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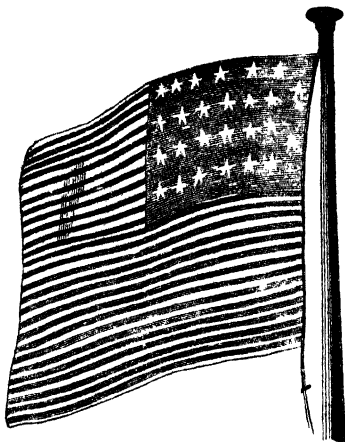
TALES
ABOUT THE
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA,
GEOGRAPHICAL, POLITICAL, AND HISTORICAL.
ILLUSTRATED BY
COMPARATIVE VIEWS OF OTHER COUNTRIES.

The Fourth Edition.
WITH MAPS AND NUMEROUS EMBELLISHMENTS
GREATLY ENLARGED AND IMPROVED.



William Lloyd

PARLEY'S TALES
ABOUT THE
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA,
WITH A FULL
HISTORY OF THE WAR OF SECESSION,
BROUGHT
DOWN TO THE DEATH OF PRESIDENT LINCOLN



LONDON: WILLIAM TEGG.

1865.

PREFACE.

As a country of so much importance as the United States of North America can never be too well understood, I have ventured to add another to the many works that are now extant relating to it. This volume differs, however, essentially from any other within my knowledge. In the first place, it exhibits the great features of the country, not partly, as is usual, but on a principle of classification which places in one view all that relates to any particular topic. Thus, the whole subject of Mountains is taken up and considered; then the subject of Rivers, and the same with each several subject.

In the second place, as I conceive that we cannot well understand any country, without knowing how it resembles, or differs from, others, I have taken occasion to bring that which is under consideration into constant comparison with other lands. Thus, as to the lakes, or rivers, or cities,—after having described them,—

I inform the reader about the lakes, rivers, or cities of other countries, and show the chief points of resemblance, or difference, between them. This system of comparison forms a leading feature of the work.

It is obvious, that the narrow compass of this volume admits but of little detail. I have sought, however, to make the book attractive, by the introduction of illustrative sketches and anecdotes, and by the use of a free and somewhat colloquial style. I have had occasion, now and then, to treat of some topics not easily made comprehensible to the young: if, in these cases, the work seems less profound than it might be, I beg the reader to consider that it is not intended as a school-book. It is rather designed for such of my young friends, as are now old enough to take an interest in the state of the several countries of the world, and particularly in that of the United States of North America. To such young persons I dedicate my book.

PETER PARLEY.

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TRAVELLER'S GUIDE
About the
United States of America.

BY

Edwin Forbes

FOURTH EDITION



LONDON:

William Fogg

TALES

ABOUT

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

SECTION I. BOUNDARIES AND EXTENT.

1. THE United States of North America, if the accounts of certain geographers and statistis may be received, are bounded north by British and Russian America; east by the British province of New-Brunswick and the Atlantic Ocean; south by the Gulf of Mexico, and the United Mexican States; and west by the Pacific Ocean.

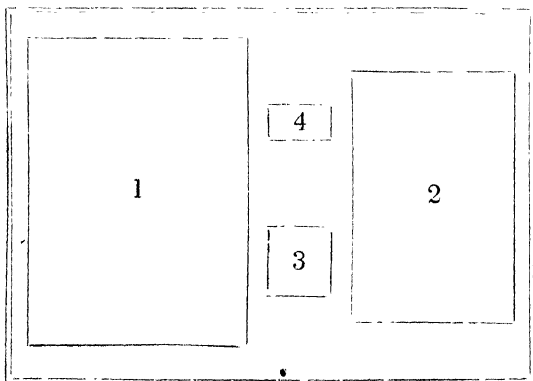
2. They extend from the twenty-fifth to the fifty-fourth degrees north latitude, and from about the sixty-seventh to the hundred and twenty-seventh west longitude from Greenwich. From north to south, they extend through twenty-nine degrees of latitude, a distance of nearly two thousand miles; and from east to west, through fifty-eight degrees of longitude, a distance of nearly three thousand miles.

3. The boundary-line, extending entirely around the United States, is nine thousand five hundred

miles in length. Of this, three thousand six hundred and fifty are seacoast. The whole surface occupies a space of about two millions one hundred thousand square miles.

4. The annexed figures will give an idea of this stated extent of the United States, as compared with some other countries. Fig. 1 represents Europe, which has about three millions seven hundred and twenty-four thousand square miles; fig. 2 represents the United States; fig. 3, France, two hundred thousand square miles; fig. 4, Great Britain and Ireland, one hundred and twenty thousand square miles :

DIAGRAM I.



5. Reckoning in this manner, the United States, compared with the whole surface of the globe, over about a one hundredth part; and, as compared with all the land on the globe, they occupy about a twenty-fifth part. They are about one half as extensive as Europe; one third as extensive as the Chinese empire; ten times as extensive as France; and sixteen times as extensive as Great Britain and Ireland.

II. THE UNITED STATES-PROPER,

DISTINGUISHED FROM THEIR TOTAL TERRITORY.

6. ALMOST every thing, however, which has been said in the preceding section, is either matter of dispute, or needs to be explained.

7. In speaking of the boundaries and extent of the *United States*, what is meant is, the boundaries and extent of the *whole territory* of the United States.

8. The *whole territory*, or the *whole territories*, of a state may much exceed, in boundaries and extent, the territory upon which a state is actually seated.

9. My youthful readers have seen, in the preceding diagram, the proportion borne by the actual territory of Great Britain and Ireland, to Europe, to France,

and to the United States, as represented by the squares and parallelograms, figures 1, 2, 3, 4; but what a change would there not be, in the comparative dimensions of these figures, had the *whole territory*, or *whole territories*, of the kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, been represented in that diagram, in the same manner as the actual territory of the United States themselves, a surface of earth upon which those states are seated! Great Britain and Ireland, of whose whole territory or territories, upon the circumference of the globe, it is justly said that the sun is never set, everywhere at the same time; because, when it is setting at Quebec, and still more when it is setting upon the Rocky Mountains, and upon the north-west coast of America, and even upon the Sandwich Islands, which claim the British sovereignty, it is rising, risen, or at high noon, through all British India.

10. Authorities in the United States are agreed in estimating the whole dominion, or whole territory subject to the power of those states, at upwards of two millions of square miles, as stated and displayed in my first section. But, of how many millions of square miles would the whole territory, or whole dominion, of Great Britain and Ireland be found

composed, if reckoned in the manner of this reckoning of the United States?

11. Let us begin with the extent of surface above assigned to the mere British Islands, or surface of Great Britain and Ireland, and add the estimated surfaces of British North America, South America, the West Indies, British Africa, Australasia, Ceylon, and Foreign Europe; or, so much of the British territory or dominions only, as are in the departments of the Queen's two Secretaries, for the Home Department, and for the Colonies, respectively, and leaving out of the enumeration all the whole immensity of British India, which is under the control of a third department of British sway, and forms a third and enormous division of British territory!

BRITISH TERRITORY.	SQUARE MILES.
Great Britain and Ireland	120,000
British North America, not including at least 370,000 square miles, the territories of the Hudson's Bay Company; and not including the Indian Territories to the west, north, and south	435,000
British South America	165,000
British West Indies	13,000
British Africa	250,000
British Australasia and Polynesia, the Sandwich Islands not included	500,000
Ceylon	24,644

BRITISH TERRITORY.	SQUARE MILES.
Foreign Europe; as, Gibraltar, the Ionian Islands, Malta, &c.	1,500
	1,509,144

To which now add,

Territories of the Hudson's Bay Company, in North America	370,000
	1,879,144

And, to this one million eight hundred and seventy-nine thousand, one hundred and forty-four square miles of territory, of Great Britain and Ireland, still add a vast though undefined extent, for British Indian territories in North America; British Indian territories in India, and Indian tributaries, governed jointly by the East India Company, and the Queen's Board of Control. Now what would be the comparative boundaries and extent of Great Britain and Ireland, and of the United States, if each were similarly reckoned; or, if to the actual boundaries of the British kingdom, were added, as in the case of the United States, all the possessions, and even all the claims to possession, and all the Indian territories, and the rest?

12. My young readers immediately perceive, that

by such a mode of reckoning, the boundaries and extent of Great Britain and Ireland, marked 4 in the diagram in my first section, would speedily swell to at least an equality with figure 2, intended to represent the United States; while I am quite sure, that all the British possessions, taken together, would be inadequately represented, in comparison with the possessions of the United States, and even with their possessions and claims for possession as well,—would not be adequately shown to the eye,—even if figure 1, in that diagram, were supposed to represent Great Britain and Ireland, and still figure 2, the United States!

13. Figure 1, in that diagram, represents Europe, with a surface of about three millions seven hundred and twenty-four thousand square miles, or what approaches to four millions, or twice the magnitude assumed for the United States; and can the territory of Great Britain, considered in all the extent to which the calculation can be raised, fall short, even if it does not exceed, that vast amount?

14. I say nothing *here* of the comparative population, riches, and advantages of soil and climate, of the two territories collectively, and in both of which there are barren, inhospitable, and thinly peopled

parts, and entire solitudes, parts which never will or can be habitable; because I am speaking, here, of boundaries and extent alone.

III. ACTUAL TERRITORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

15. THE United States, of which the number may always be diminished or increased, are at present twenty-six; each state adjoining one or more other states, so that the several surfaces of the several states form one continuous surface.

16. This continuous or uninterrupted surface extends from the northern and eastern boundaries of the state of Maine, in the north and east, to the southern and western boundaries of the states of Louisiana, Missouri, and Arkansas, in the south and west. In the south-east, it is bounded by the northern boundaries of East and West Florida; and through all the remainder of the east and west, by the Atlantic Ocean upon the one side, and by the river Mississippi upon the other.

17. Now these are the real boundaries and extent of the United States. The possessions, territories,

or territory of the United States, beyond these boundaries, and this extent, make a different question. But these are those boundaries, and that extent, of the United States, which are alone to be properly compared with the boundaries and extent of Europe, France, Great Britain and Ireland, the Chinese Empire; or all the land, or all the habitable land, or all the surface of the whole terraqueous globe.

18. But these boundaries, and this extent of the territory occupied by the twenty-six United States, or to be said in any manner inhabited, or even habitable, by its people, is less than half of those assumed in my first section; where what is meant, is the whole dominion or territory, either occupied, possessed, or claimed by the twenty-six United States.

19. That whole dominion or territory is described, in my first section, as comprising two millions one hundred thousand square miles. Putting together the whole of the areas of the twenty-six states, as hereafter given, in my second section, I had found the extent of the twenty-six states together, to be less than a million of square miles, or less than one half of the two millions one hundred thousand! I had made them, however, to exceed *nine hundred thousand!* But I observe that the Encyclopædia Ameri-

cana, (an excellent work, printed in Philadelphia, and founded upon the German Conversation-Lexicon, the English and other foreign Encyclopædias, and enriched with history, science, and general information, peculiar to the United States;) I observe that this work reduces the extent still more than 1, —making it but *eight hundred thousand!*

20. “The number of square miles, of the territory of the United States,” says the Encyclopædia Americana, “is estimated at upwards of two millions. More than half of the territory included within these limits contains few or no settlers, and is not yet formed into states; and if a line were drawn from the mouth of the Sabine, due north to the Missouri; thence, in a north-easterly direction, to the south end of Lake Michigan; the eastern division would include nearly all the *population*, though less than half of the *territory*. The other division is almost wholly in the possession of the Indians.”—The river Sabine falls into the Gulf of Mexico, and is the western boundary of the state of Louisiana, or that which separates it from Texas; and also the south-western boundary of the whole United States and territory.

21. I follow this extract with my own reckoning of merely the square miles. Though there is no

actual or legal subdivision or classification, of the United States, into Eastern, Middle, Southern, and Western, yet convenience of speech, and arrangement of ideas, has led to the adoption, in words, of this natural order of classification or distribution.

22. Now it will be seen, from the table above referred to, that the several and total extents or surfaces of the particular States—the Eastern, Middle, Southern, and Western States—and of the United States collectively—stand thus :

I. EASTERN STATES.		Names of the Middle States.	Extent, in square miles.
Names of the Eastern States.	Extent, in square miles.	4. Delaware . . .	2,100
1. Maine	35,000	5. Maryland . . .	9,356
2. New Hampshire .	9,491	Total square miles	112,861
3. Vermont	8,000		
4. Massachusetts .	7,800	III. SOUTHERN STATES.	
5. Rhode Island . .	1,225	Names of the Southern States.	Extent, in square miles.
6. Connecticut . .	4,764	1. Virginia	70,000
Total square miles	66,280	2. North Carolina .	50,000
		3. South Carolina .	33,000
		4. Georgia	62,000
		5. Alabama	51,770
		6. Mississippi . . .	48,000
		7. Louisiana	48,320
		Total square miles	363,090

II. MIDDLE STATES.

Names of the Middle States.	Extent, in square miles.
1. New York	46,085
2. New Jersey . . .	8,320
3. Pennsylvania . . .	47,000

IV. WESTERN STATES.		Names of the Western States.	Extent, in square miles.
Names of the Western States.	Extent, in square miles.	5. Illinois	55,000
1. Tennessee	45,000	6. Missouri	64,009
2. Kentucky	40,000	7. Arkansas	55,000
3. Ohio	44,000	8. Michigan	60,000
4. Indiana	36,400	Total square miles	399,400

Or, thus :

	Square miles,
1. Eastern States, as above	66,280
2. Middle States	112,861
3. Southern States	363,090
4. Western States	699,400
Total of the United States, in square miles .	941,631

To which add, as in the table referred to—

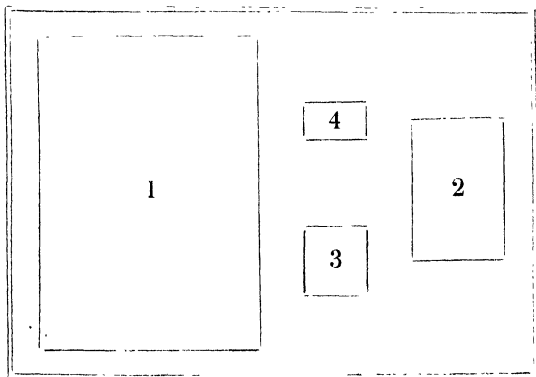
	Square miles.
1. District of Columbia	100
2. Territory of Florida	55,000
3. Territory of Wisconsin	
4. Territory of Oregon	
Total of the United States and their <i>terri-</i>	_____
<i>ories</i> , &c. in square miles	996,731

Or, with allowance for the unstated surfaces of the two territories of Wisconsin and Oregon, a total surface of the United States and their territories,

and the District of Columbia, of *nine hundred and ninety-six thousand seven hundred and thirty-one square miles*;—or, in round numbers, and throwing into the account a gratuitous three thousand square miles, or more,—*one million of square miles*:—and this, notwithstanding the extent, as seen above, of so many of the new states is given to us in round numbers only, or rough estimates; and estimates, too, which are both rough and flattered!

23. It follows, that thus precisely examined, the diagram at my second page would appear in this new form; that is, in the territory of the United

DIAGRAM II.



States, as actually comprehended in the whole of the twenty-six states, and with the three territories of Florida, Wisconsin, and Oregon, and the district of Columbia, reduced at least one half; that is, as *one million* is less than the half of *two millions one hundred thousand*; and leaving the remaining one million one hundred thousand square miles of the whole territory, as assumed at my second page, to be formed as they may, in the territory actually *possessed*, but not *occupied*; or, in the territory actually *claimed*, but not yet *conceded*!

24. In this diagram, as in that preceding, figure 1 represents Europe; figure 2, represents the United States; figure 3, France; and figure 4, Great Britain and Ireland: but here, not as before, (the United States *only* taking the place of the *total territory* of the United States,) the United States, as compared with the whole surface of the globe, cover only about a *two-hundredth* part; as compared with all the dry land upon the globe, about a *fiftieth* part. They are about one *quarter* as extensive as Europe; one *sixth* as extensive as the Chinese Empire; *five* times as extensive as France; and *eight* times as extensive as Great Britain and Ireland. Compared with the last, the United States, then, have an actual and compact continental territory of one million of square miles;

while the insular and therefore disjointed territory of the British Islands contains but a hundred and twenty thousand square miles,—a territorial difference and superiority surely sufficiently conspicuous and magnificent!

FORMATION OF STATES, TERRITORIES, AND DISTRICTS.

25. The territory of the United States, either possessed or claimed, but at the utmost still unoccupied, and not yet, if ever, properly to be called the United States, is thus undoubtedly considerable. It may be far short of the remaining one million one hundred thousand miles supposed in my first, second, and third pages; but yet, all possible deductions made, it is undoubtedly considerable!

26. The whole territory of the United States, occupied, possessed, or claimed, consists, first, in all the collective territories of the original thirteen British colonies; secondly, it consists in all that was Louisiana at the date of the cession of Louisiana to the United States by France; and thirdly, in the whole of Florida, East and West, as ceded to the United States by Spain.

27. But the United States have no title, upon the west of the Mississippi, except as to all that was once the French Louisiana.

28. Further, the United States have no title upon the north, and upon the east, except as such title has been ceded to them by Great Britain, under the terms of the treaty of 1782, or, as the boundary-line between British America and the territory of the United States, to the east and to the west of Canada, shall hereafter be determined, either by the letter or by the spirit of that treaty.

29. Within the limits, however, here insisted upon, the United States have still an undoubted and unoccupied territory of great extent. Now every part of this undoubted and unoccupied territory may *hereafter* become part of the territory of a state, to be added to the present number of the United States; and, supposing, for the instant, that undoubted but unoccupied territory to contain the one million one hundred thousand square miles, assumed, in my *first*, *second*, and *third* pages, as to be added to the one million square miles, the actual territory of the twenty-six states, and their four territories,—or *thirty* territories averaging thirty-five or thirty-six millions of square miles each;—then, even upon that basis only, at least *sixty* states, instead of the present *twenty-six*, would not be too many for looking forward to, as the number, at some future day, of the states of the United States!

30. The states have been partly multiplied in number, without increase of collective territory, by the subdivision of some of the ancient colonies or their dependencies. Thus, Maine has grown out of Massachusetts; Vermont consists in lands anciently claimed both by Massachusetts and New York; Kentucky was part of Virginia, and Tennessee and Alabama lie in the back country of the ancient Georgia. But other states, in the new list, have been erected upon the lands later acquired; and all these states, only a few years since, were, themselves not states, but *territories*.

31. A *territory*, thus technically understood in the United States, is, in reality, a *colony*. It has its boundaries, and its internal government, but not a free government. It is no member of the union, but a dependency. It sends no members to Congress; it has no houses of Assembly of its own; its Governor is appointed by the president of the United States. But these privations of a *territory* are due only to the paucity of its inhabitants, and disappear upon their given increase. The census determines the condition. A *territory* is an embryo state. Its future destiny is certain, or contingent only upon the amount and progress of its population. The constitution of the United States has prescribed the amount of

population at which, without favour or solicitation, a territory becomes a state and a member of the Union; sends members to Congress; elects members of Assembly, and elects its Governor. A land or region of territories or colonies thus is a nursery of states; and in this manner, the wild lands of the United States being progressively laid out in colonies or territories, and the territories progressively acknowledged as states; the whole of the wild lands, or unoccupied territory of the United States, may hereafter become the land of a new host of states, and the United States count sixty states, or a hundred states, within its Federative Union, if such should ever be created, or should hang long together.

IV. STATES, TERRITORIES, AND DISTRICTS.

GENERAL VIEWS OF THE SURFACE AND BOUNDARIES OF THE UNITED STATES AND THEIR TERRITORY, THEIR FORESTS, CLEARANCES, AND SETTLEMENTS OR POPULATION.

32. MY youthful readers are scarcely in need of being told, that the whole of the European settlements, in what is commonly called North America, have been originally planted upon the eastern edges of that great continent, or along the coasts of the

Atlantic Ocean; that they have been progressively extended inland, or to the westward; but that all which is still behind these settlements, or still further to the westward, is still wild land, or land occupied only by nations of hunting Indians, and by the brute creation; and with none but the natural boundaries of rivers, lakes, mountains, and, finally, the Pacific Ocean upon the west, and the Arctic Ocean upon the north.

33. My youthful readers are also equally aware, that the whole of North America, with the exception of the Mexican territories upon the south-west, (often omitted in the popular view of North America, and supposed to belong to South America,) and with the exception of certain claims of the Russian empire upon the coasts of the north-west,—is at present divided between the two sovereignties of the United States of North America, and the monarchy of Great Britain and Ireland;—only the rights of Indian property in the lands and waters are saved as against both sovereignties; and these are Indian territories.

34. All the further part of the west of North America is therefore in a state nearly wild, and, whether belonging to the United States or to Great Britain, that is, whether a part of the *territory*

of the one or the other, is no more a part of the United States, than of Great Britain.

35. But thus much for the difference between the territory *possessed* by the United States, and the territory actually *occupied* by the United States. As to the further difference between the territory actually possessed, or in actual, rightful, and acknowledged possession, by the United States—and the territory *claimed* or pretended to by that power, as against Great Britain and Ireland—I have said sufficiently of this above.

36. My remaining business, then, is with the difference between the territory *possessed*, and the territory *occupied*, by the United States; for, as the two provinces of Canada, and the other four provinces of British North America, make only the smallest, though at the same time, the most valuable part of the British North American territory; so, the country actually occupied by the United States and their dependent districts, denominated Territories, is the smallest, and at the same time, the most valuable part, of the territory of the United States, or of that portion of the surface of North America, over which the United States enjoy a sovereignty.

37. Upon this vast territory, but almost wholly,

as we have seen, within the limits of by much its lesser half, there was, in the year 1830, a population of twelve millions, eight hundred and fifty-eight thousand, six hundred and seventy; of which two millions nine hundred thousand and fifty were negro slaves; and three hundred and thirteen thousand were Indians; and six thousand other coloured free persons; leaving, white persons, ten millions five hundred and thirty thousand and forty-four.

38. The states of Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, and Ohio, were this year wholly without slave populations. In the state of Ohio there has been none since the year 1810; and in the state of Massachusetts, none since the year 1790.

39. Of the three hundred and thirteen thousand Indians, held to remain in the whole territory of the United States, ninety-eight thousand (or, nearly one hundred thousand) were reckoned in the eastern and smaller half of the territory of the United States, and the remaining two hundred and fifteen thousand, in the western or greater half; but since the year 1830, many of the principal Indians of the east have been induced to retire upon lands in the west. A very few years since, the total number of Indians was estimated at much above four hundred thousand.

