sad affair is known as the battle of Bloody Ridge.

Such disasters were disheartening to the besieged, and greatly elated the besiegers; but there was never an hour when Major Gladwyn or the garrison entertained a thought of yielding. They were ready to fight to the end and undergo the last degree of suffering in defence of their lives and of those dependent upon them. On the night of August 4th, one of the sloops was close to the fort on her return from Niagara with despatches. The crew numbered less than twenty, and while anchored were assailed by more than two hundred Indians, who were not seen in the dense gloom, until they were on every side and swarming over the bow, stern, and gunwales. The crew fought fiercely, but were overwhelmed. In his desperation the mate shouted to one of the sailors to fire the magazine. Most of the Indians understood the order, and, warning the others, leaped as far out in the water as possible, diving and swimming with frantic haste to get beyond danger. Although the captain and several of the crew were killed, the escape of the remainder was one of the most singular episodes in the siege of Detroit.

The schooner brought some sorely needed provisions, but they were not enough to give substantial help.



The peril of Detroit caused great anxiety at Niagara, from which point repeated attempts were made to relieve the garrison. The Indians were on the watch for these expeditions, and did everything to frustrate them; but it was not always they alone who fought against the white people. In one instance, a terrific storm caused the loss of seventy lives and all the stores and ammunition on their way to the beleaguered post.

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While the American Indian under certain circumstances displays



THE INDIAN FIRE RAFTS

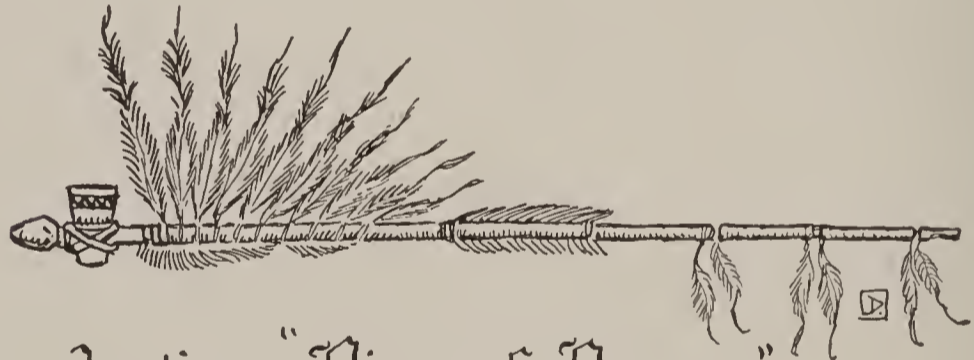
a remarkable degree of patience, he rarely manifests it during military operations. Weeks and months had passed, and still Detroit was safe. The besiegers could see no hope of immediate, nor indeed of remote, success. They were tired of the enterprise and wished to end it. So, on the 12th of October, all the tribes except the Ottawas sent messengers to Major Gladwyn, saying that they desired peace. That officer answered that he had not the power to make peace, but was willing that there should be a truce. This was accepted by the Indians, and the commandant made good use of the opportunity to collect a supply of food for the winter.

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Pon-  
tiac's  
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Foiled

While the truce was in force a few signs of discontent appeared among Pontiac's own tribe, the Ottawas. His terrible personality was not sufficient to hold all of them wrought up to the fighting point, though, as a whole, they stood by him until the fatal blow fell in the latter part of October. This came in the form of a messenger from M. Neyon (*nā-yon*), the French commandant at Fort Chartres (*shart'r*) on the Mississippi, who told Pontiac that peace had been made between France and England, and that the French would give him no help in fighting against the English. The chief was chagrined, but he saw that all was over. The dream of his life vanished. He had no choice save to abandon the siege, but he would not fully yield. Leaving the neighborhood with his leading warriors, he visited the Maumee country, and strove to rouse the tribes in that section to resistance, but his success was trifling.



Indian "Pipe of Peace"



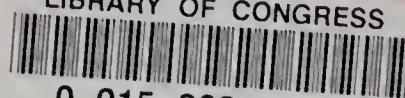








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