40. The population of the eastern half of the territory of the United States, or that which contains, within, perhaps, two hundred thousand, the whole population, shows a proportion of sixteen souls of population for each square mile of territory. In Great Britain and Ireland, the proportion is two hundred and thirty souls for each square mile.

V. STATES, TERRITORIES, AND DISTRICTS,
CONTINUED.

FORESTS—FACE OF THE COUNTRY—BOUNDARIES BETWEEN THE TERRITORY OF THE UNITED STATES, AND BRITISH AMERICA.

41. “VOLNEY,” says the *Encyclopædia Americana*, “who visited the United States in 1796, describes the country as a vast forest, interrupted by open spaces formed by brackish marshes, and by cultivated tracts round the cities.

42. “In a state of nature, the whole Atlantic slope was, in fact, covered by a dense forest, which also spread over a great part of the basin of the Saint Lawrence (New York, Vermont, and Upper and Lower Canada), to the fifty-fifth degree of north latitude, and nearly the whole of the Mississippi valley on the east of the river, and stretched beyond (or on

the west of) the Mississippi for the distance of fifty or one hundred miles.

43. “Of this enormous forest, one of the largest on the globe, *nineteen twentieths* yet remain; the efforts of man having made but partial inroads on either its mass or on its extent.

44. “This forest is bounded, on its western limits, by another region of *much greater area*, but of a very different character, as to soil, surface, and productions.”—That is, the larger half of the extent or area of the territory of the United States, between the Atlantic Ocean upon the east, and the Rocky Mountains upon the west, is not forest land or fertile land, but tracts of naked and generally barren land, denominated sometimes *plains*, and sometimes *prairies*, which I shall presently describe, and which are found throughout the valley of the Mississippi, in some parts upon its eastern side, but chiefly upon its west.

45. The United States, according to the *Encyclopædia Americana*, are bounded north by New Britain and Upper and Lower Canada; east by New Brunswick and the Atlantic Ocean; south by the Gulf of Mexico, south-west and south by the country of Mexico, and by the Pacific Ocean.

•46. But, even within these limits, that work gives to the territory of the United States, upwards of two millions of square miles, a seacoast of three thousand six hundred and fifty miles, and an area of one twentieth of the habitable globe.

47. It properly remarks, however, that the north-eastern boundary, or that between New Brunswick and Maine, is yet in dispute. By the English construction, it says, of the terms of the treaty of 1783, this mark is in latitude $46^{\circ} 30'$; while by that of the United States, 48° . This difference, in the meantime, though of high importance to Great Britain and Ireland, with reference to the position of the land contested, affects, as my young readers observe, less than two degrees of latitude in that part of the confines of the United States upon British America.

48. “The northern and western boundaries,” adds this work, “are also partly disputed. The country, west of the Rocky Mountains, claimed by Great Britain. By the terms of a convention made in 1818 for ten years, and renewed in 1827, it is to remain open to both.”

49. Yet this is the country in virtue of the possession, or claim to possession of which alone, the north-western boundary of the United States is carried up

to $54^{\circ} 10'$ north latitude. This is the country which, with the rest, is taken credit for, when the United States are said to cover upwards of two millions of square miles; which appears, in my subsequent table, as part of the United States, or of their territory, under the name of the Territory of Oregon; and the country on account of which alone, the United States are said to be bounded, upon the north-west, by Russian America, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean!

50. Great Britain and Ireland reject the claim of the United States to any territory whatever, west of the Rocky Mountains, and north of the latitude forty-two degrees north; and the United States, by treaty of 1821, with the United States of Mexico, have acknowledged their exclusion from the Rocky Mountains, from all the country to the westward of those mountains, and therefore from the shores of the Pacific Ocean, as far as this latitude forty-two degrees north, and beyond one hundred degrees west longitude.

51. The country which the United States thus call Oregon, after the ancient Indian and geographical name of its principal river, the Oregon, or River of the West, and which extends from the

western side of the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific Ocean, and from the Spanish limits northward, is described by them as stretching in length eight hundred miles; or, from those Spanish limits in 42° north, to the Russian limits, in $54^{\circ} 10'$ in length; and as covering, in breadth, from ten to fifteen degrees of longitude, or from four hundred, to six hundred and fifty, geographical miles.

52. By every ordinary account in Europe, the western boundary of the United States, as far south as the Spanish boundary of forty-two degrees north, is the Rocky Mountains, and they have no claim to a foot of land upon the borders of the Pacific Ocean. To the south of the latitude mentioned, they are bounded west by one hundred degrees west longitude, and by the courses of the Red River and the Sabine, under the Mexican treaty just referred to.

53. Great Britain, at parting with their territory as colonial, left it bounded upon the west, as well as separated from the French colony of Louisiana, by the river Mississippi. The French colony of Louisiana was bounded, upon the east by the Mississippi, and upon the west by the Rocky Mountains. This colony, with these boundaries, was subsequently ceded by France to the United States.

54. But it is not in virtue of the acquisition of Louisiana, that the United States now claim the country west of the Rocky Mountains, and its coasts upon the Pacific Ocean! All those coasts were long since discovered, explored, and taken possession of by Cook and Vancouver, and by them named, together with their bays and islands, and their chief river, Oregon; coasting from north to south, we see, as named in the map, New Georgia and New Albion, with Quadra, or Vancouver's Island; while Russia, to the north of $54^{\circ} 10'$ north, in this partition of spoil, takes New Hanover, New Cornwall, New Norfolk, together with coasts successively more to the northward, and composing what my first section calls Russian America.

55. Russia and the United States, by a convention of the year 1824, have bound themselves to each other, but without consulting Great Britain upon the affirmative side, to make no settlements, Russia to the southward, and the United States to the northward, of this latitude $54^{\circ} 10'$ north; while M. Malte-Brun, considering the cold and desolation of the Russian share, and the interference with British claims and fur-traders, thinks that Russia would act the wisest if she renounced the whole pretension.

Anterior, however, to the Russian convention, the United States did not carry their territory of Oregon higher than fifty-one degrees north, or make its length, northward and southward, more than five hundred and sixty miles.

56. In the year 1791, a certain Captain Gray, commanding the good whaling and sealing ship Columbia, of Boston, thought proper to look into the mouth of the well-known river Oregon, and to give it, after his ship, the new name Columbia.

57. Ten or twelve years later, the government at Washington dispatched an exploring party into this country, across the Rocky Mountains, and now asserts its claim as a United States' discovery: "Oregon," says the Encyclopædia Americana (article LOUISIANA), "is a territory west of the Rocky Mountains, which seems to belong to the United States *rather by priority of discovery*, than as a part of the Louisiana-purchase:"—"A region," says the same authority, "little known as yet, and unoccupied by whites, being visited only by hunters and trading ships."

58. Great Britain, in the meantime, acknowledges no territorial rights in the United States, westward of the Rocky Mountains. By a convention with

Great Britain, ratified in the year 1808, the north-western angle of the territory of the United States was settled as consisting in a line drawn, in latitude forty-nine degrees north, from the Lake of the Woods, to the Rocky Mountains.

59. In the year 1811, Mr. John Jacob Astor, a wealthy merchant of New York, of German origin, undertook the formation of a settlement at the mouth of the river Columbia or Oregon, which, after his own name, he called Astoria; but this was destroyed in 1813, by British ships, the United States being at this time engaged in the second war of this country with Great Britain; and in the year 1818, and again in the year 1828, both countries entered into the convention of mutual forbearance, which I have already mentioned. The history of the settling and destruction of ASTORIA is one of the many interesting and valuable works of the American writer, Mr. Washington Irving, for which America and Europe are alike indebted to his accomplished genius and pen.

VI. STATES, TERRITORIES, AND DISTRICTS, CONCLUDED.

TERRITORY OF OREGAN. TERRITORY OF WISCONSIN, OR OWISCONSIN, OR NORTH-WESTERN TERRITORY. TERRITORY OF FLORIDA. TRUE BOUNDARIES OF THE GENERAL TERRITORY OF THE UNITED STATES. ANCIENT TERRITORY OR COLONY OF LOUISIANA. MODERN STATE OF LOUISIANA. FRENCH LAWS OF LOUISIANA. ENGLISH LAWS OF THE UNITED STATES IN GENERAL.

60. OF the Territory of Oregon, to whomsoever it may rightfully belong, I shall say little further than that it is a noble country. Its climate is warmer than that of the countries in the same latitudes upon the eastern side of the Rocky Mountains. Of this we may judge by the luxuriance of its vegetation, and by the number and size of its animals, and their species. Upon the north-eastern coasts of the continent, the first settlers spoke of pine trees of two hundred feet in height; and, to this day, we meet with those, apparently of lesser age, which have attained the height of a hundred and twenty feet. But, upon the western side of the Rocky Mountains, and towards the coasts of the Pacific, the lands, which abound in heavy timber, produce seven species of pine, among which are found trees of three hun-

dred feet, and forty-five in circumference; at once elegant and majestic in figure, having single trunks for two hundred feet of their elevation! Among birds, here is a heron, four feet tall, but with a body no bigger than that of a small goose.

61. Its principal river, the Oregon, lately called the Columbia, (and known as the Tahochee or Tacoche-tesse, named Stod-coss, or Shoshonees, by the Indians of the country, with whom *tessee* signifies a river,) has a course of fifteen hundred miles, from the mountains to the sea. But the land falls much more rapidly from the mountains, westward, towards the sea; then eastward towards the Mississippi; and, hence, those western rivers, also, are more rapid, and more broken by rocks, and less fit for navigation. The mouth of the Oregon is in latitude $43^{\circ} 18'$ north.

62. The country now called the territory of Wisconsin, is the same with that which was lately called the Western and North-western Territory. Perhaps this was before the United States thought of claiming territories still more to the west and north-west. It lies northward of the state of Illinois, and is bounded northward by Lake Superior, eastward by the state of Michigan, and westward by the Missis-

sippi. It is in latitude forty-two degrees to forty-nine degrees north; the northernmost boundary of the United States, anywhere acknowledged by Great Britain. Its climate is very cold, and it has scarcely any inhabitants except Indians and white hunters and *trappers*. In the northern or upper part, it is a rich fine country; and in the southern or lower, it partakes of the lead ores and other mineral treasures of its southern neighbour, the state of Illinois. Its quadrupeds are wild deer, wild oxen, wolves, bears, beavers, otters, musk rats, and many others. It is called four hundred miles in breadth, and five hundred miles in length. The Wisconsin, its principal river, falls into the Mississippi; but it has many rivers of short course, which descend from its northern mountains into Lake Superior. On the south is the neighbourhood of the sources of the Mississippi, at a level of thirteen hundred and fifty feet above the level of the sea. The very few settlers in Wisconsin look for law and immediate government to the state of Michigan.

63. The Territory of Florida comprehends the whole of the two ancient Spanish colonies of East Florida, and West Florida. East Florida is a part of land stretching into the gulf of Mexico; and it is only at the southern extremity of this, that the terri-

tory of the United States commences so far south as twenty-five degrees north.

64. This country was ceded to the United States by Spain, shortly before the year 1821. It is four hundred miles in length. It is reckoned to contain from forty-five to fifty thousand square miles. Its population, in 1830, was thirty-nine thousand eight hundred and thirty-four souls.

65. Florida adjoins the state of Georgia upon the north, and New Orleans and Alabama upon the west. Its principal river, the Chatahoochee, rises in the Alleghany or Apalachian Mountains; and to this country, or rather to Georgia, belong the river Apalachia, or Apalachicola, and the Indians called Apalaches, whence the name both of the river and the mountains.

66. While I am writing, however, Florida is about to become the *twenty-seventh* of the United States. The prescribed steps are taking, for raising this Territory into a State, referred to in my second section.

67. I may now, without presuming to settle the disputed boundaries between Great Britain and the United States, on the north-east or on the north-

west, sum up a part of what I have said or brought into view, as to the true boundaries of the latter.

68. They nowhere extend, as described by the geographers of my first section, from twenty-five degrees to fifty-four degrees north latitude.

69. Beginning upon the side of the Atlantic, they have a real beginning in twenty-five degrees north, at the narrow point of Cape Sable; but they run northward only to forty-six degrees thirty minutes, according to Great Britain, and forty-eight degrees, according to the authorities of the state of Maine, and United States. The latitude fifty-four degrees, and longitude sixty-seven degrees west, would give to the United States Upper and Lower Canada, New Britain, James's Bay, and other parts of the territory of the Hudson's Bay Company!

70. In Central North America, or the valley of the Mississippi, or from the coasts of the states of New Orleans and Louisiana, they begin in about north latitude twenty-three degrees, and end at forty-nine degrees. The boundary of forty-nine degrees north, in this part of North America, was fixed in 1808, by mutual agreement with Great Britain.

71. Upon the coast of the Pacific, even if the arrangements reciprocated between the United States

and Russia were established by obtaining the consent of Great Britain, and even if the latitude of fifty-four degrees ten minutes in west longitude one hundred and twenty-five degrees, or one hundred and twenty-seven degrees; still, according to treaty with Spain, in the year 1819, and with the Mexican States, in 1821, they begin southward only in forty-two degrees north. To say, that, upon this western side of the continent, they begin at twenty-five degrees north, is to say that they include the Mexican states and territories of New Mexico, California, New California, New Navarra, New Biscay, New Leon, and others; as, to say, that they stretch to fifty-four degrees ten minutes north, is to say that they include so much of what is claimed as British.

72. The Rocky Mountains, with the heads of the Missouri and Platte, and about one hundred and eighteen degrees west longitude from Greenwich, have usually been esteemed the western boundaries of the territory or whole dominion of the United States; and this was indeed the case after their acquisition of the French colony of Louisiana.

73. Readers must distinguish between the French colony of Louisiana, running the whole length of the Mississippi, bounded upon the west by New Mexico,

and claimed to stretch northward to Lake Winipie; or, as sometimes described, estimated to extend twelve hundred miles in length, and six hundred and forty in breadth; bounded east by the Mississippi, south by the Gulf of Mexico, west by New Spain and New Mexico, and running indefinitely north; and the modern state of Louisiana, a minute portion of the former, but which state preserves the name. The colony was ceded by France in 1803, and the state became such in 1812. Its southern boundary is in thirty-one degrees north; longitude ninety-two degrees west from Greenwich. Its population, in 1830, was two hundred and fifteen thousand seven hundred and thirty-nine. This is chiefly French; and the laws, like the name of this state, are French also. The French laws of the state of Louisiana make singular exceptions to the institutions of all the remainder of the United States, in which the common-law of England, and the English state-law to the date of 1783, is the law of the land; subject to every qualification, or abrogation, or addition, enacted, or, at any time, to be enacted, in each state; and where the decisions of the English courts of law, to the latest moment, may always be quoted as authorities.

VII. PHYSICAL DIVISIONS.

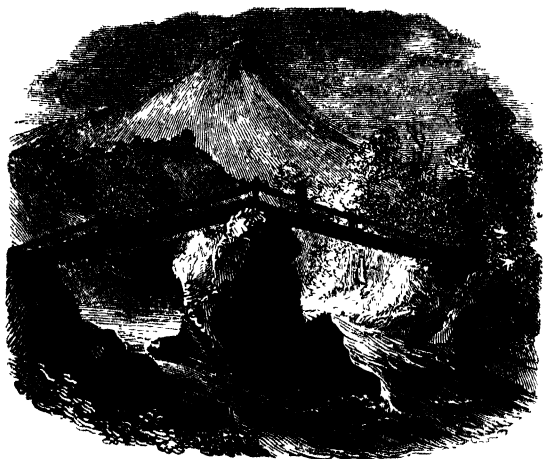
74. IN taking a view of the surface of the territory of the United States, with the extent and boundaries supposed in my first section, we observe, that it is divided by nature into five regions. First, on the eastern border along the Atlantic coast, is a strip of low land, occupied by what are called the Atlantic States. This strip is of various widths, from fifty to two hundred and fifty miles.

75. The second portion consists of a range of mountains called the Alleghany, or Apalachian, chain; the third consists of the valley of the Mississippi; the fourth, of the Rocky Mountain chain; and the fifth, of the slope of land between these mountains and the Pacific Ocean.

76. As compared with Europe, or indeed with most other portions of the earth, the United States themselves may be considered but moderately mountainous or hilly. A larger part of their surface is composed of lands admitting of cultivation, than of most other countries of similar extent.

VIII. MOUNTAINS.

THE ALLEGHANY, OR APALACHIAN, CHAIN.



THE APALACHIAN MOUNTAINS.

77. Two great ranges of mountains cross the United States. On the eastern border is the Alleghany, or Apalachian, chain: toward the western border are the Rocky Mountains.

78. The chain extends from Maine to Georgia, in a direction nearly north-east and south-west. In some places it approaches within fifty miles of the

ocean, and in others it is two hundred and fifty miles from it.

79. It is divided into many separate ranges, called, in New Hampshire, the White Mountains; in Vermont, the Green Mountains; in New York, the Cattskill Mountains; in the middle and more southern states, the Alleghanies. These, still upon that supposition of boundaries and employment of phrases to be found in my first section only, also are divided into a multitude of ranges and peaks or summits which bear different names.

80. The whole length of this great chain of mountains is nearly two thousand miles, and, from its extent, is said to have been called, by the Indians, the *Endless Mountains*. They have also been called the Iron Mountains. Their name of Apalachian, and the name of the river Apalachicola, in West Florida, severally imply, the mountains and river of the Apalaches or Apalachians, an Indian people of that country, and in which latter the southern extremity of the range has its beginning. Malte Brun writes *Apéléchies*.

81. In New England, Mount Washington, in New Hampshire, is the highest of the White Mountains, and the highest land east of the Mississippi River: it

has an elevation of six thousand four hundred and twenty-eight feet; Mansfield Mountain, in Chittenden county in the state of Vermont, the highest of the Green Mountains, four thousand two hundred and seventy-nine feet. Saddleback, Berkshire county, in the state of Massachusetts, the highest mountain in this state, is four thousand feet high.

82. In the Middle States, Round-Top, the highest of the Cattskill Mountains, in the state of New York, is three thousand eight hundred feet in height. Green Brier, the highest in Pennsylvania, is three thousand seven hundred and seventy-five feet.

83. In the southern States the Peaks of Otter, in Virginia, belonging to the Blue Ridge, have an altitude of four thousand two hundred and sixty feet. The Cumberland Mountains, a branch of the great chain, cross the state of Tennessee from north-east to south-west; and the topmost peaks of these are about three thousand feet high.

84. The greatest width of the Apalachian chain is in Pennsylvania, where it spreads over nearly half the state. From east to west, it occupies a space of two hundred miles. It here consists of many ridges, nearly parallel, and running in a north-easterly and south-westerly direction. The wide valleys between

the great ridges are filled up with a multitude of hills, confusedly scattered up and down.

85. The original forests are still spread over the several elevations which constitute the chain, from Maine to Georgia; and the wild deer, bear, and panther, still range throughout the whole extent, though, in the northern portions, these animals are becoming rare. A few, however, of the summits, as that of Mount Washington and others, are naked rocks. The general height of the chain is from two to three thousand feet above the level of the sea.

IX. MOUNTAINS, CONTINUED.

THE OZARK MOUNTAINS, THE ROCKY MOUNTAINS, MARA-
TIME CHAIN, OR TOPIAN RIDGE, OR MOUNT ST. ELIAS.

86. ON the west side of the Mississippi, and about half way between the Rocky Mountains and the Alleghanies or Apalachies is a range of mountains but little known, called the Ozarks. They are about seven hundred miles in length, and one hundred in breadth.

87. Their height is from one to two thousand feet above the level of the sea. The highest peak is two thousand five hundred feet. Red-river, the

Arkansas, and the Missouri, which rise in the Rocky Mountains, have wrought themselves channels through the Ozarks, on their way to the Mississippi.

88. A similar range of broken, hilly country lies to the south of Lake Superior. It is traversed by the River Ouisconsin or Wisconsin and the elevations are hence called the Ouisconsin or Wisconsin Hills or Mountains; the French spelling of an Indian name; and, here, the French *ou* answers to the English *w*. Every thing European, in this part of North America, was originally French; that is, Canadian. The English succeeded to the French; and the United States have here succeeded to the English. In English, it would be as proper to write Lake Quinipiseegee, instead of Winnipiseegee, as Ouisconsin for Wisconsin.

89. The Rocky or Stony Mountains are a continuation of the Andes of Chili and Peru. This mighty Chain commences at the southern point of South America, and, running nearly parallel to the seacoast, stretches to the north western point of North America. Its whole length is nearly nine thousand miles. It is the longest range of mountains in the world.

90. The Rocky or Stony Mountains, in height and breadth, greatly exceed the Alleghanies. They are

from one to three hundred miles in width. They may be seen at the distance of a hundred and fifty miles. Their summits are covered with perpetual snow, and hence they are sometimes called the Shining Mountains. To the south of the Rocky Mountains, or where the chain inclines towards Mexico, these mountains are sometimes called the Topian Mountains, and sometimes the Masermes Mountains; and south of these, the Andes, usually so called.

91. These mountains are still but little known; but the hunters who go in search of wild animals are every year adding to our stock of knowledge respecting them. Some time since, Captain Pike, with a party of men, attempted to explore the lofty peaks where the Red River, and the Arkansaw have their source. They were often bewildered amidst snows, and torrents, and precipices. Some of them were bitten by the frost, and were necessarily abandoned to their melancholy fate.

92. Lewis and Clark, with a party of men, were the first people of the United States, to cross these mountains. They set out in 1809, and returned after a lapse of two years. They reached the Pacific Ocean, and brought back the first accurate intelligence of these regions. The party in crossing the

mountains, suffered every thing, which could arise from hunger, cold, and fatigue. Many of their horses were foundered by falls from precipices. The men became feeble from excessive toil, and sickly from want of food.

93. As there were no wild animals in these inhospitable regions, the whole must have perished from hunger, but for the flesh which their wounded and dying horses occasionally supplied. On their return home from the mouth of the Columbia River, their sufferings were equally great.

94. They came in sight of the mountains about the middle of May. They attempted to pass them, but the snow was then from six to ten feet deep. They were obliged to return, and wait till the latter part of June, when they again set forward, and at last succeeded. They had been gone so long, that their friends supposed them dead.

95. But notwithstanding these difficulties, and dangers, later travellers have discovered routes by which these mountains, may be traversed with tolerable ease and safety. It is now no uncommon thing for parties of hunters and traders to go from the state of Missouri to the Pacific Ocean, and return without serious accident.

96. Some of the peaks of the Rocky Mountains are of great elevation. As far as known, Long's Peak is the loftiest, being thirteen thousand five hundred and seventy five feet high. James's Peak is eleven thousand three hundred and twenty, and Spanish Peak eleven thousand.

97. These are to the north-west coast running along the margin of the Pacific Ocean. This ridge is sometimes called the Maritime Chain, and at other times the Topian Ridge, or, Topian Mountains. The highest peaks of all are, Mount Fairweather, fourteen thousand seven hundred and fifty feet, and Mount St. Elias, seventeen thousand eight hundred and seventy feet, above the level of the sea.

98. This Mount St. Elias is nearly three times as high as Mount Washington, in the United States. It is the highest in North America; but it is far away to the northward of even any claim of the United States. It is what in my first section, is called Russian America, but which is, perhaps, British.

99. This Mount St. Elias, St. Elie, or St. Eloi, upon the northwest coast of America (for there are mountains similarly named in other places), is one of the highest mountains in the world. Its history, however, is new in books and maps, and perfectly confused. • My young readers may often look in vain for

it. It is called by the most different names, and often omitted altogether. As often, too, it is talked of two or three times over in the same book, but by different names, and totally different descriptions. Sometimes you must understand this mountain, when writers tell you of the highest peak in the Topian Ridge, or Maritime Chain of the Rocky Mountains, and yet place it in the United States, and with a height of only sixteen thousand three hundred feet. Sometimes, indeed, they call it Mount St. Elie, but place it in the Andes, and in *Mexico*, with a height of *eighteen thousand two hundred and twenty-two feet*; while, at the same moment, we are told, that the chain of the Andes, to the northward of the isthmus of Panama, gradually sinks in height, till it spreads itself into the wide, wild, and lofty plains of Mexico, which are no higher than *eight thousand feet*, but stretches along the north coast of *Columbia* (meaning what my book calls the Territory of Oregon), with summits from *fourteen to fifteen thousand feet*;—meaning, again, the Topian Ridge or Mountains. Again, Mount St. Elias is sometimes described as standing in *New Mexico*, a country always far to the north of *Mexico*, but still to the southward of forty-two degrees north latitude, and only known as “the Great Peak;” but with this account, *nineteen thousand seven hundred and eighty-eight feet*; or, almost *twenty*

thousand. By others also, this height is raised to *twenty-five thousand*, between which and *sixteen thousand*, this part of its description varies. Such is sometimes the little confidence we can repose in maps and books!

100. Mount St. Elias really stands in about latitude sixty degrees north, and longitude one hundred and thirty-eight degrees west of Greenwich, and therefore a little to the northward of Mount Fairweather! and therefore far within that inhospitable region which the United States have agreed with Russia to consider and treat as Russian, but which Great Britain, as I have told you, along with all that we claim as Oregon, or as Columbia, claims as British.

101. I must further warn my young acquaintance, that there are difficulties about understanding the place of the Topian Ridge or Mountains. From some accounts you would think that they rose to the south and east of the Rocky Mountains, commonly so called, instead of the west and north, which is their true situation. They are a part of the Rocky Mountains, sometimes called the Northern Andes, but they are a western ridge, and lie along the Pacific Ocean, but running high northward, as to Nootka Sound, and Behring's Bay.

X. MOUNTAINS, CONTINUED.

CURIOSITIES OF MOUNTAINS.

102. THE most interesting mountain in the United States is Mount Washington, in the state of New Hampshire, and the highest summit of the White Mountains. This consists of a pinnacle, rising like an immense pyramid in the midst of a magnificent city of mountains. It is composed of huge rocks of granite piled together in various forms and hues. More than a mile from the top, it is entirely destitute of trees. A few flowering plants, small but odorous, with flies and straggling spiders, are all that the mountain here produces.

103. Washington Mount is not ascended without difficulty, yet hundreds of persons annually visit it, and are well repaid by the prospect afforded for the labour of climbing to the top. This prospect is wonderfully grand and picturesque. Innumerable ponds, lakes, rivers, towns, and villages, meet the eye on every side.

104. The Atlantic Ocean may be seen in the south-east, but not without a telescope. To the south is seen the bright surface of Winnipiseogee

Lake. South-westerly is the Grand Monadnock. In the north-east is the valley of the Androscoggin, abounding in wild and romantic scenery. Northward is Lake Umbagog, and a country still more wild and uncultivated. West, the immediate view is over a mountainous region, covered with a thick forest, with the occasional opening of a farm among the otherwise perpetual tops of trees.

105. Beyond, the hills are seen to rise from the western shore of the Connecticut, though the river itself is everywhere out of view; and the summits, rising higher and higher, terminate in the ridges of the Green Mountains, which latter, translating the names into French, give name to the state of Vermont.

106. In going from the seacoast to Mount Washington, the traveller passes through one of the greatest curiosities in this part of the United States, called the *Notch*. It consists of a narrow defile, two miles in length, between two tall cliffs, rent asunder probably by some vast convulsion of nature.

107. The entrance to this wild chasm is formed of two rocks, standing perpendicularly, at the distance of twenty-two feet from each other. A part of the space is occupied by the head stream of the Saco;

the other part by the road, which has been carried through the Notch.

108. As the traveller enters, he is struck with the wild and solemn appearance of every thing around.



THE NOTCH.

The rocks are piled one upon another, and huge masses of granite rise to a vast height. They are covered with moss, rendered white by age and exposure.

109. The Notch has been rendered more famous than before, by having been the scene of a sad and tragical event, which took place on the 28th of August, 1826. A small house, called the Notch-House, was situated on a very narrow space or plot of ground between the rocks. Here a Mr. Willey



FAMILY SMOTHERED.

and his family had lived for two seasons previous, without any cause for alarm, so that the accident was as unexpected as fatal.

110. At midnight, on the day in question, a violent storm of wind and rain, bursting over the mountain, loosened the soil from the top, which began to roll down the sides, carrying with it rocks, earth, and trees. Willey, and his wife and children, who rushed from their beds into the open air, were smothered in the ruin. Had they remained in the dwelling, they would all have escaped; for the mingled and roaring mass swept unresisted down towards the house, but divided within six feet of it, and in two currents, completely surrounded it!

111. There is another wonder among these mountains, called the *Profile Rock*. It is in the town of Franconia, and consists of a naked peak, one thousand feet in height, presenting a bold and majestic front of solid rock, a side view of which exhibits a profile of the human face, every feature of which is conspicuous.

112. The Green Mountains extend nearly over the whole state of Vermont, but are not remarkable for their height. The loftiest summits, such as Camel's Rump and Killington Peak, are nearly four thousand feet high. Ascutney is a single peak, near Windsor, in the State of Massachusetts; the view

afforded from its top is very fine. There is a small lake on this mountain, not far from the top.

113. Many of the Green Mountains are coated with thick, green moss, which is so compact and firm, and lies in such extensive beds, as to reach from rock to rock. These beds will sometimes bear the weight of a man without being broken through.

114. In the state of Maine, there is a mountain, five thousand three hundred and eighty-five feet high, called Catahdin. It is situated on the western side of the Penobscot River, and is a rugged and isolated peak. The Indians look upon this mountain with awe, believing it to be a place inhabited by spirits. They have many legends and tales of the wonders performed by these imaginary beings.

115. Near Northampton, in Massachusetts, there is a lofty eminence, called Mount Tom. It is visible to the naked eye at the distance of forty miles. Close to this is the rocky summit of Mount Holyoke, to which travellers frequently ascend for the sake of the prospect. This is extensive and beautiful. The river Connecticut, winding its silver course through green meadows and cultivated fields, flows at the very foot of the mountain. On every side wooded hills,

blue mountains, and bright villages, meet the view, till the scene is mingled with the sky.

116. Among the mountains of the state of Connecticut, there is a natural curiosity worthy of particular notice. In passing from New Haven to Hartford, you will observe some tall peaks in the town of Meriden, called the Blue Hills. Between these, there is a wild, rocky chasm, apparently formed by the mountain having been rent asunder. The cliffs on either side are about three hundred feet high, and in some places overhang the pass in black, threatening masses.

117. The rocks have fallen into the valley, and are heaped one upon another, leaving deep crevices between. In these the snow collects during the winter, which is gradually converted into ice. This is preserved the whole year, and large pieces have been taken out, even in the month of August. The wild ravine, in which this natural ice-house is situated, is called Cat Hollow.

118. At no great distance from this place is Mount Lamentation. It is situated in the town of Berlin, and is remarkable for a story connected with the early history of the country. Soon after the first English people settled in Connecticut, there lived in Wethers-

field a man named Chester. Once, on a cloudy day, he lost his track amid the woods which then covered the whole country. He wandered about for a long time, in the hope of finding his homeward path, but in vain. The woods were still thick on all sides, and every step he took seemed to involve him in deeper solitude and obscurity.

119. As the night drew near, the conviction pressed itself upon his mind, that he was far away from home, and from human aid, and at the mercy of wild beasts, and hostile Indians. Quickened by apprehension, he hastened onwards, but found no exit from the forest. The darkness now prevented him from walking with security, and the poor benighted traveller sat himself down to think upon his home, his wife, and his children. Exhausted with fatigue, he soon lost all recollection, and sunk into insensibility, with the cries of wolves and panthers all around him.

120. In the morning, he found himself on the very brink of a precipice, from which he might have been thrown by a single step. Chilled with horror, he looked around him. Every object was strange, and everything proved to him that he must be many miles from home.

121. Although faint with hunger, he still continued

his efforts through another day, to reach the settlement. Feeding upon the few berries and wild fruits that he found in the forest, he tried to rouse his courage to new exertions. He climbed trees and eminences, in order to obtain, if possible, a view of the country ; but in vain : nothing but woods, tangled and dreary, met his view.

122. Night again drew near, and bitter were now the reflections of the poor wanderer. If he were spared through another night from the ravenous beasts that were howling all around, what had he to expect from the light of another morning ? The same difficulties to encounter, with fast-failing strength of mind and body.

123. Worn out with hunger, fatigue, and watching, he at length fell asleep. In the morning, he awoke, and began with great labour to ascend the mountain. When he reached the top, he looked around, but could see nothing but an ocean of waving woods. The villages that now spread over the valley were not then there. This day, like the preceding, was cloudy, and he could see nothing to tell him where he was, or which way his home lay.

124. But at length, sounds began to vibrate through the woods, like the beating of a drum. Then

he heard shouts and loud cries. These came nearer, and he shouted in reply. In a few moments, a party of his friends came to the spot. When they found him, he was faint, and partially deranged. They had been in search of him for two days, and were now greatly rejoiced to find him. It is from this story that the place is called Mount Lamentation.

125. About nine miles north-west of Hartford, there is a ridge, called Talcot Mountain. At a place named Montevideo, there is a small lake, situated four or five hundred feet above the bed of the Connecticut. The scenery around is highly picturesque. On a beetling cliff, a few rods from the lake, is Wadsworth's tower, erected by an individual of that name.

126. From the top of this, the little lake, and the wild rocks rising around it, with the green lawn and tasteful country-seat on one side, afford a beautiful scene. On the west, is the deep valley of Farmington River, veiled with the blue atmosphere, and dotted with villages and farm-houses. To the east is the valley of the Connecticut, coated with luxuriant orchards, forests, meadows, and cultivated fields, seeming like a garden. The numerous spires of meeting-houses, the churches of New England, indi-

cate the seats of towns and villages, which are hidden by the verdure.

127. At New Haven, there are two mountainous eminences, called East and West Rock. As you approach the town from the bay, they have a very picturesque appearance, seeming like vast fortifications. East Rock was, for several years, the residence of a hermit. In West Rock there was formerly a cave, which is said to have been inhabited by one of the judges who condemned Charles I. to death.

128. The story of this king of England is briefly this. Some of the people were dissatisfied with the manner in which he governed the kingdom. He was taken, put in prison, tried, condemned, and beheaded at a place in London called Whitehall. Some years after his death, his son Charles II. came to the throne of the restored government in church and state.

129. The persons who had been concerned in the death of Charles I. now fled from England for their lives. Among these were some of the judges, now called regicides, or king-killers, who sentenced the unhappy monarch. Two or three of them came to America, and one found shelter in a cave in the mountain near New Haven, as I have told you. The

place is pointed out to those who have the curiosity to visit it. It is called the Regicide's Cave.

130. On the western border of Connecticut, there is a range of low mountains, forming the boundary between this state and New York. A few years since, there was a hermitess living in these mountains, of



THE HERMITESS.

the name of Bishop. She dwelt alone in the cavern of a rock, both winter and summer. She had no fire, and no other bed but the stone itself. The

following description of this singular person will give you some idea of her ; but you are not to believe all that the poem pretends to be true.

“ Her long, snowy locks, like the winter drift,
On the wind were backward cast ;
And her crippled form glided by so swift,
You had said 'twere a spirit that passed.

And her house was a cave in a giddy rock,
That o'erhung a sullen vale ;
And 'twas deeply scarred by the lightning's shock,
And swept by the vengeful gale.

As alone on the cliff she musingly sate,
The fox at her fingers would snap ;
The crow would sit on her snow-white pate,
And the rattlesnake coil in her lap.

And the hawk looked down with a welcoming eye,
As he stooped in his airy swing ;
And the haughty eagle hovered so nigh,
As to fan her long locks with his wing.

But when winter rolled dark his sullen wave
From the west, with gusty shock,
Old Sarah, deserted, crept cold to her cave,
And slept without bed in the rock.

No fire illumined her dismal den ;
Yet a tattered Bible she read ;
For she saw in the dark with a wizard ken,
And talked with the troubled dead.”

131. For twenty-five years, the hermitess occupied

her mountain abode. She lived chiefly upon nuts and roots, which she gathered in autumn, and laid up against the winter. In summer, she paid frequent visits to the neighbouring villages, and was herself visited in turn by many persons.

132. About twenty-five years ago, during a very severe winter, she was found in her cave nearly frozen to death. The people took her away, and made her comfortable during the cold weather. When spring returned, she set out to visit her cave. She had nearly reached it, when her feet sank in the mire, and she was unable to get out. She was found dead the next morning, standing nearly erect, with her feet frozen in the earth.

XI. MOUNTAINS.

CURIOSITIES OF MOUNTAINS, CONTINUED.

133. IN the northern part of the state of New York, there are some elevations called the Peruvian Mountains. This name was given them by the early settlers, from the belief that these mountains, like those of Peru, contained precious metals. One of the peaks, called White-Face, is three thousand feet above the level of Lake Champlain, which is near.

134. About fifty miles north of New York, are some lofty eminences, called the Highlands. The Hudson flows at their feet, and in passing up the river, you may have a fine view of them. At a distance, they seem to hang like a dark blue cloud in the sky; when approached they have a still more sublime and beautiful appearance.

135. Attracted by the fine scenery, many persons visit these mountains during the summer. At a distance of seven miles from the Hudson, there is a fine hotel, called the Mountain House. It is two thousand two hundred and seventy-four feet above the river, and commands a wide and beautiful prospect.

136. Among the Catskill Mountains, and near the Highlands, are two remarkable ravines. One of these is the bed of the Cauterskill River, and the other the bed of the Platterkill. These streams flow over broken rocks, amidst the shadows of overhanging cliffs and steeping precipices. While standing in one of these dells, the wanderer looks up to the rocks, which seem like castles, forts, and walls, built high in the air. Along their edges, a few pines, rent, blasted, and torn, preserve their bleak station in spite of the tempest and storm. *Kill*, as in Catskill, Cauterskill, and Platterkill, is a Dutch word, signifying a small river.

137. On the west side of the Hudson, about eight miles from New York, a range of high rocks commences, called the Palisadoes. They extend for twenty miles along the river, sometimes rising to the height of five hundred feet. In many places, they rise perpendicularly from the river, and have the appearance of lofty walls erected by the hand of art.

138. In Virginia, the rivers Potomac and Shenandoah unite, and pass through the eastern range of the Alleghanies called the Blue Ridge. The ravine is three fourths of a mile in width, and seems to be the work of some violent convulsion of nature. The scene is grand and picturesque in the highest degree.

139. In Western Virginia, there is a remarkable cliff, called the Hawk's Nest, affording one of the finest views in the world. It is thus described by a person who has lately been to the spot.

140. "The grandest scenery that I have ever seen is among the Gauley Mountains, in Western Virginia, a ridge of the Alleghanies. After leaving Charleston, the road passes for miles along the eastern bank of the Great Kenawha River, which flows through a fertile valley, bordered on either side by richly-wooded hills.

141. "As we approach the Falls of the Kenawha,

the scene assumes a wilder character. Signs of cultivation become less frequent; and between the rapid river on one side, and the huge beetling masses of rock on the other, in many cases rising to fifty feet perpendicular, it seems almost impossible that there should be a secure pass for the traveller.

142. “ On reaching the Falls, we leave the river, and begin to ascend the mountain. Slowly winding from one elevation to another, we now find ourselves shut in by lofty hills; and now, gaining a distant summit, are amply repaid for our toil, by catching a view of the river tumbling and roaring over its rocky bed below.

143. “ At length, after seven miles of laborious climbing, the top of the mountain is reached, and we are within a few steps of the famous Hawk’s Nest. A small foot-path leads into the woods, and, following it a short distance, these suddenly open, and we find ourselves upon a small platform of rock, which shelves over the valley one thousand feet below !

144. “ The view on every side is extensive, and baffles all description. Mountains rise beyond mountains, until the most distant seem lost in the clouds; and the river, that we but just left, a broad and

powerful stream, now winds beneath us like a single thread of light.

145. "Nor is the emotion at beholding this most sublime of spectacles, diminished by the thought that only a single ledge of rock is between the beholder and eternity. A slight loosening of the rock from its bed, a single slip, or false step, on his part, and he is hurled into the abyss below. Never, till I stood upon the Hawk's Nest, did I feel the full force of the remark, that fear is a necessary ingredient in the sublime."

146. In the north-western corner of South Carolina, there is a peak which rises to the height of four thousand feet above the level of the sea, called Table Mountain. On one side, there is a grand precipice of nine hundred feet. At the base of this stupendous wall, the bones of numerous animals were once to be seen, which had accidentally fallen over, and been crushed to pieces.

147. Among the Enchanted Mountains, in Tennessee, are some very singular foot-prints, marked in the solid limestone rock. These are tracks of men, horses, and other animals, as distinctly marked as if but yesterday impressed in clay or mortar.

148. In several places the appearance of these tracks often indicates, that the feet which had made them had slidden, as if in descending a declivity of soft clay. The human feet have uniformly six toes, with the exception of one track, which is thought to be that of a negro. One of the tracks is sixteen inches long, and thirteen inches wide.

149. This most extraordinary natural scene illustrates, in a striking manner, the formation of limestone from soft materials; for it is only among limestone rocks that appearances in any degree like those in the Enchanted Mountains are met with. The formation, too, must be recent, as compared with that of rocks in general; for the foot-prints of horses and a negro, imply a date since the arrival of Europeans in this part of North America. But the whole history of these foot-prints, including the six-toed feet, is quite inexplicable. In supposing the petrification to be later than the arrival of Europeans, there is nothing to surprise us; but what is it that we are to do with the crowd of six-toed men, women, and children? and with the one-footed, and no doubt, one-legged giant, whose one track or foot-print, (and the print of a splay-foot into the bargain,) measures sixteen inches in length, and thirteen inches in

breadth? I say nothing, upon these latter points, but that “ Travellers see strange things.”

150. Captain Pike describes a remarkable peak, among the Rocky Mountains, which is called the Great White Mountain. It lies between the valleys of the rivers Platte and Arkansas. He estimated its height at eighteen thousand feet above the level of the sea, which would make it about the height of Mount St. Elias. It rises so much higher than the other mountains around, that Captain Pike and his party did not lose sight of it for ten weeks. As they travelled from place to place, it seemed to lift its tall head in the sky above them, looking down into the valleys and upon the lesser mountains, and following them wherever they went. It is sometimes called Mount Pike, after Captain Pike. It is seen over a great part of the plains of the Arkansas and of Texas.

XII. MOUNTAINS.

THEIR USES.

151. In mountainous regions, there are always crags, precipices, and rugged declivities, which defy cultivation, and only seem made for the habitation of wild beasts, or as barriers to intercept the communication

between one country and another. At first view, therefore, it might appear, that mountains are evils, rather than benefits, to mankind. But more thorough knowledge, and deeper reflection, will teach us, that He who made the world knew best how to contrive it for the advantage of his creatures.

152. Let me tell you, my young readers, that God made this world in wisdom, and rules over it in mercy. And let me assure you, that it is at once a proof of ignorance and wickedness, for any person to condemn the system pursued by God, either in the formation of this earth, or in ruling over its inhabitants. Whoever finds fault with the works of nature, or the ways of Providence, sets himself up as being able to instruct Him who is the source of all wisdom.

153. Among the first benefits of mountains, we may consider their power of attracting the clouds and vapours around their summits. These fall in showers of rain and snow. The waters are collected into a thousand rills, and flow down the sides of the mountains. They soon become rivers, which descend into the valleys, and spread fertility over the whole country.

154. Mountains may therefore be considered as

the fathers of rivers. If you look at a full map of the United States, you will see that nearly all their great rivers begin either in the Alleghany or Rocky Mountains. Now, if the whole United States were a flat country, and destitute of mountains, they would be destitute of these rivers.

155. Another advantage in mountains is, that they change the currents of the air, and thus, in many cases, stop the progress of winds that are infected with disease. If there were no elevations to change the currents of the air, that is, if all North America were one level surface, a contagious plague or pestilence, borne on the wings of the wind, might spread from the Atlantic to the shores of the Pacific, carrying desolation throughout. But, happily, the mountains interpose, and not only change the currents of the atmosphere, but purify it by their cooling and refreshing influences.

156. You have probably observed, that the air is cooler on the top of a hill than in a valley. As you rise higher, the cold increases. When you get to the height of fifteen or sixteen thousand feet, it is so cold, even in midsummer, that the showers fall in snow; and this remains unmelted, or only converted into ice, from year to year. Thus all mountains, of

this, or a higher elevation, are capped with eternal masses of glittering ice and snow.

157. Among the peaks of the Apalachian chain, there are none of sufficient elevation to retain the snow during the whole year. On the bald forehead of Mount Washington, the last lingering patches melt away as early as June, but on the taller summits of the Rocky Mountains the ice and snow never disappear.

158. In some parts of South America, Europe, and Asia, where the climate is much hotter than in most parts of the United States, the lofty mountain peaks are covered with perpetual snow. From these cold regions, the winds descend to the valleys, and, mingling with the burning atmosphere, fan the inhabitants with delicious breezes. But for these cooling winds, afforded by the mountains, the earth would be parched up, vegetation would wither, and animal life would become extinct.

159. You see then that mountains confer a great benefit in cooling the atmosphere. They are most important to hot countries; for, without them, the earth would become uninhabitable in those regions. Even in a temperate climate, like that of the United States, their cooling power, during the summer

months, both in bringing health and comfort to the inhabitants, is of great value.

160. In the Southern States, where the summer heat is more intense, the country could not be inhabited, were it not for the ridges of the Apalachian chain. If these mountains were removed, it is probable that South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana, now flourishing states, would cease to be inhabited.

161. A practical evidence of the healthy quality of mountain air, is furnished by the fact, that, in all warm countries, the inhabitants fly to the mountains to escape pestilence, whenever it prevails in the low lands. In the West Indies, in South America, in the Southern States, when the yellow fever prevails in the cities along the seacoast, the people find security by retiring to the mountains.

XIII. MOUNTAINS.

THEIR USES, CONTINUED.

162. I have already told you that the cold increases in proportion as you rise above the ordinary elevations of the earth, or, in other words, as you rise above the level of the sea. A man ascending in a balloon finds

it freezing cold, even in midsummer, when he gets to the height of two or three miles. The tops of mountains, bear in mind, have much colder climates, than the low countries at their feet.

163. This difference of climate occasions a variety in the vegetable and animal productions. In South America, some of the mountains produce at their different heights, the trees, shrubs, and plants, proper to the torrid, temperate, and frigid zones. In the lower parts are melons, figs, lemons, and other luscious productions of a hot country. In the middle are oaks, birches, and other trees, belonging to a temperate region. On the bleak rocks above, are stunted fir trees; and amidst the snows, are lichens and mosses, like those of Greenland.

164. Thus you see that mountains tend to diversify the vegetable productions of the country where they exist, and thus increase the luxuries, and comforts of the inhabitants. Beasts and birds, too, which love the colder climates, or seek elevated situations, inhabit the mountains, and thus the variety of animals in a mountainous country is increased.

165. There is another way in which mountains operate to diversify vegetable productions. Northerly winds are colder than southerly ones. The south

sides of mountains, being sheltered from these northerly winds, and exposed to the heat of the sun, have a different climate from the northern declivities. It frequently happens that grapes, peaches, and other delicate fruits, will flourish on southern slopes, while on the opposite sides, hardier plants alone can be cultivated.

166. In travelling, for example, through New England, you may find practical illustrations of these remarks. In the low lands, you will meet with fields of wheat, oats, corn, rye, and barley. You will find rich gardens, filled with potatoes, beets, carrots, asparagus, cucumbers, and melons. On the neighbouring hills, where the air is cooler, you will find grasses, affording rich pastures for the cattle. On the southern slopes of the mountains, you will find orchards of apples, peaches, and pears. In the gardens, you will see native grapes growing luxuriantly, trained upon walls and trellises.

167. On the northern sides of these mountains, the farmers devote themselves to the raising of sheep. These animals love the short grass of the mountains; and here in the cool air, their fleeces become thicker and finer. The Merinos of Vermont and New Hampshire, whose wool is as fine and soft as

silk, removed to Cuba, would have hair like dogs, instead of wool.

168. Besides these solid benefits, mountains give us pleasure by their beauty. In Winter they are covered with snow ; yet, towering to the clouds, bleak and desolate as they are, they produce agreeable emotions by their grandeur and sublimity. If they are covered with evergreen trees, as cedars, hemlock, pines, and other firs, the deep verdure, contrasted with the snows of winter, has a rich and beautiful effect.

169. In Spring, it is delightful to watch the change in the mountains from brown to green. It seems to steal over them like something that we may fancy to be magical. At first, it resembles a thin green veil. As the buds burst, and the leaves expand, it changes to a garment of many hues. Gradually, the foliage becomes full, and the sides of the mountain grow to resemble waves in a sea of deep verdure.

170. As the Autumn approaches, the uniform hue is broken into many colours. The first frost that touches the leaves, changes the maple into many shades of red and purple. The oak, the ash, the chestnut, and the beech, are painted with a hundred dyes. Some are as bright as the richest silks to be

seen in the windows, of the fancy-shop-keepers. Others are more delicate. The beautiful effect produced by this variety is described in the stanzas below. The season of Autumn, as you must here remember, is sometimes called the *Fall*, and sometimes the *Fall of the year*, but properly the *Fall of the leaf*, or of *the leaves*.

TO AUTUMN.

THOU comest not in sober guise,
 In mellow cloak of russet clad,—
 Thine are no melancholy skies,
 Not hueless flowers, pale and sad ;
 But, like an emperor, triumphing,
 With gorgeous robes of Tyrian dyes,
 Full flush of fragrant blossoming,
 And glowing, purple canopies !

How call ye this the season's Fall,
 That seems the pageant of the year ?
 Richer and brighter far than all
 The pomp that Spring and Summer wear.
 Red falls the westering light of day
 On rock, and stream, and winding shore ;
 Soft woody banks, and granite gray,
 With amber clouds are curtained o'er.

The wide, clear waters, sleeping lie
 Beneath the evening's wings of gold ;
 And on their glassy breast the sky
 And banks their mingled hue unfold.

Far in the tangled woods, the ground
 Is strown with fallen leaves, that lie
 Like crimson carpets all around,
 Beneath a crimson canopy.

The sloping sun, with arrows bright,
 Pierces the forest's waving maze ;
 The universe seems wrapped in light,
 A floating robe of rosy haze.
 Oh, Autumn ! thou art here a king ;—
 And round thy throne the smiling hours
 A thousand fragrant tributes bring,
 Of golden fruits, and blushing flowers !

171. I am here speaking expressly of the mountains of the United States. The forests of northern countries are more affected in this way, than others ; and those of America have, in Autumn, a depth and glow of colouring belonging to no other country. I have seen, in the north of Europe, similar changes in the leaves, during the months of October and November ; but the hues were not so deep, and the contrasts not so striking. This is owing to the great difference of latitude, and of consequent vegetable productions between the north of Europe, and the northern parts of the United States.

172. To a person living in sight of a mountain, the changes constantly going on are a source of never-

ceasing enjoyment. Not only the revolutions of the seasons, but the changes of the weather, diversify the scene.

173. Sometimes, the mountain seems covered with smoke, then appearing dim and distant. On the morrow, in a clear atmosphere, it appears distinct and close, as if you might almost touch its top with your finger. At one time, the clouds seem wound around it like folds of drapery; and sometimes thin gauze-like mist floats along its side, like something that you might believe alive.

174. In the morning, it is often wreathed in vapour, and will tell you whether the day will be clear or rainy. At evening, the azure deepens, and when the sunset, which lingers long upon its peaks in gold and purple, has disappeared, the veil thickens. At length, it loses the blue tint, and blackness covers it as with a pall. If there is no moon, it seems to sleep in gloomy grandeur: if the moon shines upon it, it is still and solemn, but it affects the heart with soft and pleasing emotions.

175. In Winter you may see the snow-clouds mustering about its top, till at length the white shower, in its myriad phalanx, marches down the slope, and overspreads the valley. In Summer, you may see the

thunder-cloud, often looking itself, like a mountain rising above the peaks. You may hear the thunder muttering along its sides, and echoing through its valleys, long before you can see the rain. The lightning, too, plays from crag to crag, sometimes with its downward shafts, seeming to pelt the rocks, as if in anger. The following description of a scene like this among the Alps is full of sublimity :—

“The sky is changed ! and such a change !—O night,
 And storm, and darkness, ye are wondrous strong,
 Yet lovely in your strength, as is the light
 Of a dark eye in woman ! Far along,
 From peak to peak, the rattling crags among,
 Leaps the live thunder ;—not from one lone cloud,
 But every mountain now hath found a tongue ;
 And Jura answers, through her misty shroud,
 Back to the joyous Alps, who call to her aloud.

And this is in the night :—Most glorious night ;
Thou wert not sent for slumber ; let me be
 A sharer in thy fierce and far delight,—
 A portion of the tempest and of thee !
 How the lit lake shines—a phosphoric sea !
 And the big rain comes dancing to the earth !
 And now again 'tis black ; and now the glee
 Of the loud hills shakes with its mountain mirth,
 As if they did rejoice o'er a young earthquake's birth.”

176. Such are some of the beauties afforded by

mountain scenery when observed from a distance.— If you will visit the mountain itself, a new world seems to open before you. After ascending one steep acclivity, another elevation rises behind it; others are beyond; and, as the poet expresses it,

“ Hills peep o'er hills, and Alps on Alps arise.”

177. Thus you will discover, that what, at first, seemed a single mass, is composed of separate ridges, peaks, and precipices; what appeared, at a distance, nearly smooth, with a coat of uniform verdure, you will find diversified with dells, slopes, rocks, and caverns.

178. These are thrown into every variety of position, and assume all sorts of shapes. As you proceed in your course, all is change and diversity: sometimes you are on a peak, that gives you a vast prospect over the surrounding country; sometimes you are in a ravine darkened by cliffs and shadowing trees.

179. Sometimes you meet with a rivulet dashing over the rocks, and sometimes with a lake reposing in solitude. At one time, the objects startle you by their grandeur, and again, others affect you by their gentle and quiet beauty.

XIV. MOUNTAINS.

THEIR USES, CONTINUED,

180. I HAVE been thus particular in my description of mountains, that you may better understand two things;—first, the pleasure that we derive from mountain scenery; and second, the effect produced on the character of such as inhabit mountains.

181. It is evident that He who made this world, and fitted it up for the abode of man, designed to make it a pleasant abode. If he had made the earth flat, how much enjoyment, how much of that which renders life agreeable, should we have missed!

182. In the new state of Louisiana, the country, in general, is a dead level. I recently met with a person from that state, who had never seen a mountain until he set out for New England. When he came to the Alleghanies, his delight was so strong that he shed tears. He told me that, while travelling, he was continually gazing at the hills and mountains; the pleasure he derived from them he represented as indescribable.

183. If there is any person among us who doubts

that in wisdom and goodness God has heaped up the mountains, let him, after living among them, go to our Western Country, and settle upon the Plains, that there seem as level and boundless as the ocean. How, then, will he mourn for his native hills! How will he sigh for the mountains! What would he not give to transport one of these, with all its rocks, and crags, and precipices, to the vicinity of his new abode!

184. We may be assured, then, that, aside from the utility of mountains in staying the march of pestilence, in refreshing the lowlands with cooling breezes, in furnishing a retreat from epidemic disease, in giving variety to vegetable and animal life, and many other physical or natural benefits, or uses,—their mere beauty is a rich source of enjoyment.

185. There are many reasons why mountains should produce permanent effects on the character of their inhabitants. In the first place, the very variety of which we have been speaking is likely to furnish the mind with many ideas. One who lives in a level country, with no hills or mountains in view, sees only, as to the earth, the few objects immediately around; while one living among mountains is perpetually excited by some of the grandest objects in nature.

186. These are constantly undergoing the changes that we have just described. The advance of the seasons, the varieties of the weather, are perpetually clothing them with new aspects.

187. Go, and stay a week at any house in a mountainous region. As the people get up in the morning, the first thing with them is to look at the mountains; as the day advances, they observe and speak of the mountains; at night, the mountains are still objects of regard.

188. It is obvious, therefore, that the people of mountainous countries have many images in their minds, and many topics of thought peculiar to themselves. These are increased by the accidents and adventures which take place in such rugged regions. Thus excited, their minds become more lively, active, and vigorous. On these accounts it is reasonable to expect that the people would be of a poetical turn.

189. Observation justifies this inference: a large portion of the poetical writers of the United States are natives of New England, which chiefly consists of hilly and mountainous districts. In Europe, too, we find that those countries which present mountainous scenery to the inhabitants, are most fertile in poets.

190. We shall see, if we take another view of the subject, an additional cause for the effects produced upon the character of people by mountainous scenery. Walking among mountains, we feel strongly impressed by the objects which meet our view. We are so made, that, as I have before suggested, they seem to be endowed with life: they make us feel, they make us think, and create in our bosoms emotions suitable to their appearance and character.

191. The following passage is beautiful:

“To sit on rocks, to muse o'er flood and fell,
To slowly trace the forest's shady scene,
Where things that own not man's dominion dwell,
And mortal foot hath ne'er or rarely been;
To climb the trackless mountain all unseen,
With the wild flock that never needs a fold;
Alone o'er steeps and foaming falls to lean;—
This is not solitude; 'tis but to hold
Converse with Nature's charms, and view her stores unrolled.”

192. While the view of mountains thus exalts and expands the mind, the mountains themselves endow the body with vigour; first, by the bracing and healthy air; and, secondly, by the hardy habits which they impose upon the inhabitants. In cultivating the rugged surfaces, in climbing the steep acclivities, the

inhabitants are obliged to use greater exertions than those of more level countries, and their muscles, by this discipline, are rendered stronger and more enduring.

193. Mountainous districts are, also, less fertile than plains and valleys, and, to produce the comforts and luxuries of life, more toil and more frugality are needful. Industry and frugality are, therefore, cherished. The people earn their possessions with severe labour, and consequently, set a high value upon them. They have no idle time to waste upon luxurious follies, and their possessions are so necessary for their comfort, that they will not easily throw them away in idle pleasures.

194. Life, among the mountains, not only inculcates industry and frugality, but engenders a bold spirit. Those who are accustomed to tread along the cliffs, to climb the crags and descend the precipices of mountains, or thread the mazes of the forest, are not likely to be of a timid character. Vigour of limb, and energy of soul, alike grow up with such training.

195. If, then, a foreign foe assails the mountaineer, he has to deal with one who prizes his possessions, and who will defend them, at once, with a strong arm

and an energetic will ; he assails a man who has drunk in a love of liberty with the air he has breathed, and who will repel the attempt to enslave him, with all the energies of his body and his soul.

196. Such are the effects we might expect to see produced upon character by the habits of life among mountains ; and such, history teaches us, have, in all ages, been produced. The Green-Mountain Boys, now men of Vermont, in our Revolution, were proverbial for their courage. Among the Highlands of Scotland, the Alps of Switzerland, and other mountainous districts of Europe, the inhabitants have shown, for ages, the most determined spirit of resistance to invasion.

197. To all the advantages of mountains we have enumerated, we might add the fact, that they are the store-houses of the richest minerals. Gold, silver, platina, and precious stones, such as diamonds, rubies, and sapphires, are found in mountains.

198. Thus, instead of imagining, for a moment, mountains to be useless or injurious, we must look upon them, among other things, as productive of health, by interrupting the progress of disease ; as promoting comfort, by fanning hot countries with refreshing breezes ; as diversifying and increasing

the productions of the animal and vegetable kingdoms ; as being magazines of mineral wealth ; as giving elevation to the mind, by increasing its pleasures and resources ; as inculcating habits of industry and frugality ; as endowing the heart with a love of liberty, and as nerving both the soul and body in its defence.

199. They become barriers also to the march of the conqueror ; and, while the towns and cities of the lowlands have fallen before him, the mountain fastnesses often remain the secure retreats of freedom.

XV. MOUNTAINS.

GEOLOGICAL SKETCH.

200. THE vegetable, the diluvial, and the alluvial soils that form the general surface of the earth repose on beds of rock. These beds are the huge frameworks, supporting the earth as the bones support the body.

201. Mountains, which are great elevations upon the earth's surface, are composed of these great beds of rock, masses of rock, covered wholly, or in part, by the soils that I have named. In general, the

higher parts are more naked, and the lofty peaks are usually bare rocks.

202. Geology, which treats of the structure of the earth, teaches us that rocks which compose mountains are of three different formations. The first formation, which is supposed to be the oldest, consists of granite and other species of hard rock.

203. This formation composes the lowest portion of mountains, and appears to be the basis upon which they rest. In some instances, the entire mass of rocks belonging to a mountain is of granite. On the ancient continents the loftiest peaks of high ranges are always composed of this rock.

204. This oldest or first formation is called *primary*. Of this consists Mount Washington, and many other parts of the Alleghany or Apalachian chain. The scenery among these mountains is generally marked with grandeur and wild desolation.

205. One of the most common of the *secondary* rocks is *trap*, or *whin*. It has a dark, ferruginous, or rusty colour, and, from that appearance, and its hardness, and sonorosity, passes in the country by the name of *ironstone*. It has a relation to basalt, and appears to have been formed by the action of

fire, so that it is imagined to have been thrown out of the bowels of the earth in a melted state.

206. These rocks are common in New England. The two cliffs at New Haven, which I have mentioned before, and which are called East and West Rocks, are composed of it. Mounts Tom and Holyoke, at Northampton in Massachusetts, are of the same material. In these cases, as in all others, there is a layer of sandstone between the trap and the granite.

207. Sandstone, which is among the secondary rocks, forms a large portion of many mountains. It is often called *freestone*, and is a fine material for building. It is composed of particles of sand, and has the appearance of having been formed by settling in water. To the secondary rocks we may add limestone, marble, slate, coal, rock salt, and many other materials. Beds of chalk are of this formation, and these are common in England and France, but none of them are found in the United States.

208. The third, or *tertiary* formation, embraces parts of the earth which are supposed to have been formed more recently than those of the other two classes. These consist of beds of clay, sand, some kinds of sandstone, and a species of stone called

oolite, and gritstone, in which we find shells and other remains of animals.

209. These are the three great classes of rocks, composing the greater portion of all mountains. Some mountains appear to be composed of one of these classes of rocks, others of two, and others of three. In most ranges, we find them all combined. The single peaks and ridges are frequently composed of one class alone. The tertiary formation, is more common, however, in the plains and valleys than in the mountains.

210. Beside these three ordinary formations, there are three others, which may be described as belonging to the accidents of nature;—first, the *volcanic*, which consists of substances thrown out from volcanoes, and are to be met with in the vicinity of volcanic mountains, and in places where volcanoes have existed.

211. Another formation is the *diluvial*, consisting of those masses of earth and fragments of rocks which have been thrown into their present situation by a flood of waters, such as the Deluge, and inundations of the sea. Of this class are the beds of rounded pebbles, or water-worn stones, of which many hills are composed.

212. The last of these formations is called *alluvial*,

and consists of those beds of mud, earth, and sand, which constitute the borders of rivers, and often the entire valleys through which they flow. Alluvial formations are in fact the work of the rivers themselves; they consist of the particles of earth which the waters carry with them, and gradually deposit along their banks.

213. You will perceive that the first three formations—*primary*, *secondary*, and *tertiary*—are those which constitute the more solid and general portions of the earth, and which compose the greatest part of the substance of mountains. The other three—*volcanic*, *diluvial*, and *alluvial*—are supposed of later date, and consist chiefly of fragments and particles of rocks, broken to pieces by the action either of fire or water.

XVI. MOUNTAINS.

THE DIFFERENT KINDS.

214. FROM what I have said, you will see that mountains are of two kinds, and are supposed by some to have had different origins. Those which are covered with snow, are generally formed of the primitive rocks, and sometimes called *antediluvian*. As they

exceed other mountains in height, their ascent is usually steep and difficult.



ALPINE HILLS.

215. Of this kind are the Alps and Pyrenees of Europe, the Himmaleh ranges of Asia, and the Atlas range or chain of Africa. The Andes of South America, the Cordeilleras of Mexico, and the Rocky Mountains of North America, might seem from their elevation, to be of the same character; but it is remarkable that trap rocks rear their peaks on the

Andes to the height of fifteen thousand feet. In Europe, these rocks are never found higher than four thousand feet.

216. The inferior ranges of mountains, whether they are formed at a later period, by the action of internal fires, which have burst through the shell of the earth, and thrown the rocks into heaps, or whether they have been formed by floods of water, are not only less elevated, but are usually of a less rugged character.

217. The primary mountains, such as the Alps, present to the eye of the beholder sharp rocks, and tall, angular peaks, which are sometimes called *needles*, and sometimes *horns*; these are destitute of vegetation, and possess an aspect of barren desolation.

218. The mountains of the Alleghany chain appear to be mostly of the secondary character. Like other mountains of this kind, their tops are generally circular, and viewed from a distance, they have an air of tameness and tranquillity. Instead of the rough and ragged surfaces presented by the Alps, they are usually crowned with trees, and the declivities are generally clothed with a rich vegetation. The rocks of which they are composed are generally trap, sandstone, and other secondary formations. The peaks

of the White Mountains and the Green Mountains are, however, of granite.

219. The Rocky Mountains are more naked, bearing a strong resemblance to the ragged ridges of the Andes, of which they are the northern continuation. The rocks, too, of which they are composed, are probably, to a great extent, like those of the Andes.

220. Although there are two hundred volcanoes in the world, there are none in the United States, as I have already said. Travellers across the Rocky Mountains speak, however, of having heard noises like the discharge of artillery, and it has been conjectured that they proceed from volcanic eruptions.

221. There are, in many places, the traces of volcanic fires; but no eruptions have been known within the memory of man. Earthquakes, which are common along the southern and western border of the Gulf of Mexico, in South America, and in some parts of Europe, are unknown in the United States, or only experienced in slight, harmless shocks.

222. There are several mountains in Europe, whose volcanic origin is very clear. Among these are, Etna, in the Island of Sicily, and Vesuvius in Naples. The very substance of these mountains appears to be

of lava, and other materials thrown out from the bosom of the mountains. There are similar mountains in Iceland, and in the Sandwich Islands, and other islands of the Pacific.

223. There are volcanic mountains in Mexico, Guatimala, Peru, and Chili. The number approaches a hundred. Some are in constant activity, always belching forth fire, melted stones, or smoke, and at intervals displaying the most fearful spectacles. Other mountains are periodically agitated with terrible sounds, shaking the earth like distant thunder, and throwing out enormous masses of stones, cinders, ashes, lava, and flame. In Europe, whole cities have been buried by the overflowing lava, or by the stones, cinders, and ashes.

224. Earthquakes are frequent in the vicinity of volcanic mountains. These, as stated before, have often happened in Europe and South America. A recent earthquake destroyed the city of Valparaiso in Chili: it is said, though the thing appears quite incredible, that the sound of it was heard at the distance of fifteen hundred miles.

225. You will recollect that mountains are the loftiest elevations on the globe. Smaller elevations, not exceeding three hundred, or four hundred feet in

height, are called *hills*. Sometimes you see a single mountain, like Wachusett in Massachusetts, but mountains are generally disposed in chains. A *chain*, properly speaking, is a series of mountains, the bases of which are continuous. Several chains are often connected with each other, forming what is called a *group*. Several groups joined by their bases are called a *system*. Thus the White Mountains are a chain; the Green Mountains, a group; and the Apalachian Mountains, a system. All these terms, however, are very variously used, and sometimes appear in the places of each other; the same observation might be made of several other terms not here mentioned.

XVII. MOUNTAINS.

A COMPARATIVE VIEW.

226. You will recollect that the highest peak of the White Mountain chain, Mount Washington, is six thousand four hundred and twenty-eight feet high, that is, about a mile and a quarter above the level of the sea. The highest peak of the Rocky Mountains, is usually believed to be thirteen thousand five hundred and seventy-five feet, about two miles and a half high. Mount St. Elias, the highest mountain in

North America, is seventeen thousand eight hundred and seventy feet, or nearly three miles and a half, high..

227. The highest mountain in South America was long supposed to be Chimborazo. This is twenty-one thousand four hundred and forty feet high. Around its snowy top the condor wheels his flight. This is probably the loftiest point attained by any bird whatever.

228. But it has been recently ascertained, that Sorato, one of the Peruvian Andes, is twenty-five thousand four hundred feet, or more than four miles and a half, high. It is consequently the loftiest elevation on the whole continent of America.

229. The highest mountain in England is one of the peaks of Snowdon—a little more than half the height of Mount Washington. The highest mountain of Scotland, and the highest mountain in Great Britain, is Ben Nevis, which is four thousand three hundred and eighty feet high.

230. The highest mountain in France is Puy de Sansi, six thousand two hundred and thirty feet in height. The highest mountains of Europe are the Alps, situated chiefly in Switzerland. They may be seen to a vast distance, as you approach them either

from Italy or France. Their snowy tops, invading the sky, often have the appearance of a ragged thunder-cloud, whose tops are rendered dazzling by the sun.

231. If you ever visit Europe, you should not fail to travel among these famous mountains. You will find the inhabitants dwelling in the deep valleys, along the edges of precipices, with foaming water-falls beneath, or around the borders of bright blue lakes. You will find them training rich vineyards on the southern slopes of the mountains, gathering abundant harvest in the vales, milking their cows amid rich pastures on the hills, and chasing the wild goat upon the icy peaks, nearly three miles in height.

232. You will thus see a people prosperous and happy, in the midst of mountains and precipices. You will see that the fearful sublimity of nature is rendered more beautiful by contrast with fields softened by cultivation, and valleys enriched by the hand of art. You will see these things, and imagine that the Rocky Mountains of North America, now the desolate abode of the grisly bear and the wild sheep, may, in some future age, like Switzerland, become the happy dwelling-place of a nation yet unborn.

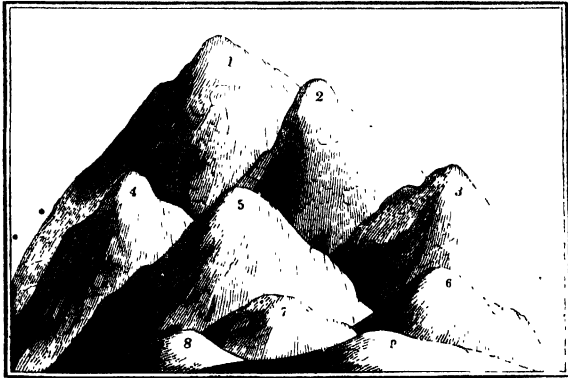
233. The highest peak of the Alps is Mont Blanc,

fifteen thousand seven hundred and thirty feet, or about three miles, in height. Several travellers have ascended to its top. The ascent is, however, attended with difficulty and danger.

234. The highest mountains in the world are those of Asia, situated to the north of Hindostan, called the Himmalaya. Dhawalagiri was thought to be the highest peak, but it now gives place to another. Chamoulari, is about twenty-eight thousand feet, or five miles and a quarter, in height. No one has ascended to the top of this giant mountain, and probably no human foot will ever be able to place itself upon its icy forehead.

235. The following engraving represents the height of several mountains of the United States, and North America, as compared with those of other countries. Thus, figure 1 exhibits the height of the Himmalaya Mountains, twenty-eight thousand feet; No. 2, the Andes, twenty-five thousand feet; No. 3, St. Elias, seventeen thousand feet; No. 4, mountains in Madagascar, an African island, sixteen thousand five hundred feet; No. 5, Mont Blanc, fifteen thousand seven hundred and thirty feet; No. 6, Rocky Mountains, nine thousand feet; No. 7, Mount Washington, six thousand four hundred and twenty-eight feet; No. 8,

Cattskill, three thousand eight hundred and four feet ;
No. 9, Alleghany, three thousand feet.



XVIII. VALLEYS.

236. THOSE spaces which lie between hills, mountains, or other elevated portions of land, are called *valleys*. The lowest part of a valley is generally the bed of a river, which rises in the higher grounds, and descends in many rills and rivulets to the main stream. Rivers thus formed generally flow to the ocean, or empty themselves into some lake, situated in the lower part of the valley.

237. All the considerable rivers of the United States pass through valleys of greater or less extent. The valleys of the Kennebec and Penobscot occupy a considerable portion of the state of Maine. In some places, they are forty miles in width ; in others, they are narrowed down to the very borders of the rivers.

238. The valley of the Connecticut is remarkable for its beauty and fertility. Its extent is about two hundred and fifty miles in length, and from a few rods to many miles in width. In New Hampshire and Vermont, it is generally narrow, being usually bounded near the river on each side by mountains. In Massachusetts and Connecticut, it often expands to a considerable distance, embracing a wide extent of level meadow and wavy upland.

239. In the month of March or April, there is usually what we call a *fresh*, or *freshet*, or inundation, in this valley, occasioned by the melting of the snows in the mountains. The waters thus formed, are poured suddenly down the steep sides of the mountains, and rush in their various channels to the common stream.

240. This is soon swollen so as to overleap its banks, and rushing forward with headlong speed,

sweeps everything before it. Sometimes the bridges are carried away, mill-dams are rent in pieces, and other accidents of various kinds take place.

241. But, as a compensation for these evils, the valley is enriched by the slime thus annually spread over its surface. Sometimes the river rises so high as to cover the land for two miles on each side. The soil is thus dressed by nature, and the farmer is saved the trouble and expense of giving it a coat of manure. This annual inundation of the valley of the Connecticut is similar, though upon a scale comparatively very small, to the annual inundations of the valley of the Nile.

242. If you should ever travel in this celebrated valley between the months of May and October, you will not fail to be delighted with the beauty and variety of the scenery. In some places, you will be able to travel for miles over a level surface.

243. At your side, you will take notice of the bright, clear waters of the Connecticut. At a little distance, the mountains will rise suddenly from the valley, their tops seeming like giants peeping down upon the traveller below. In another direction, the land will stretch out like a sea to the distance of many miles.

244. In other places, you will find this valley narrowed down by the mountains which come close to the river on either side; and here you will often imagine that, in some former age, the mountains stood across the very path of the river, but were finally cut asunder by the ceaseless attrition of the stream.

245. This valley is beautiful by nature. The variety of scenery which it presents to view, the constant succession of hills and mountains of various forms and dimensions, the varying width and ever-changing form of the valley itself, excite the interest of the beholder. The luxuriance and variety of the plants, trees, and shrubs, which adorn the landscape, heighten the beauty of the scene.

246. Such are the gifts which nature has bestowed upon this beautiful valley. These it has possessed for ages; and, before the white man came to occupy the soil, we cannot wonder that it was a favourite resort of the native Indian hunter. Here also, the wild deer was found in abundance, and lynxes, and wolves, bears, wild turkeys, partridges, and other game, were in plenty; and the river, with all its tributaries, was teeming with shad and salmon, and numerous other fishes.

247. This valley then must have been a charming place to the Indians. It is now changed in some of its distinctions. It is shorn of its forests, its soil is checquered with cultivation, and its wide bosom is dotted over with villages, and towns. The valley of the Connecticut lies between the White Mountains and the Green Mountains.

248. The valley of the Hudson is very unequal,



THE VALLEY OF THE HUDSON.

being sometimes but a few rods in width, and then

opening like a wide bay to the extent of forty miles. The land, however, is generally elevated many feet above the level of the river. One of its narrowest parts is called the Highlands, and greatly admired both for grandeur and beauty.

249. The valley of the Housatonic presents many interesting scenes, but they hardly need description here. The valley of the Mohawk lies between extensive ranges of hills, but presents no great variety. Toward the sources of the river, it expands into wide flats of great fertility.

250. The valleys of the Susquehannah and its branches are remarkably irregular. These streams traverse the whole width of the Alleghany chain of mountains, sometimes flowing in wide valleys between parallel ranges for fifty or sixty miles in a direct course, and at other times, breaking through the mountain ridges. The valleys between the different ranges of the chain that run throughout Pennsylvania are often twenty, or thirty, miles in width, with a hilly, or broken, surface.

XIX. VALLEYS, CONTINUED.

VALLEY OF THE MISSISSIPPI.

251. I MIGHT take notice of many other valleys, but it is not necessary, in this little book. I must however, give you an account of the great valley of the Mississippi, which is one of the largest in the world. It lies between the Alleghany Mountains on the east, and the Rocky Mountains on the west. On the south it is bounded by the gulf of Mexico, and on the north by the Great Lakes.

252. This vast tract of country contains a million of square miles, and forms about one half of all the land in the United States. If it were as thickly peopled as Great Britain, it would contain four hundred millions of inhabitants—a population equal to that of one half of the whole globe: but a great part of it is barren, through the want of water.

253. You must not suppose that this mighty valley is of one uniform surface. It is, on the contrary, traversed by a multitude of rivers, and broken into every variety of hill, plain, and prairie. It is, in general, fertile, and some parts are exceedingly so; in other places, it is rocky, barren, and desolate.

254. If you ever pay a visit to the valley of

the Mississippi, you will be struck with the gigantic scale on which the works of nature appear to have been planned in this region. Here is, perhaps, the longest river on the earth, and hundreds of tributary streams, some of them vast rivers, come to swell its tide. Yet a great part, as I have said, is without water.

255. And the valley, through which this *father of waters*, to borrow a mistaken interpretation of the Indian name Mississippi, holds his course, is suited to such a river. It extends from the cold climate of Canada, to the sunny regions of the tropics; and stretches from the sources of the Ohio on the east, to those of the Missouri on the west—a distance of nearly two thousand miles.

256. The works of man, if the expression be not bold, seem to correspond with those of nature in these western regions. You will see on the Mississippi some of the largest steam-boats that have been built. Some very large boats ply between Louisville and New Orleans, a distance of more than two thousand miles—the longest river navigation, by far, in the world.

257. You will also see, in this valley, towns, cities, and villages, some of them very large places, though

of recent origin. These are rapidly increasing ; and it is probable that some of these, now in their infancy, will be enrolled among the greater cities of the globe, in the course of a few years.

XX. VALLEYS.

GENERAL REMARKS.

258. I HAVE already told you that the valley of the Mississippi is one of the most extensive in the world. The valley of the Amazon in South America, the largest in the world, is considerably more extensive. With this exception, the valley of the Mississippi is larger than any other on the face of the globe.

259. All the great rivers of the eastern continent have their valleys. These, in all countries, are the most fertile tracts of land, and they have generally been the first settled, and the most thickly inhabited.

260. The valley of the Nile, in Africa, is one of the most famous in the world. That river overflows its banks twice every year ; the soil is thus enriched, and becomes capable of supporting a vast population.

261. This region was in very early times the seat

of some of the mightiest cities that have ever existed. The ruins of these still remain, and nothing can surpass their wonderful magnificence.

262. In Asia, one of the most interesting valleys is the valley of the Euphrates. It is not large, but here the first nations were formed, and here several of the great empires of antiquity rose, flourished, and decayed.

263. In Europe, there are a great many interesting valleys, but none of very great extent. The most celebrated is that of the Rhine, which in some respects, resembles the valley of the Connecticut.

264. At first, it consists of narrow defiles, overshadowed by the Alps. But as the river takes its leave of these mountains, the valley expands, and becomes both extensive and fertile. It is occasionally contracted by ranges of hills, but again it widens, spreading out its level bosom like the sea.

265. If you ever travel through this valley, you will admire the fine cultivation of the soil, the rich crops of grain, the tasteful gardens, the luxuriant vineyards, which present themselves on every hand.

266. You will be struck with the remains of ancient towers and castles that occupy the hills, the

little villages that look at a distance like a large number of jugs grouped together, and the mighty cities that stand along the margin of the river.

XXI. PRAIRIES, PLAINS, ETC.

267. IN many parts of the earth, there are extensive plains which appear to have been always destitute of trees. In the Western States, there are many of these plains, which are there called *prairies*. In the Southern States, similar tracts are called *savannahs*. In South America, they are called *pampas*; in Asia, they are called *steppes*; in Europe, they are called *moors* and *heaths*.—The prairies of the western country are numerous; and some of them are so extensive, that it requires a journey of several days to cross them.

268. These plains, or prairies, are not perfectly flat, but have an undulating surface, like the sea after a storm. Thus, while a traveller is crossing them, he will see that the earth around him is uneven, while at a distance it has the appearance of a dead level. It often happens that not a tree, or a hill, or a mountain, is in sight. The wide expanse seems

bounded only by the sky, and the wanderer feels as if he were upon the bosom of the ocean.

269. The prairies of the west are of different kinds. Some are fertile, others are barren, while others still are entirely destitute of vegetation, and present only the aspect of wide, sandy deserts. They are also of different elevations. Near the great rivers which flow through the valley of the Mississippi, they are low, and covered in the fruitful season with luxuriant herbage.

270. It is owing to this latter circumstance, that these plains obtained from the French settlers the name of *prairies*, a word signifying *meadows*. The plains farther removed from the rivers are higher; and thus they continue to rise, till, near the Rocky Mountains, some of them reach an elevation of eight thousand feet.

271. The prairies of the west are the haunts of multitudes of wild animals. Herds of wild oxen may sometimes be seen grazing upon them. Flocks of wild deer also resort to the prairies for food, but neither ox nor deer are permitted to hold quiet possession of their lonely domains. Even where the white man has not yet built towns and cities, the rambling hunter, the restless Indian, or the hungry

wolf, comes to make war upon the tenants of the wilderness.

272. When the Europeans first came to America, every part of the land appeared to be covered with trees. Thus every new country was always imagined to be shadowed over with forests. How great, then, was the surprise of the emigrants, on passing westward of the Alleghanies, to discover natural meadows covered with grass, and blooming with flowers of many forms and colours!

273. The question has often been asked, Why are not these prairies covered with trees, as well as other parts of the earth? The reason doubtless is, that the soil is naturally adapted to the production of grass, which grows upon it to a considerable height. During the latter part of summer and autumn, this grass becomes exceedingly dry, and, being set on fire either by accident or design, is annually burnt.

274. This annual burning destroys the young trees, if any have shot up during the summer, while it invigorates the grass. This is undoubtedly the true reason why many of the fertile prairies of the west have no forest trees upon them. If any place is found along the margin of a river, or elsewhere, with sufficient moisture to keep the grass green, during

the drought of summer and autumn, and thus prevent its being burned, these trees take root and flourish.

275. Thus it happens that the rivers are generally fringed with wood, even in the midst of the prairies. There are, no doubt, many plains and prairies, which are kept free from forest trees, either because the soil is not adapted to them, or because it is too dry, or too sandy and barren, to afford them nutriment.

276. It appears that the annual burning of the prairies was practised by the Indians of the west, before the white men came among them. A prairie on fire, particularly at night, is described as a very sublime spectacle. The flame darts forward on every side, licking up the dry grass, and roaring and crackling in its progress like the voice of a tempest. The wild animals fly before the raging element, for experience has taught them to dread its fury.

XXII. PRAIRIES, PLAINS, GREAT AMERICAN DESERT, ETC.—CONTINUED.

277. I HAVE given you some idea of the prairies of the western country; but in order to understand them it is necessary that you should go and see them.

You will find that the whole state of Illinois is one vast prairie. You will also find extensive prairies in Indiana, Missouri, Arkansas, and Louisiana.

278. In various parts of South America, there are wide plains called *llanos* or *pampas*. Some of these are more than a thousand miles in length. They are often dotted over with little groves of palm-trees; but in general they have no other vegetation than grass. This springs up during the rainy season, and grows for a time with wonderful luxuriance. It then affords fine pasturage for countless herds of wild cattle, and multitudes of wild horses and asses.

279. The grass is often so tall as to hide the animals from view; but in a short time the dry season commences, and the heat becomes extreme. The grass is then withered, and every kind of vegetation perishes, except such as is capable of enduring great heat and dryness. Few trees can withstand this severe trial, and thus the soil is left bare till the returning rain revives the roots of the grasses, which have withstood the parching drought of summer.

280. In Asia, the steppes are generally sandy plains bearing no trees, and little vegetation, beside a few shrubs. Some parts are covered over with a thin coat of salt, and others appear to resemble the ver-

dant prairies of the west. These afford good pasturage to the Nomadic Tartars.

281. In India, there are plains called *jungles*. These tracts are covered with dense and impenetrable masses of vegetation, crowded and twined together, consisting of thorny and prickly shrubs, of every size and shape; canes, which, in a few months, shoot up to the height of six feet; and creeping plants and bushes, which would form impenetrable barriers even to an army.

282. In some countries, there are extensive plains called *deserts*. There is a vast tract, three or four hundred miles in width, and more than a thousand in length, lying at the foot of the Rocky Mountains, on the western side, which has been called the Great American Desert, but no part of this is within the, yet, acknowledged boundary of the United States.

283. But many parts of this region are far from being destitute of vegetation. There are other portions, however, which are sandy and barren. But the only portion of the American continent, on which the title of desert may properly be bestowed, is that on the western side of South America, called the Desert of Atacama; this is about fifty miles in width, and three hundred miles long. It is said to be utterly

destitute of vegetation, and that no living thing, not even an insect, is found to inhabit it. There is a vast desert, also, a length and width of prairies, between the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains, to which I have already alluded, making a large portion of our acknowledged territory.

284. In Africa, there are several large deserts. That of Sahara is two thousand miles in length, and is the largest in the world. It is, in general, a vast sea of sand, which can only be crossed by camels. There are a few verdant spots, around springs of water, which are called *oases*. These are the halting places or stages for the weary and thirsty traveller in these desolate and dangerous regions. They are also the resort of tribes of Arabs of the Desert, as the wide ocean may be said to be the dwelling-place of the pirate.

285. As to the westward, there are several vast deserts in Asia. One of the most remarkable is in Arabia. It was over a part of this that the Israelites wandered in their journey of forty years from Egypt to the land of Canaan. Eastward, the Deserts of *Cobi* and *Shamo*, in Central Asia, are of great extent, and are almost entirely destitute of vegetation; a truth, by no means to be asserted of the deserts of Asia in general.

XXIII. RIVERS.



FANCY RIVER SCENE.

286. RIVERS are considerable bodies of water, collected in elevated portions of land, and, descending, empty themselves into other rivers, or lakes, or the sea. They are among the most beautiful of all natural objects, and their utility is not less than their beauty.

287. If you look in a map, you will see that the rivers of North America may be divided into four

groups. Those which rise in the various ridges of the Alleghanies, and flow south-easterly, empty into the Atlantic Ocean.

288. Of the second groups are those that rise in the same mountains, but flow westward into the Mississippi. The third class consist of those that rise in the Rocky Mountains, and flow eastward into the Mississippi.

289. The fourth class consist of those that rise in the Rocky Mountains, and flow westward into the Pacific. I will give you a brief account of the principal rivers belonging to these several groups, leaving you, however, to learn their course and situation from the maps.

290. Of those rivers that flow into the Atlantic Ocean, the following are the most considerable:— the Penobscott, two hundred and fifty miles in length; the Kennebec, two hundred miles; the Merrimack, about a hundred and forty miles; the Connecticut, four hundred miles; the Hudson, three hundred miles; the Mohawk, a hundred and forty miles; the Delaware, three hundred and sixty-five miles; the Susquehannah, four hundred and fifty miles; the Potomac, five hundred miles; the James River, three

hundred and fifty miles; the Roanoke, four hundred miles; the Neuse, three hundred and fifty miles; the Cape Fear, three hundred miles; the Great Pedee, three hundred and fifty miles; the Santee, three hundred and fifty miles; the Savannah, three hundred and fifty miles; the Alatamaha, four hundred miles.

291. Thus it appears that the longest river flowing out of the United States into the Atlantic, is the Potomac; the next, the Susquehannah; the Roanoke and Alatamaha are the next. It seems that none of these rivers are more than five hundred miles long, and that nine of them are three hundred miles and upwards.

292. Let us now examine the rivers which flow from the Alleghany Mountains westward into the Mississippi. At Pittsburg, two rivers, called the Monongahela and Alleghany, unite, and form the Ohio. From this point to its entrance into the Mississippi, the Ohio is one thousand and thirty-three miles. Including the Monongahela, it is about twelve hundred and fifty miles in length.

293. In its course, the Ohio receives several large tributaries—the Cumberland, which is six hundred miles long; the Tennessee, which is twelve hundred miles; and the Kenawha, which is three hundred

miles. 'The Yazoo flows into the Mississippi after a course of two hundred and fifty miles.'

294. Let us now consider the rivers that flow from the Rocky Mountains, and pour their waters into the Mississippi. The first of these is the Missouri, which is about three thousand miles from its source to its union with the Mississippi. In its course it receives the Yellowstone, eighteen hundred miles long; the La Platte, two thousand miles; the Kansas, twelve hundred miles; besides many other smaller streams.

295. Beside the Missouri and its tributaries, the Mississippi receives from the west, the Arkansas River, two thousand miles long, and the Red River, fifteen hundred miles long. The Mississippi itself rises in some table lands near the northern boundary of the United States, and, before it unites with the Missouri, receives the St. Peter's from the west, and the Illinois from the east. From its source to the Gulf of Mexico, it is about three thousand miles in length. It receives the Missouri a little below the town of St. Louis, two thousand seven hundred miles from its sources, and now, at least doubled in its breadth and volume, traverses thirteen, or fourteen, hundred miles further to the sea.

296. If, for a moment, we measure the Missouri in

connexion with the Mississippi, and consider these as the true stream, the length appears the same, for both the Mississippi and the Missouri are stated, as we see, to effect the junction at about two thousand seven hundred miles from their respective sources. With its various tributaries, this mighty stream spreads over one half of the United States, receives eight streams each of more than one thousand miles in length, and probably, carries to the sea one third as much water as all the rivers of Europe joined together.

297. The only considerable river on the western side of the Rocky Mountains, is the Columbia, or Oregon, with its tributaries. This rises very near the source of the Missouri; but the waters of the two streams, taking opposite directions, reach the ocean at widely different points. After a course of three thousand and seven miles, the Missouri having joined the Mississippi, enters the Gulf of Mexico; while the Columbia, or Oregon, enters the Pacific, after a course of twelve hundred miles.

XXIV. RIVERS. ' ,

GENERAL REMARKS.

298. I HAVE already said that rivers are among the most pleasing and useful works of nature. No person can be insensible to the beauty of water flowing between verdant banks, even without regard to the benefits it may confer. The rippling wave, the circling eddy, the winding course of the river, attract our attention, and excite emotions of delight.

299. But when we take a wider view of the subject and consider the fertility which is caused by rivers in overflowing and watering their banks, and when we consider the facilities they give to commerce, and to all human intercourse belonging to the state and city of New York, we shall look upon them even in this sole view, as among the most beneficent designs of Providence.

300. Let us imagine that we spend a single day on the banks of the River Hudson. What numbers of steam-boats, sloops, and schooners, shall we see passing up and down; some of these are filled with passengers, some are loaded with merchandise of various kinds, and some with wheat, corn, oats, and other kinds of produce.

301. How easy is the intercourse thus rendered, between the city of New York, and the numerous towns bordering upon the Hudson! Let us suppose, now, that this river did not exist. How would the trade be carried on between New York, and the cities of Hudson, Troy, Albany, and other places on its banks? How differently must it be prosecuted, and these flourishing cities, deprived of their commerce, would fall into decay, and perhaps cease to exist!

302. The river makes the intercourse between the seacoast and the interior, cheap, and easy; thus it promotes commerce, and this gives rise to numerous cities, and these increase, grow rich, and flourish. Take this river away, and commerce would perish, and the cities which feed upon it would perish also.

303. The benefits, therefore, conferred, even on man only, by rivers, are very great. If you take a map of the United States, and see how the rivers spread over their whole surface, and consider that, by means of these, an easy intercourse, between the seacoast and the interior, is obtained, you will obtain some idea of the vast importance, even in this view only, of these works of nature.

304. If you compare the United States with any

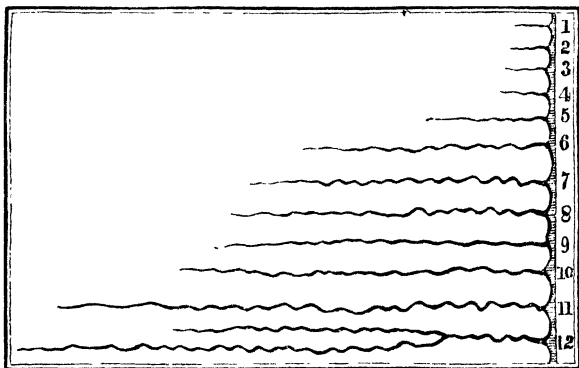
other countries, you will observe, that they are peculiarly favoured in respect to these means, for internal navigation. If you begin at Maine, and run your eye over the map, till you come to Florida, you will see that every part of the country, between the Appalachian chain and the Atlantic Ocean, is intersected with rivers.

305. Near the mouths of these rivers are large seaports, which carry on trade both with the interior and with foreign countries. On the bosoms of these streams, for hundreds of miles, the produce of the country is brought to market, and on the same streams vessels bear back a return, consisting of comforts and luxuries gathered from every land and clime under the sun.

306. If we turn our eye to the great valley of the Mississippi, and look at the mighty streams which traverse that favoured region; if we consider the thousands of steam-boats that are constantly plying upon these various waters; some laden with produce, descending with the current to New Orleans; and others toiling against the tide, and carrying their burdens of rich merchandise to cities and hundreds of towns, we shall have an idea of a river navigation surpassing every other on the face of the globe.

307. If we turn our attention to foreign lands, we shall find that the largest river of South America is the Amazon. The length of this is four thousand miles. Its branches spread over the largest valley in the world, and it is supposed that this stream alone bears to the ocean a greater quantity of water than all the rivers of Europe.

308. The following diagram will afford you some slight comparative view of the length of some of the most celebrated rivers on the globe:—Figure 1 repre-



sents the Thames, the largest river in England, two hundred and forty miles; fig. 2, the Hudson, three

hundred miles; fig. 3, the Delaware, three hundred and sixty-five miles; fig. 4, the Connecticut, four hundred miles; fig. 5, the Ohio, a thousand miles long, exclusive of the Monongahela.

309. Fig. 6 represents the Volga, the largest river in Europe, two thousand miles long; fig. 7, the St. Lawrence, two thousand five hundred miles long; fig. 8, the Nile, two thousand seven hundred and fifty miles, the longest in Africa; fig. 9, represents the Missouri, from its source to the Mississippi, two thousand four hundred miles; fig. 10, the Yenissei, the longest in Asia, two thousand nine hundred miles. fig. 11, the Amazon, four thousand miles; fig. 12, the Mississippi, two thousand four hundred miles, or, if considered as properly the Missouri, with all above for only a tributary stream, then, three thousand seven hundred miles, and with the Missouri, four thousand four hundred miles.

XXV. CATARACTS AND CASCADES.

310. CATARACTS and cascades are formed by the passage of rivers over rocks, in such a manner as to cause a plunging of the waters, often producing the most beautiful and sublime effects. The most

remarkable of these wonders of nature, to be found in the world, is the Cataract, or Falls of Niagara.

311. The waters of the great lakes pass out at the eastern end of Lake Erie, and form the River Niagara. This river is of great depth, and about three fourths of a mile in width. The current is rapid, but smooth, for several miles; but it soon begins to descend, and hurries on, foaming and dashing over the rocks beneath.

312. At length, the prodigious torrent comes to a precipice of a hundred and fifty feet in depth. This consists of a huge wall of perpendicular rock. The water here descends in two broad sheets, being divided nearly in the middle by an island formerly called Goat Island. As it falls upon the rocks beneath it is wrought into foam, and sends up a cloud of vapour in which rainbows are seen if the sun is shining upon it.

313. The sound of these falling waters can be compared only to prolonged thunder. It may sometimes be heard to the distance of forty miles. The name of Niagara is Iroquois Indian, and it is said to signify *the thunder of waters*.

314. Such is this most famous of cataracts. It is by no means the loftiest waterfall in the world, there

are numbers considerably loftier, but there are none that contain so great a body of water. It is situated between the American state of New York, and the British province of Upper Canada.

315. If I had space, I could tell you a good many interesting stories about the Falls of Niagara. Sometimes cows, deer, bears, and other animals, get into the current, and are dashed headlong over the precipice. A few years since, some rude experimentalists took a ship from Lake Erie down the river, and let it drive over the Falls.

316. On reaching the feet of the Falls the vessel was shattered in a thousand pieces. There were on board a fox, a bear, and some other creatures; they were a long time buried in the foam, but at length rose to the surface, and, swimming to the land, made their escape, without staying to thank any body for the unkindly trip they had had in the vessel.

317. Not long ago, as some visitors were standing near the Falls, an Indian came to them, and offered to swim out into the river, at a short, and dangerous distance above the Falls, if they would give him a bottle of rum. This was agreed to, and the Indian, taking the bottle, swam into the stream. At length

he turned about and attempted to regain the shore ; but the water ran so swiftly that he could not. Finding that he inevitably must go over, the resigned and stoical Indian, raised himself for a moment above the waves of the river, put the bottle to his lips, and in this attitude was plunged down the cataract and lost !

318. The Great Falls of the Missouri are very grand and beautiful. About sixty miles east of the Rocky Mountains, this river is hemmed between high perpendicular rocks, from which it escapes only by a precipice about ninety feet in height. A part of the water descends in a single and smooth sheet, but a greater portion leaps over irregular rocks, and goes foaming down in a thousand fantastic shapes.

319. Somewhat more than two thousand miles from the mouth of the Mississippi, this river flows over some rocks, forming what are called the Falls of St. Anthony. These are in the Territory of Wisconsin or Wisconsin. The whole river passes over a precipice sixteen feet deep, and then plunges over broken rocks for fifty-eight feet more.

320. Travellers who have been to this spot, describe the scene as very beautiful, and they say that

the Indians who live near there tell the following story:—A young Indian chief had a wife, whom he loved very much, and they had two fine children. They all lived happily together, till the Indian took another wife.

321. From that time the first wife became unhappy, and at length stole away, carrying her two children with her. She went to her father's house, which was at some distance, and there she lived for several months. But one day she went down to the river, above the Falls, taking her two children with her.

322. Having placed them in a canoe, she pushed out into the stream, which was very rapid. As she approached the Falls, she began to sing her death-song. For an Indian to sing his own death-song, is like a Christian's praying before death. The canoe glided on swiftly and more swiftly, till it came to the Falls, when it shot down like an arrow, and no more was seen of the poor Indian mother and her children. Yet the Indians often imagine that they can hear her mournful voice amid the roar of the cataract, and see her spirit flitting amidst the foam. I have heard the finish of the story told differently, and

with more striking and pathetic circumstances. The lasting affliction fell on the young Indian chief, a sad reward of infidelity in love.

XXVI. CATARACTS, CONTINUED.

323. ABOUT half a mile below Rochester in the state of New York, the Genesee River has a fall of ninety feet, and the same stream has several other cataracts. About fourteen miles north of Utica, are the Trenton Falls, formed by West Canada Creek. They consist of many rapids, cataracts, and cascades, presenting scenes of great variety and beauty: Many people go to visit this romantic spot, which has a melancholy interest from some fatal accidents recently known to have taken place there.

324. A few years since, a young lady was standing upon the dizzy brink of the cataract, looking down upon the tumbling waters far beneath. Suddenly her feet slid forward, and she fell into the stream. Since that event, a little child was plunged down the same precipice, and, like the young lady, was instantly killed. These accidents are not without examples in Switzerland, Wales, Scotland, and other

mountainous countries, where cataracts abound; so that falls of water are always to be approached with great caution.

325. I have not space to describe all the cataracts, in the United States. Glenn's Falls, upon the Hudson, eighteen miles north of Saratoga; Jessup's Falls, a few miles above, on the same stream; the Cohoes Falls, a short distance north of Albany, and formed by the River Mohawk; and Claverack Falls, near the city of Hudson, make all of them beautiful and interesting scenes.

326. Bellows' Falls, on the Connecticut, five miles north of Walpole, in New Hampshire; the Housatonic Falls, in the north-western part of Connecticut; the Passaic Falls, at Paterson, New Jersey,—are all celebrated, and worthy of the attention of every traveller. Beside these, there are many other cataracts in the United States of considerable interest.

327. The cascades in the Catskill-Mountains of New-York are very interesting, and are often visited. These are formed by a small stream, called the Cauterskill. One of them takes a leap of three hundred feet, and at a little distance, seems like a silver riband fluttering in the air.●

328. In foreign countries there are many remark-

able falls of water, though they are more celebrated for their height, than for the great quantity of water that passes over them. The cascade of Tequendama, in New Grenada, in South America, is one of the loftiest in the world. The river is small, but it plunges down five hundred and eighty feet at one bound. In Europe, the most remarkable cataracts are those of Gavarnie, in the Pyrenees, thirteen hundred feet; of Fugloc, in Norway, a thousand feet; of Staubbach, in Switzerland, nine hundred feet; of Holme's Falls, in Scotland, eight hundred feet; and of Terni, in Italy, three hundred feet. These last are partly artificial, and are the most beautiful in the world.

329. The Cataracts of the Nile, in Africa, were much spoken of in ancient times; but they are only twelve feet high. In Asia, the principal cataract is that of Garispa, in Hindostan, a thousand feet. Beside this, there are many others of great beauty, though of inferior elevation.

XXVII. LAKES.

PARTLY OF THE UNITED STATES, AND PARTLY OF
BRITISH AMERICA.



FANCY LAKE SCENE.

330. LAKES are collections of water surrounded by land. They are usually fresh, though, in Asia, there are some large lakes of salt water. The great lakes, which lie along the northern boundary of the United States, partly within our limits, and partly within

the limits of British America, are especially worthy of attention.

331. Lake Superieur is the largest body of fresh water in the world, being four hundred miles long, and twelve hundred miles in circumference. Its shores are rocky, and it has a rocky bottom. It abounds in fish, some of which, called white fish, and of extraordinary excellence, weigh fifty pounds. These furnish the neighbouring Indians with a large part of their food.

332. More than forty rivers empty their waters into this lake, yet it has but one outlet. Through this it passes into Lake Huron, and thus its waters go on their way, to Niagara Falls, whence having given their voices to the thunder of the cataract, they proceed to the ocean.

333. There are five large islands in Lake Superieur, one of which is a hundred miles in length. Another is called the Island of Yellow Sands, on account of the shining particles of stone that compose its shores. The Indians believe these to be sands of gold, but fancy that unseen spirits have decreed that they shall not be carried away.

334. They say that to prevent this being done,

huge serpents, as well as hawks, eagles, and other birds of prey, dwell around the place, prepared to inflict deadly wounds upon those who venture to disobey the decree of which I have just spoken.

335. Lake Huron receives the waters of Lake Superieur through the Straits of St. Mary, and those of Lake Michigan by the Straits of Michilimackinac. It is a thousand miles in circumference, and is therefore nearly as large as Lake Superieur. It contains an island one hundred miles long, and but eight wide. The Indians think this island, and indeed a cluster of islands, inhabited by spirits, and on this account esteem them sacred.

336. Lake Michigan is about as long as Lake Superieur, but being much narrower, it is little more than half as extensive. Its depth is so great as never to have been measured. This lake lies wholly within the United States.

337. Lake St. Clair, lies about half way between Lakes Huron and Erie, and is about ninety miles in circumference. It receives the waters of the three great lakes, Superieur, Michigan, and Huron, and discharges them through the river or strait called Detroit, or the Narrow, or the Strait, into Lake

Erie. It is of a circular form, and navigable for large vessels.

338. Lake Erie receives the waters of the other lakes above it, and discharges them through Niagara River, into Lake Ontario. It is two hundred and eighty miles long, and from forty to seventy in breadth. It is navigated by a great many vessels, and several steam-boats. At the western end are a number of islands, some of which contain two thousand acres of land. These are very fertile, but they are infested with such numbers of snakes, that it is not very pleasant to go upon them. Several of them, however, have lately become inhabited.

339. Lake Ontario is two hundred miles in length, and about forty in width. It abounds in fish, and as it is said to be five hundred feet deep, it would seem there is plenty of room for them.

XXVIII. LAKES AND PONDS WITHIN THE UNITED STATES.

340. I HAVE now given you some account of these vast inland seas, which lie along our northern border. I will now tell you about some other lakes in the

United States. Lake Champlain, lying between the states of New York and Vermont, is a very interest-



LAKE CHAMPLAIN.

ing sheet of water, a hundred and twenty miles long, and of various widths. One of its islands, called South Hero, has seven hundred people living upon it. The lake is navigated by steam-boats, and the passage across it is rendered interesting by the wildness and beauty of the islands that dot its surface, and the hills and mountains that skirt its shores.

341. Lake George, lying in the north-eastern part of the state of New York, is worth travelling five hundred miles to see. It is thirty-six miles long, and from two to four wide. Its waters are so clear, that you may sometimes see the fishes at the depth of twelve feet. It has a multitude of beautiful islands, which are said, but you must not believe it, to be just three hundred and sixty-five in number : the number of the days in the year.

342. Beside this fine lake, New York has many others scarcely less celebrated for their beauty. Oneida Lake is twenty miles long, and famous for the quantity and excellence of its fish. These are taken at night, by fishermen in canoes, with lighted torches. They are sometimes seen darting and flashing about so as to present a very striking spectacle.

343. Among the smaller lakes of New York are Onondaga, Skeneatiles, Owasco, Canandaigua, Otsego, Caniadebago, Oswegatchie, Cross, Hemlock, Hanyaga, Canesas, Crooked, and Chatauque Lakes.

344. New Hampshire has several fine lakes, the largest of which is Winnipi-seogee, situated near the centre of the state. It is greatly admired for its bright clear waters, and the varied beauty of its

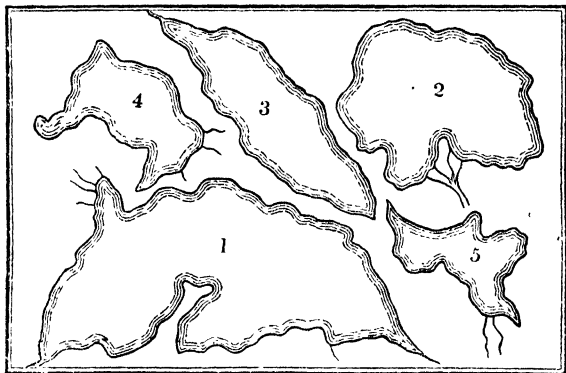
shores. Umbagog Lake, lying partly in Maine, is next in size to Winnipi-seogee. The other lakes in New Hampshire are Ossipee, Sanapee, Squam, and New-found. Excepting New-found, all these names are Indian; *pi*, or *pee*, is the Indian word for water, that is, in Alconquin Indian.

345. There are several large Lakes, and a vast number of small ones in the state of Maine. Moosehead is the largest lake in New England. Some of the others, are Sebago, Chesuncook, Memphremagog, and Willoughby. In other parts of New England, there are a great many small lakes, some of which are very beautiful. They generally pass, however, under the name of *ponds*.

346. Near the sources of the Mississippi, there are several lakes, but none of great magnitude. In Louisiana are Lakes Maurepas and Pontchartrain. The former is of a circular figure, fourteen miles across, and the latter is forty miles in length.

347. In comparing the lakes of America with those of other countries, we shall find that the former greatly surpass the latter in magnitude. Figure 1, in the following engraving, represents Lake Superieur, which has a surface of thirty-five thousand square miles. Fig. 2 represents Lake Tchad, the largest

in Africa, fourteen thousand square miles ; fig. 3, Lake Baikal, the largest in Asia, (excepting the



Caspian Sea, a vast sheet of salt water, six hundred and forty-six miles long), nine thousand square miles ; fig. 4, Ladoga, the largest in Europe, six thousand three hundred and fifty square miles ; fig. 5, Titicaca, the largest in South America, three thousand four hundred miles.

348. The lakes in England, Scotland, and Italy, so celebrated for their beauty, are not larger than what in this country are called *ponds*. There are several famous lakes in Switzerland, the finest of

which is that of Geneva. This is about forty-five miles long, and ten in width. It has a number of fine cities upon its banks, and its clear blue waters reflect the snow-capped Alps on one side, and the dark Jura Mountains on the other. This doubtless, is the most interesting lake in Europe.

XXIX. SPRINGS, MINERAL SPRINGS, WARM SPRINGS, ETC.

349. SPRINGS are fountains of water issuing from the earth. Some of these consist of pure water; others are mixed with particles of salt; and others with iron, sulphur, or other mineral substances. These latter are called *mineral springs*. Beside these, there are *burning springs*, *warm springs*, &c.

350. *Salt springs* are very numerous in the United States. They sometimes flow naturally, but are generally formed by sinking wells in those places where salt is known to exist, as in salt marshes, salt-licks, and other similar places. Salt is manufactured by evaporating the water in vats, which leaves the salt at the bottom.

351. A large portion of the salt used in the

western country is supplied in this way. The most extensive salt-works, however, in this country, are at Salina, in the state of New York, a hundred and thirty miles west of Albany. The water is obtained by digging wells in the earth. One million and a half of bushels of salt are made at this place every year.

352. Whenever in America you eat a piece of bread and butter, you may be pretty sure that you are indebted to the Salina salt-works for a part of the pleasure you enjoy. There are several other places near Salina, where salt is extensively manufactured, but I cannot speak of them now.

353. The most celebrated mineral springs in the United States are those of Ballston and Saratoga. There are several of them at each place, but the most famous are at Saratoga. They differ from each other, but nearly all are useful in certain diseases. Some of them furnish a delicious beverage in the hot season; they come bubbling up from the earth, and multitudes of people travel to drink of them. •

354. Nearly all these springs have a mixture of lime, soda, magnesia, and iron. They are so much esteemed, that, during two or three months in the year, all the hotels, of which there are many around

the springs, are filled with people, who come for health, for the pleasure of drinking the waters, or



SARATOGA SPRINGS.

for the purpose of finding some persons like themselves desirous of relaxation and pleasure.

355. At New Lebanon, in the state of New York, there is a remarkable spring, issuing from a high rock. The water is warm, and so very clear that you may see through it almost as well as through air. About eighteen barrels of water flow every minute.

This spring is thought to be very useful in diseases of the skin.

356. The Bedford Springs of Pennsylvania are situated in a wild and beautiful country, and are much frequented. The Sulphur Springs of Virginia have been famous for many years, and are now the resort of sick persons and people of fashion. Some visit them to get rid of disease, and some to get rid of time that hangs heavy on their hands. Florida has several mineral springs, and there are others in different parts of the country, but I have mentioned those which are most remarkable.

357. Burning springs or issues of inflammable gas, are great curiosities. Many of them are to be found in the state of New York, particularly in the vicinity of Canandaigua Lake. Their seats are crevices in the earth or rocks, through which a kind of gas issues, sometimes burning of itself, and sometimes burning only when a flame is applied.

358. Even when the earth is covered with snow, you may apply a lighted torch to one of these springs, and a beautiful blue flame will rise up from the place, seeming to issue from the snow itself.

359. There is a spring of inflammable gas about two miles from Niagara Falls, which is resorted to

by all who visit that great wonder of nature. At Dunkirk, on Lake Erie, there are marshy spots, which emit gas. This is so abundant, that it is conducted by pipes to some of the houses, and they are lighted with it in the same manner as the streets of our large cities.

360. The hot springs in the south-western part of Arkansas are numerous and very remarkable. They discharge great quantities of water at the boiling point of heat; they are very clear, and possess no mineral qualities, yet people go there with diseases of various kinds, and as it is a poor country, they are obliged to live temperately; so they generally leave their diseases behind them.

361. There are warm springs in Virginia, at a place called Green-Valley, and others in North Carolina, but they are not very remarkable.

XXX. SPRINGS, CONTINUED.

SPRINGS IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES.

362. If we turn our attention to foreign countries, we shall find many varieties of springs. England abounds in mineral springs, the most famous of which

are at Bath, Cheltenham, and Tunbridge. At certain seasons of the year, these places are thronged with sick, infirm, or luxurious visitors, who seem to collect there like bees about a hive.

363. There are similar springs in France, Germany, and other parts of Europe; but none are so pleasant to the taste, or possess as high medicinal qualities, as the springs of Saratoga.

364. In the south of France, there is a spring the water of which takes fire, and burns very brilliantly, when lighted by a torch. At Baku, in Persia, there is a spring which has an oily substance upon its surface, which may be easily set on fire.

365. But the most remarkable springs in the world are the hot springs of Iceland. These are irregular, sometimes flowing gently, and sometimes leaping into the air to the height of a hundred and sometimes even two hundred feet. At these times, the waters gush forth, bubbling and foaming in a very wonderful manner.

366. I could tell my young reader many other strange tales about springs, but I have room for no more. If any one wishes to know how the waters get mixed so curiously in the earth, how they are heated,

and how they are sent forth, he must ask some wiser man than old Peter Parley.

367. I need only say, that some people suppose there is a great deal of fire in the centre of the earth, and that this sets these pots a-boiling in various parts of the world. But whether this is true or not, is not easily told, as it is difficult to make a journey into the heart of the earth.

368. But, whatever may be the philosophy of these curious works of nature, it is certain that springs in general are of the greatest utility. The fountains of fresh-water that rise from the slopes of hills and mountains, or burst from the valleys at their feet, afford drink, of the purest kind, to animals and man.

369. In the hottest season, water is kept cool in the bowels of the earth, and comes forth to refresh the lips of all living things. Springs also nourish the plants, which would else be scorched by the summer's sun. They are the sources of a thousand rills and streams, which, by their continual flow, sustain the currents of rivers, that would otherwise be dried up.

370. The salt springs are also of great utility. Even before the country is settled by man, they supply the deer and oxen with a favourite relish, for these creatures like a seasoning of salt, as well as

boys and girls do. So fond are they of salt that they will lick up the earth which is flavoured with it; and thus it appears that, in the western country, there are large excavations, called *salt-licks*, which the wild animals caused by licking up the soil, for the sake of the saline particles mixed with it. The benefit of salt-springs to man need not be told to my readers.

371. The mineral, warm, and hot springs, are also very useful in the cure or mitigation of diseases which no other medicine can relieve. They seem to be made expressly for man, by that kind Provider, who, in framing this earth for our habitation, has not forgotten to furnish it with luxuries for the day of health, and remedies for the day of disease.

XXXI. CAVES.

MADISON'S CAVE, MAMMOTH CAVE, ETC.

372. MANKIND are so occupied with the outside of the world, that they are not apt to think much of what is going on within. But when we come to a dark hole, and enter it, and find there a palace fitted up with arches and pillars, and decorated with millions of sparkling gems; and when we consider, that

this is the silent and unseen work of Nature; that here she has toiled with busy fingers for ages, and wrought not for display, but for herself alone,—we are led to feel that, after all we have seen, Nature has still many beautiful things to reveal to those who will study her works.

373. One of the most remarkable caves in this



MADISON'S CAVE.

country, is that in Rockingham county, Virginia, called Madison's cave. It is in the heart of a

rugged, steep mountain, and its entrance is through a small opening, over which a large rock is hung, so that it seems ready to fall every moment, and block up the mouth of the cave. On entering, you find yourself in a room twenty-five feet high and fifteen broad. There is a narrow passage from this, which leads to various other apartments, all of which are very curious.

374. The largest chamber is about as large as the great room in Faneuil Hall in Boston. When lighted up with torches, it is exceedingly brilliant. The walls are lined with stalactites, which shine like icicles. In some places, the petrifications hang down from the roof like drapery.

375. There is another very remarkable cave in the same county, called Wyer's Cave. The entrance is narrow and difficult, and the whole is a mile and a half in length. The height varies from three feet to forty. The rooms are numerous, and some of them are very magnificent.

376. Nickojack Cave, in the north-western corner of Georgia, consists of one long cavern, which has been explored for three miles. A stream runs the whole length of it. At the end is a cataract, down which the water pours with considerable violence.

Where it goes to, we cannot tell, for no one has had the courage to follow it.

377. Mammoth Cave, in Kentucky, is worth telling of. The entrance is by a pit forty feet deep. You then pass along through various apartments to the distance of six miles, when you come to what is called the chief *city*. In your way, you meet with places called *hoppers*, where you find people engaged in the manufacture of saltpetre. The chief city consists of one room, the floor of which is eight acres in extent. Over this spreads one vast arch of rock, a hundred feet in height, without a single pillar to support it.

378. What do you think of that? Would you not like to go and see it? But be not in a hurry; remember that your pockets must be well lined with money, and consider that, after you get to the spot, you may not like to descend forty feet into a pit, and walk six miles in the bowels of the earth, even to see the chief city of the Mammoth Cave.

379. If, after all, you visit this cave, you will find what I have told you is true. You will also find another apartment, called the *second city*, and many other things, almost too wonderful to be credited. Of the same principle in nature, with caves, though very different in appearance, is the Natural Bridge,



NATURAL BRIDGE, IN VIRGINIA.

in Virginia, the greatest natural curiosity in the

southern part of the United States, as is the Falls of Niagara in the northern. In this place, the limestone-rock has a deep open chasm, through the bottom of which runs a rivulet; while, high above, the uppermost stratum remaining unbroken, affords a solid natural bridge. There is a similar geological phenomenon in South America, called the Bridge of Leononzo.

380. In the southern part of Indiana, there is a cave which abounds in Epsom salts, limestone, common salt, earth impregnated with saltpetre, and other useful things. I have never been to this place, but one would think, from the stories about it, that it was very much like one of our country stores, or shops, except that it is not supplied with molasses, gingerbread, nuts, and a few other such matters.

381. There are many other caves in the United States, some of which are remarkable for their extent, and others for their shape and beauty. Many of them were known to the Indians, who used them as burial-places.

382. The most remarkable cave in foreign lands is the grotto in the little Greek island of Antiparos. This is less extensive than some of the American caves, but it surpasses them all in the wonderful

magnificence of its pillars, and in the splendour of the stalactites which adorn it.

383. Fingal's Cave, on an island near the border of Scotland, is probably the grandest in the world. There are other caverns in different parts of Europe, some of which are very remarkable. Many of them appear to have been the resort of wild animals for ages, as the bones of wolves, foxes, and other creatures, are found in them.

384. Caverns and caves might seem, at first, to be useless; but we must not be too hasty in forming our opinions. They afford shelter to wild beasts, and, in the first stages of society, before men build houses, they furnish them with an abode. Often, too, when people have been driven from their homes by some conqueror, they also have found a secure retreat in caves.

385. Caves also supply great quantities of salt-petre; and those which are not useful in this way, give us pleasure by exciting emotions of beauty and sublimity when we look upon them.

XXXII. ISLANDS.



ISLANDS, WITH WATER AND SHIPS.

386. ISLANDS are pieces of land surrounded by water. The largest in the United States is Long Island, separated from the main land by Long Island Sound. The western end approaches the city of New York, and is separated from it only by the East River, so called, but which is a passage of the sea, about half a mile in width. The whole length of this island is

a hundred and forty miles, and it is about ten miles wide.

387. The soil is sandy, and the surface thrown into waving hills. In the western part there are fine orchards, and some of the farms yield good crops of wheat. The shores abound in the finest oysters; sea-fowl are abundant in the little bays; and among the pine forests there are deer and grouse. During the winter, a good many birds take shelter in the island, where the snows seldom continue for any length of time.

388. There are a number of towns and villages here, and the inhabitants, living apart from the rest of the world, have a rustic simplicity that is very pleasing. If you ever pay them a visit, you will find them glad to see you, ready to furnish you with bed and board as long as you please, with a horse to ride, a fowling-piece to hunt with, fishing tackle and bait to fish with, and they will like you the better if you do not offer to pay for them. This interesting island belongs to the state of New York.

389. Manhattan-Island, upon which the city of New York is built, is fifteen miles long, and about one and a half wide. On the west side flows the North River; on the east, it is washed by the East

River. Staten Island lies at the mouth of New York harbour ; it is eighteen miles long, and eight wide. It is a beautiful island, and has many fine houses upon it, belonging to gentlemen in New York, who live in them during the summer.

390. Nothing can be more beautiful than the views seen from this island. The ocean on the south, and New York harbour, crowded with steam-boats and other vessels, passing and repassing on the north, and a variety of interesting objects to the east and west, are never-ending sources of amusement to the inhabitants of this island. It belongs to the state of New York.

391. Rhode Island, belonging to the state of Rhode Island, is fifteen miles long, and two and a half miles wide. It is a very pleasant place, and tolerably fertile, but it is entirely destitute of trees, and at a little distance appears as bald as an old man's pate. The air is healthy and pleasant in summer, and Newport, at the southern extremity of the island, is much resorted to, by people from different parts of the country. Conanicut, lying close to Rhode Island, is a fertile and beautiful island, eight miles long, and one mile broad. There are several

other islands in this region, belonging to the state of Rhode Island, but they are small in extent.

392. There are a number of islands on the south-eastern coast of Massachusetts, the principal of which are Martha's Vineyard and Nantucket. The first of these is twenty miles long, and ten broad. It is a pleasant place, and has a good many fine farms. The shores are supplied with fish, and, in the autumn, the waters are covered with sea-fowl. The people, therefore, have the means of living comfortably.

393. Nantucket is fifteen miles long, and eleven wide, and is about twenty miles from the main land. The town of Nantucket is situated upon the north-western side of it, and contains about ten thousand inhabitants. These people seem to consider Nantucket a world of itself, and so they live pretty much as they please.

394. A great many of them go to sea to catch whales, and they understand this business better than any body else. Many of the people are Quakers, and if you ever chance to get inside their houses, you will find that they are very comfortable themselves, and are anxious that other people should be so too.

395. Plum Island, situated at the mouth of the

Merrimack, belongs to Massachusetts, as well as Martha's Vineyard and Nantucket. It is nine miles long, and one wide, and abounds in wild cherries, grapes, and beach plums. The Isles of Shoals, about eight miles from the coast of New Hampshire, are but little more than a cluster of rocks, but they are a favourite resort of fishermen, who take great quantities of the best cod-fish in their vicinity.

396. The coast of Maine is strewn with islands, many of which are exceedingly beautiful. Mount Desert Island is the largest, yet this is but fifteen miles long. The coast of North Carolina is skirted by a range of low, sandy islands, thrown up by the sea. The southern part of South Carolina, exhibits a similar range. These are now under cultivation, and produce the finest cotton: they also exhibit forests of live oak, which are beautiful ever-green trees, and give these islands a cheerful aspect, even in winter.

397. There are, also, islands along the coast of Georgia, which are called the Sea Islands; they yield valuable crops of Sea Island cotton. There are other islands on the coast of Florida, one of which, called Key West, has become a naval station. The Chandeleur Islands, on the eastern coast of

Louisiana, are but little more than heaps of sand, covered with pine forests.

398. The islands of the United States are small compared with those in other parts of the world. The island of Great Britain, the largest in Europe, is six hundred miles in length; that of Madagascar, the largest African island, is nine hundred miles long. Borneo, the largest Asiatic island, is eight hundred miles long; and New Holland the largest island in the world, is almost as large as the whole of Europe.

XXXIII. OCEANS, SHORES, ETC.

399. THE United States are bounded on the east by the Atlantic Ocean. The width of this ocean varies from one to four thousand miles, but between the United States and Europe, the distance is about three thousand miles.

400. A remarkable feature of this ocean is the Gulf Stream, which sweeps from south to north, at the distance of two or three hundred miles from the American coast, and extends from the Gulf of Mexico to the Banks of Newfoundland, where it turns eastward, and then gradually subsides.

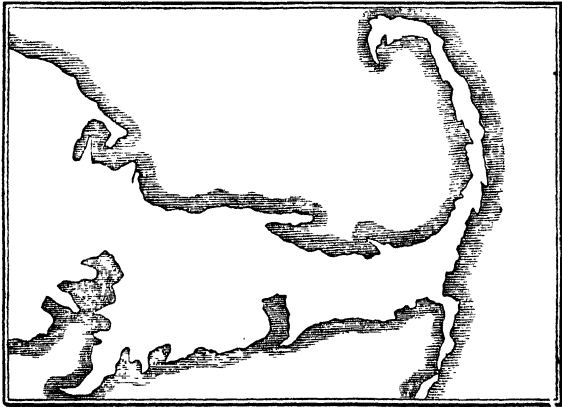
401. This remarkable stream, flowing like a river in the midst of the ocean, has a darker hue, and is much warmer, than the rest of the deep. It is caused by a broad current in the Atlantic, from east to west, in the region of the equator, occasioned, as is supposed, by the daily revolution of the earth, and the attraction of the heavenly bodies. The water, thus impelled upon the eastern coast of America, finds vent by the Gulf Stream, and coming from a hot climate, the water is warmer than in other parts of the ocean.

402. The western border of the United States is claimed to be washed by the Pacific Ocean. The only communication we have by sea, between the eastern and western coasts of the United States, is around Cape Horn. This is a long and tedious passage, yet it is often made by navigators in pursuit of whales, which they find in the Pacific Ocean at no great distance from our western shores.

403. The Pacific is the largest ocean of the globe, it being ten thousand miles across from east to west. It was discovered by Balboa, a Portuguese navigator, in the year 1513, and was crossed for the first time by Magellan, in 1519. He gave it the name of Pacific, because it seemed to him a very peaceful,

well-behaved ocean; but in later times, it has been found to have as violent times of storm and tempest as any other sea.

404. If you look on a map of the Atlantic coast, you will observe that the outline is very irregular. There are deep indentations and points, many of which project far into the sea. These points are



called *capess*, and they are worthy of particular notice. Cape Ann and Cape Cod are in Massachusetts. The latter is long and narrow, and on the map resembles a man's arm bent inwards. Cape May is in New

Jersey, at the mouth of Delaware Bay. Cape Hopen is situated on the same bay. Cape Henry and Cape Charles are both upon Chesapeake Bay.

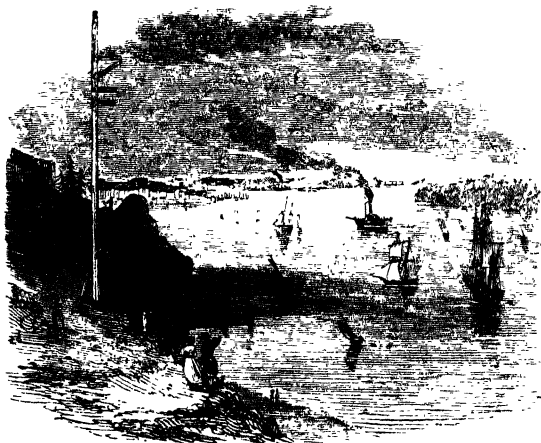
405. Cape Hatteras, upon the coast of North Carolina, is well known to every mariner. It projects a considerable distance into the ocean; and a few miles beyond, is a sand-bank, over which the water is very shallow. This seems to touch the Gulf Stream, and the waters are almost constantly thrown into a state of turmoil. Besides this, storms and tempests love to gather round the spot, to increase the danger of the place. Here, many a fine vessel has been wrecked, and many a gallant sailor has found a grave.

406. Cape Fear and Cape Lookout, on the coast of North Carolina, have both a bad reputation with sailors, as their names indicate. Cape Florida and Cape Sable are projecting points of land in Florida. The whole of Florida may be considered a *peninsula*, which is a long strip of land projecting into the sea.

407. The most remarkable capes in the world are Cape Horn, which is the southern termination of South America; the Cape of Good Hope, which is the southern point of Africa; and Cape Comorin, which is the southern point of Asia.

408. *Bays* are parts of the sea, nearly enclosed by the land. Many of these are very beautiful, and affording shelter for shipping, their borders often become the seats of cities.

409. The most remarkable bays in the United States are Penobscot and Passamaquoddy, in Maine; Massachusetts, Boston, Buzzard's, Cape Cod, and



NEW YORK BAY.

Plymouth, in Massachusetts; Narragansett, in Rhode Island; New York Bay or harbour; Delaware and

Chesapeake, in Maryland and Virginia; and Mobile, in Alabama. Beside these, there are several other bays, or harbours, on the Atlantic coast, affording good accommodation for vessels.

410. *Sounds* are pieces of water which may be sounded, or measured with a line. That of Long Island is the most remarkable in the United States, and is the usual channel by which coasting vessels pass between New York and the Eastern States. Pamlico and Albemarle Sounds are on the coast of North Carolina.

411. A *gulf* is a very deep indentation of the sea into the land, and is a bay. Even the Mediterranean and the Baltic seas in Europe, are but great *gulfs*. The Gulf of Mexico, lying to the south of the United States, is a vast sheet of water, eleven hundred miles in length, and nine hundred in width.

XXXIV. SOIL AND CLIMATE.

412. IN a country so extensive as the United States, there must, of course, be great variety of soil. As compared with other countries this is of better than an average quality. New England contains many

fertile slopes and valleys ; but, on the whole, it is less favoured by nature than many other parts of the country.

413. The Middle States are fertile ; the Southern States have extensive sand-barrens, intermixed with very fruitful spots ; the Western States in general have a prolific soil.

414. There is one curious fact to be remarked in regard to the soil of new settled countries. The decayed leaves and grass furnish a coat of manure, which renders the earth fertile ; it therefore yields a harvest with very little labour. When this mould is exhausted, the earth affords its crop with more natural springness.

415. This seems to be a special provision of Providence in favour of the first settlers in a country. These, being under the necessity of building houses, and protecting themselves from wild animals, have little time to cultivate the soil, and nature is therefore instructed to supply a harvest almost without the use of the plough or spade.

416. The climate of the United States is no less various than its soil. In New England the winters are long and severe. Snow begins to fall about the first of December, and continues till the middle of

March. Fires are necessary for comfort seven months in the year. The cattle are fed in the barnyard, or housed, from the middle of November to the middle of April.

417. For five months, the fresh waters are frozen, and the earth is wrapped in snow. Skating, sliding, and coasting, are the pastimes of this season. Spring is a season of bleak, raw winds, fog and drizzle, with occasional sunshine. It is perhaps the least agreeable of the four seasons in this climate. •

418. The month of June is very fine; July and August are very hot. The autumn is delightful. No portion of the earth furnishes any thing more charming than the autumn of New England. In the Middle States the winter is somewhat milder. The spring and autumn are pleasant, but the summer months are oppressive.

419. In the Southern States snow and frost are but little known, but the protracted summer heats are severe, and often produce fatal epidemics. In the Western States, the climate is of a milder character than on the Atlantic border, and seems to be alike calculated to promote the comfort of the inhabitants, and increase the stores of the vegetable kingdom.

420. It is a curious fact, that the people of every climate think theirs is the best. The inhabitants of Lapland and Norway, where winter reigns for nine or ten months in the year, and where they are obliged to bundle themselves up in sheep-skins and furs to avoid being frozen to death, think their countries are more desirable than all others. The Icelander entertains the same fondness for his own country, and his own climate.

421. The inhabitants of the West Indies, almost roasted in the sun, imagine that they inhabit the paradise of the earth. But, however mistaken some of such local attachments may seem, they fill the heart with content, and are a source of great happiness.

422. There is another thing which must not be forgotten. The people who live in a severe climate, and occupy a niggard soil, are often the happiest and richest. To them, industry is necessary, and this is the parent of many virtues. They are obliged to build themselves good houses, and lay up ample stores as a provision against the winter. This leads to habits of forecast and providence.

423. The wants of a community thus situated, stimulate the faculties, and become the fertile sources

of many arts and inventions. Thus society advances; and we find, that in those portions of the United States least favoured by nature, the people are among the wealthiest and happiest in the country.

424. If we were to go to foreign lands, we could find striking illustrations of these remarks. How much superior is the condition of England, with its fogs and stinging soil, to vine-clad Italy, with its climate of perpetual spring!

425. The subject of climate is very interesting, but I have only room to notice one remarkable fact; and that is, that it is nearly ten degrees warmer on the coast of Europe, than in the same parallels of latitude on the coast of America. The climate of Paris, which is about forty-nine degrees north, is quite as mild as that of Washington, which is about thirty-nine degrees north.

XXXV. MINERALS.

IRON. COPPER. SILVER. GOLD. MARBLE. COAL.
GREAT LEAD MINES.

426. UNDER the term *minerals*, we speak of those substances of nature, for human uses, which are dug out of the earth. as marble, gold, silver, iron, coal,

&c. The people of the United States were formerly so busy in attending to what is found upon the surface of the earth, that for a long time they thought little of what was beneath it.

427. But the times are changed, and everybody in this country seems, now, to be very curious to peep into the bowels of the globe, and see what is to be found there. Nor has this curiosity been without its use. In various parts of the country, marble has been found which makes beautiful chimney-pieces; and granite and red sandstone, suitable for building, have been discovered in abundance.

428. Iron ore has been met with in almost every state of the Union, and in many it is wrought to a great extent. Copper is found in some places, and there have been several attempts to extract it, but no mines are now wrought to any considerable extent.

429. In Connecticut, there is a famous excavation, called Simmsbury Mines, which was formed in searching for copper, many years since. This dark vault was occupied as a state's prison for many years. Here, at the distance of forty feet beneath the surface of the earth, the convicts were secured at night; and here in the darkness, they used to amuse themselves by telling their wild adventures.

430. I have sometimes imagined myself as sitting in a nook of the cavern, and listening to the grisly legends of these felons; and I herewith promise to tell the tales which fancy has thus whispered in my ear, to any of my readers who will pay me a sociable visit up at the North End (Boston).

431. Silver has been found in some parts of the United States, but no silver mines are wrought. Gold is found throughout the mountainous regions extending from the River Potomac to Alabama. In Virginia, considerable quantities are found; but much more in North Carolina.

432. The metal is obtained either by washing, that is, by simply separating native gold from the sand in which it is found, or from the mines. In the latter case, the gold is found in ore, which, after undergoing the process of crushing, is mixed with quicksilver, for the purpose of separating the metal from the earthy parts.

433. The whole amount of gold obtained in North Carolina may be a million and a half of dollars annually. This may seem a great sum, but I believe every dollar's worth of gold obtained there has cost nearly two dollars' worth of silver. Many people have been fascinated with the idea of going to a

country where they could pick up lumps of gold as thick as chestnuts, after a storm in November.

434. So they have left their farms, and gone to the gold region of North Carolina. And what have they found? A desolate and blasted realm of rocks; and here they have toiled for months, and obtained a few little particles of gold, worth about half as much as the produce of their farms would have been, had they staid at home.

435. The truth is, that although gold makes a great noise in the world, it is much less useful than some more humble minerals. Pit-coal, for instance, is of far more importance. Gold may be compared to a well-dressed dandy, who is thought to be very rich, and is therefore esteemed of consequence by everybody, while in reality he is of very little benefit to any one. Coal may be compared to a good, substantial farmer or mechanic, who without any of the pretence of the dandy, contributes ten times as much to the good of society, and, in every point of view, is far more worthy of respect.

436. Coal is found in various parts of the United States, and as wood is now getting scarce, the people are beginning to supply themselves with fuel, by digging into the bosom of the earth.

437. Many mines of pit-coal are wrought, and some to a great extent. The most valuable, at present, are in Pennsylvania. On the eastern side of the Alleghany Mountains, there are vast beds of what is called *anthracite*, or *stone-coal*. This is brought in abundance to all our sea-ports, and passes under the various names of Lehigh, Peach Orchard, Peach Mountain, and Lackawanna coal.

438. On the western side of the Alleghanies, there is abundance of bituminous, or cannel coal, burning freely, with a bright flame. It is obtained on the hills around Pittsburg, and at various places along the banks of the Ohio.

439. Lead is abundant in different parts of the United States, but the most celebrated mines are those of Missouri and Illinois. The former lie in the eastern part of the state, south of the Missouri, and have produced one million two hundred thousand pounds in a single year. But they are now abandoned.

440. The Lead mines of Illinois lie in the north-western part of the state, and are perhaps the richest in the world. They have produced thirteen million pounds in a year. I have hardly room to notice the mineral treasures of this country, much less to give an

account of those of other countries. The celebrated gold and silver mines of Mexico, Peru, and Bolivia ; the diamond mines of Brazil ; the rich mines of India, producing some gold, and the finest of gems ; the gold mines of Hungary ; the tin, coal, and copper mines of England,—are all themes of great interest, but they can only be mentioned here. I cannot dismiss the subject, however, without making one remark, and that is, that, of all people in the world, those who are devoted to the labour of working mines of gold, silver, and precious stones, are the poorest, the most ignorant, and the most wretched.

XXXVI. TREES, SHRUBS, AND PLANTS.

AMERICAN VARIETIES. LOFTINESS OF THE TREES, ETC.

441. WHEN the Europeans first came to this country, and began to ramble about in the woods, they imagined that the trees, shrubs, and plants, were the same as on the other side of the Atlantic. But closer comparison has proved that all our trees, plants, and shrubs, are different, more or less, from those of the eastern continent ; where the species is the same, the variety is different.

442. It is true we have oaks, chestnut trees, walnut trees, beech trees, &c., as well as the Europeans,



TREES. MAPLE, ETC.

but they are all different in species, and have different leaves, and bear different fruits.

443. It is remarkable that the trees are much loftier with us than in Europe. In the finest portions of that country, there are but thirty-seven kinds of trees which reach the height of thirty feet, while here there are one hundred and thirty kinds that attain that elevation. In Europe it is uncommon to see a tree more than eighty feet in height, while many of our trees tower to the elevation of one hundred and twenty feet. Trees even yet more lofty than these are spoken of by the first adventurers or settlers.

444. This difference is probably not altogether occasioned by a difference of climate. The original forests of Europe have all been cut down, and other forests have been planted in their stead. The deep, rich mould, accumulated for ages by the decay of leaves, has been to some extent exhausted, and the soil is thus rendered less capable of producing gigantic forest trees than it might once have been.

445. In travelling through this country, you will see abundance of apple trees, pear trees, plum trees, and peach trees. But you will remember that none of these are natives of America. All these fine fruit trees were first introduced into this country by our European ancestors.

446. Among our forests you will discover many kinds of oak, walnut, maple, birch, pine, ash, elm, beech, and one species of chestnut. All these trees are common to most parts of the United States, but attain their greatest perfection in the Middle and Western States.

447. The buttonwood, sycamore, or plane-tree, is very common; but it attains its greatest elevation along the banks of the Ohio. The tulip tree is a superb production of our forests. In New England it reaches the height of eighty feet; and in Kentucky, where every thing natural seems in perfection, it is said to attain a hundred and thirty feet. It is a pity that the Yankees should call this beauty of the forest by the plain, homespun name of *whitewood*.

448. Among the ornamental trees, are the catalpa, which is a native of the Middle States; the superb magnolia of the southern regions; the China-tree of Louisiana; the bow-wood of Arkansas, the most beautiful of American forest trees, yielding an orange-like fruit in appearance, which is, however, detestable to the taste; the papaw of the west, which yields a fruit, that Mr. Flint considers a sort of natural custard; and many others.

449. Among our native shrubs, none are more

beautiful than the laurel or calico tree, which in the time of its bloom sometimes covers the ragged hillside of a forest with indescribable beauty. There are also in different parts of the country several species of rhodora, or honeysuckle, all of which are handsome, and some magnificent.

450. In our forests are many kinds of wild grapes, among which the finest sort is the Isabella, now extensively cultivated. Among the most remarkable plants first found in America, are the potatoe, tobacco, and maize, or Indian corn.

XXXVII. ANIMALS.

AMERICAN VARIETIES. WILD OXEN. BEARS. DOM
ANIMALS.

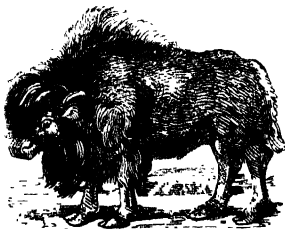
451. It may be said of the animals of America, as of the vegetables, that, while they resemble those of Europe, they are still not the same. We have bears, and they have a family resemblance to their rough cousins of Norway and Russia, but they are manifestly American varieties.

452. We have deer, but not entirely like those to be seen in Scotland. We have crows, and they look

very much like those of England, but they evidently speak a different language. Their cries are not the same.

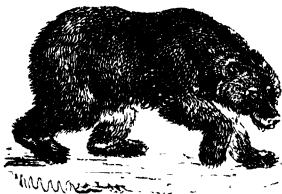
453. It must be understood that our domestic animals are all of foreign origin. Horses, cows, sheep, asses, goats, cats, and even rats and mice, were originally imported from Europe. The same may be said of our domestic fowls, excepting the turkey, duck, and goose, which are all domesticated from the wild breeds of America. Our dogs, too, are of European descent, with the exception of the Newfoundland and Hare-Indian dogs, which are said to be natives of this country.

454. At the head of American quadrupeds we may place the bison, urus, or wild ox, erroneously called buffalo. There is no such thing as a buffalo in all America. The bison was once found in the Atlantic states, but for many years it has not been seen east of the Alleghanies. It has retired before the march of emigration, and at present is never met with east of



the Mississippi. Its home is in the vast prairies which lie between that river and the Rocky Mountains. Herds of many thousands are sometimes met with.

455. There are three species of bear within the boundaries of the United States—the grizzly, or yellow bear of the western country, apparently peculiar to America, and the American brown and black bears common to both continents. The former is doubtless the worst of this ill-mannered family.



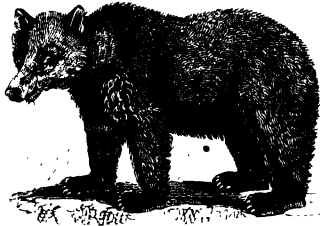
GRIZZLY BEAR.

456. In the first place, he possesses prodigious strength, being sometimes ten feet long. While most bears are content to feed on vegetables, at least in part, the yellow or grizzly bear is satisfied with nothing but flesh, and if a man comes in his way, it does not hurt his conscience to eat him, if he can catch him.

457. This animal appears to be confined to a region lying east of the Rocky Mountains, at present remote from the settlers. The fur traders, and the

Indians, however, enter his domain, and have some fierce adventures with him.

458. The brown bear is of various shades of that colour, from cinnamon almost to black. It was formerly common throughout the whole Atlantic country; but, being of a solitary turn of mind, and



BROWN BEAR.

not liking meeting-houses, taverns, country shops, and things of that kind, it has pretty much retired from the settled districts, and is only to be found in the mountainous regions, where, too, it generally shuns the sight of man, and seems to care little for anything but to be let alone.

459. About a hundred years ago, bears were the heroes of a great many stories among us, but of late we hear little about them. I will tell you, however, a tale of what occurred in the state of Maine but a few months since.

460. A boy, about eight years old, was sent by his mother into the woods, to bring home the old cow

At the distance of somewhat more than half a mile, he found her in company with some young cattle. He began to drive them home, but had not proceeded far, when a large brown bear came out of the bushes, and seemed disposed to make his acquaintance.

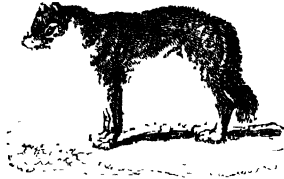
461. The boy did not like his company; so he jumped upon the old cow's back, and held himself on by her horns. She set out on full run, and the bear after her. The young cattle, lifting their tails in the air, brought up the rear. Thus they proceeded; the young ones behind frequently coming up to the bear, and giving him a thrust with their horns.

462. This compelled him to turn round, and thus the old cow, with her brave rider, got somewhat in advance. The bear then galloped on, and, approaching the boy, attempted to seize him; but the old cow cantered along, and finally brought the boy to his mother's house in safety. The bear, after approaching the house, thinking perhaps that he should not be welcome there, turned about, and scampered back to the forest.

XXXVIII. ANIMALS, CONTINUED.

WOLVES. FOXES.

463. THE wolf, in America, is the same animal with the wolf in Europe. He is rather larger than a Newfoundland dog, but somewhat resembles it in shape. His colour is a grizzly brown; his face is sulky and savage, and he looks almost as evil-disposed as a boy when he is very angry.



AMERICAN WOLF.

464. The wolf is now a stranger in New England, and indeed, is seldom seen in any of the Atlantic States, except in the woody portions of the Apalachian Mountains. He makes his home in remote and solitary regions, living in dark caverns during the day, and stealing forth at night, to make the best supper he can, upon a deer or a stray sheep.

465. He knows very well that "every man's hand is against him." He therefore never enters a school-house to learn a lesson, or a church to hear a sermon, but shuns the towns and villages and wan-

ders about in the edges of a forest, or under shelter of some thicket, occasionally peeping forth into the open ground to see if anything is near, that he may devour.

466. If, in this way, he succeeds in satisfying his appetite, he goes home to his den, and sleeps away the time till night returns, and hunger again calls him to his prey. If, however, for two or three nights in succession, he fails of making a meal, he lays aside fear, quits the mountain and the forest, and, descending to the cultivated plains, often to the distance of thirty or forty miles, attacks the sheep in the fold, and sometimes, slaying more than he can eat, feasts upon the blood of the defenceless animals.

467. Thus it often happens that the farmer, living in the vicinity of the mountains, when he goes out to feed his sheep in the morning, finds that the slayer has been among his flock. Stirred up by such an injury, he usually calls together some of his neighbours, and, collecting three or four hounds, they set out in pursuit of the destroyer.

468. Woe be to you now, Master Wolf! The slow but sure hound is on your track; the hunter with his rifle follows. Hie thee to the mountains, bury thyself in some deep, rocky cavern, or the

whistling bullet will soon lay thee lifeless on the earth!

469. The adventures that have taken place with wolves are numerous and interesting; for these brutes are not only fierce and blood-thirsty, but, when pressed by hunger, they become very daring. In general, they live apart, and each one seems disposed to “forage for himself.” But, in case of need, they herd together, and assail a bison, or a cow.

470. Soon after our forefathers settled in Boston, the wolves crossed the Neck during a cold winter, attacked the cattle, and killed several. They even came in the daytime, and the good old pilgrims went forth with clubs, and had some severe battles.

471. Wolves usually pay great respect to mankind, and if it is convenient, keep out of their sight. But in hard times, they forget good manners, and sometimes attack a man or a woman, that chances to be alone. This frequently happens, in some parts of Europe, where wild animals, and other food upon which the wolf may feed, are very scarce; but it happens very seldom indeed, in the United States.

472. In the olden time, during a severe winter, if a man happened to be travelling among the Green

Mountains, half a dozen wolves would sometimes come out of the woods, approach the sledge of the stranger, look him in the face, show their white teeth, snarl and snap, and say in many ways, "Sir, we should like to eat you up."

473. But these adventurous days are now gone by, and a person may travel all over the United States without any expectation of being insulted by a wolf, a bear, or any such ill-mannered child of the forest.

474. In the Far West, there is an animal called the Prairie Wolf. He is rather smaller than a common wolf, but appears to have the same general character. He dwells upon the vast prairies, and usually attaches himself to some herd of bisons, that he may feast upon the carcasses of those which die by sickness or accident, or are killed by the hunters.

475. Sometimes, several of these creatures will assail a wounded bison, or Wild Ox, and kill him. They are ready at a chase, and will often pursue a deer for a whole day. The game seldom escapes, when these hunters pursue him in good earnest.

476. It is said that the Prairie Wolves sometimes surround a flock of deer, and drive them over a pre-

cipice, that they may feast upon such as are thus killed or wounded. If this is true, they are cunning fellows.

477. I could tell you a great deal more about wolves, but I have only room to say, that there are still other varieties of the wolf in North America. The black, the clouded, and the white wolf, are found in more northern regions, and may be occasionally seen within the limits of the United States far to the west.

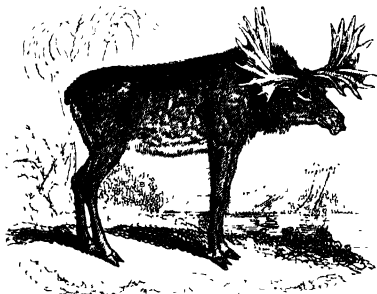
XXXIX. ANIMALS.

DEER. THE ELK. THE WILD REIN-DEER. THE STAG.
THE ROE. THE PRONG-HORNED ANTELOPE.

478. WE have seven species of the deer family in the United States—the elk, the cariboo, the stag, the Virginia or common deer of North America, the black-tailed deer, and the roe.

479. The elk is the largest of the tribe, and looks somewhat like an awkward, overgrown youth, who is taller than his father and the rest of his relations. He is sometimes seven feet high over the shoulders; his horns are broad and palmated, resembling the thick stout leaves of the prickly pear-plant.

480. The elk is seldom seen in the United States,



except along their northern border. It is the winter sport of the Indians in Maine to pursue the elk.

481. If the ground is clear, though he has a shuffling kind of pace, this creature easily leaves his enemies at a distance. He climbs the mountain, sweeps across the valley, and swims a lake or river, with such facility, that the chase is usually fruitless at any other than the winter season.

482. But when the snows are deep, his long legs are less useful; he wades and worries along for a time, but he soon grows weary, and, the dogs coming upon him, he turns round, and stands at bay. Woe be to the hound that comes within the whirling

sweep of his antlers. If one chances to be caught in this way, he is struck dead to the earth, or tossed twenty feet into the air.

483. But the Indian soon comes up, and a bullet or an arrow finishes the sport. The skin of the animal is then taken off, and, when dressed, makes a good mantle. The flesh is somewhat like beef. If sent to the Boston market, it brings twenty-five cents or a quarter of a dollar a pound.

484. The stag, or red-deer, is smaller than the elk, but he is still a large beast. He is remarkable for his tall, branching horns, which are sometimes seven feet in length. If you were to see one of them in the woods, you might imagine that he was carrying two trees upon his head.



THE STAG.

485. The stag has a sociable disposition, and loves to live in a herd with his friends and neighbours. He does not build a

house, or dig a burrow, or get into the hollow of an old tree. His roof is the broad sky; his home the shadowy forest.

486. Here he loves to dwell, far from the haunts of man; far from the baying of hounds, the ringing of bells, the rattling of wheels, and the firing of the rifle. There is no music, to him, in any of these sounds. He seeks retirement, and is most happy when he is permitted to be the sole tenant of the forest, feasting upon the green herbage in spring and summer, and browsing the trees in time of winter.

487. But, alas! poor beast! his solitude is now but too often disturbed for his comfort. For many years, perhaps for ages, he possessed a wide dominion on the western side of the Mississippi. Here he lived, knowing no fear, dreading no intrusion. The earth seemed to put forth its herbage but to furnish him a feast; the forest seemed to spread abroad its green mantle but to furnish him a shade.

488. But the prowling Indian, the wolf, the bear, the wolverine, and the restless white-man hunter, narrow down his dominion, and teach him what it is to live in fear. His eye and ear are ever on the watch. In his moments of seeming security, his ear may be seen to play back and forth, examining and

questioning every sound; and his eye glances hither and thither, searching the thicket, or stretching across the prairie in quest of danger.

489. Nor is he satisfied with this. He snuffs the air over and over, and, if suspicion is excited, stretches his nose aloft, and seems inquisitively to ask of the breeze, "Tell me truly, is the Indian near? is the hunter on my trail?" If the breeze replies in the affirmative, the stag takes to flight, and the wind itself is hardly more fleet than he.

490. The deer I have thus attempted to describe is only found in the western and northern regions of America. It furnishes a considerable share of the food of various tribes of wandering Indians. The variety is peculiar to America, but bearing a general



THE WAPITI DEER.

resemblance to the stag or red deer of Europe. It has an Indian name of Wapiti.

491. The common or Virginia deer is but little more than half the size of the stag. Its legs are long and slender, its neck thin, its nose pointed, and its whole structure adapted for speed. Its horns are tall and branching, its ear long and delicate, its eye full, bright, and sparkling, its colour reddish-brown. Its gait is a long gallop, its food grass and shrubs.

492. Like all the deer tribe, it is timid, and ever seeks safety rather by running away than by giving battle. Its senses are quick, and the eye, ear, and nostril, appear to be always, like sentinels, on the watch to discover and announce the approach of harm. This is particularly the case when the poor animal has lived in the vicinity of man, and learned to look upon him as his evil genius.

493. Animals are more observing than we are apt to think; and when a deer has heard the sound of a rifle, and seen her mate or her young fawn slain at her side, no wonder she should ever after hate the sound, and teach all her descendants to keep as far away as possible from rifles, and those who handle them.

494. Or, if a deer has been hard pressed for a whole day by a hound, or has been wounded by a sportsman's bullet, he is likely to be shy of sports-

men, and communicate his notions to all his friends. Thus it is easy to see how man gets a bad name with the beasts of the forest, and how, dreading him as their mortal enemy, they hide from his presence, and seek security in the wilderness and the solitary place.

495. When our forefathers first came to this country, the common deer were abundant, though the Indians made constant war upon them. But they have become comparatively scarce, there being only a few survivors now left in New England.

496. There are some on Long Island; in the mountainous regions of the Apalachian chain they are more frequent; and in the western portions of the country they are abundant. Their flesh is greatly prized, particularly in the Atlantic markets, where it is more rare. In these portions of the country, a saddle of venison makes a feast, while it is the common food of the people who dwell in log-huts, in the Western States. I suppose a cod-fish there would be as much prized as venison on the sea-coast.

497. The common deer, like most of the deer species, if taken young, may be converted from his way of living in the woods, and made to live peace-

ably like sheep and horned cattle about the house. In Europe, herds of fallow deer, which much resemble the common deer of North America, graze the deer-parks as quietly as flocks of sheep.

498. The next species of deer which I shall mention is the black-tailed or mule deer of the western regions. He is rather larger than the common deer, but seems to be a near relation. He is, however, a shy fellow, and having given us little opportunity to become acquainted with his character, I shall say no more about him.

499. I must not omit to mention the prong-horned antelope, as the white hunters call him. He is sometimes seen skipping over the plains, at the eastern foot of the Rocky Mountains. He is smaller than any of the deer tribe, but is evidently a cousin of the family.

500. He has the same habit as they of running off when you most wish to get near him, the same love of solitude, the same bad opinion of mankind. Well, let him go, the world is wide, and we will not grudge the freedom which makes this pretty little spirit of the forest so happy.

501. I will, however, mention one circumstance in which the *antelope* differs from his cousins the deer.

While these fanciful creatures shed their horns every year, as regularly as a fashionable lady changes her bonnet, the prong-horned *antelope* keeps the same horns from year to year as steadily as a Quaker continues to wear a brown coat. In this particular of never shedding his horns, he agrees with the true *antelopes*, and is to be distinguished from all *deer*.

XL. ANIMALS, CONTINUED.

FOX. GOAT. ARGALI, ETC.

502. THE fox has such a reputation, that, when we wish to speak of a person as very artful, we say he is as cunning as a fox. He is of many colours, some being gray, some red, and some black. But, whatever may be his hue, he is invariably the same sly rogue.

503. He is hated by man, and he knows it well. Yet he steals into the barn-yard at night, prowls round the house, peeps at the poultry, takes what he likes, and, when the sun gets up, is safe in his burrow, at the distance of a dozen miles.

504. Beside the red, black, and gray foxes, found in the United States, there are two or three other

varieties in the northern regions of America. The common red fox of America resembles the common fox of Europe.

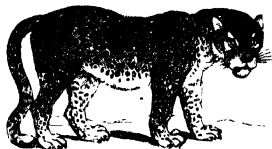
505. If you should ever travel to the Rocky Mountains, you will meet with flocks of wild goats covered with shaggy hair, having long beards, a short tail, and black hoofs. You may have some difficulty in killing these creatures, for they climb the rocks like squirrels, and seldom allow a man to approach them. If you should take one, you will find its flesh rather unsavoury, but the fleece beneath the long hair will be very fine.

506. In the same regions, you will be likely to meet with flocks of the argali, which are the wild stock of the domestic sheep. The male has large twisted horns, but the female has none. These creatures are very nimble, and skip from rock to rock, on the very edge of frightful precipices, with as little fear as birds.



THE ARGALI.

507. We have but two animals of the cat tribe that are natives of the United States; for I have already said that their domestic cat is of foreign origin. The panther, and the lynx, are the only members of the cat tribe that are found in the forests of North America.



THE PANTHER.

508. In ancient days the panther used to climb the trees, rear his young, and frighten the boys and girls, in all parts of New England. But those pleasant times are past, and a panther is now never seen among us. In the mountains of Pennsylvania, and the more southern states, one of these creatures is occasionally seen; and in the thick forests of the west he is often met with.

509. He is a powerful beast; like the rest of his family, sly, stealthy, and fond of blood, making a feast of every living thing he can master. He is an overmatch for the strongest dog, and, were it not for his cowardice, would be formidable to man.

510. The lynx of the United States differs much from the Canada lynx. He is one-third larger than

the common cat, of a grayish colour, with a short tail. He climbs trees easily, and feasts upon birds, squirrels, mice, and rabbits. His eye is keen, and, in an-



THE LYNX.

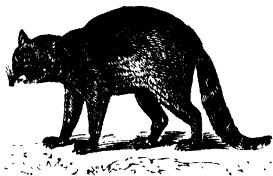
cient times, it was fancied that he could see through a stone wall; and so he can, if there is a hole through it, but not otherwise. Still the lynx is common in the wilder parts of Canada and of British America, but is only found occasionally in the United States.

511. On the whole, the United States may be thankful that the members of the cat family are so few. In Asia, they have the lion, tiger, leopard, ounce, serval, and many other species. In Africa, they have some of these, together with the panther, the Cape cat, and I know not how many more.

512. Most of them are beautiful animals, and their motions very graceful. When they are in good temper, they have soft, pleasant manners. But you cannot trust them; and so I hope they will stay

where they are, except those that come in caravans. It is much better to give sixpence to see a lion or a tiger in a cage, than to see one for nothing, when he is at liberty in the woods.

513. The raccoon is, as is said in the United States, a Yankee all over,—lively, sagacious, and always at work. He is peculiar to North America. Look in his face. How shrewd and sharp he appears, as if he knew every thing by instinct! How handily he takes up things in his paw! Give him a penknife and a wooden shingle, and one might think he would whittle or shave away the latter as if he had been brought up to it.



THE RACCOON.

514. See him in the woods: he is ever peering about, now examining the ground, now climbing a tree, and peeping into every knot-hole. See him with a chain round his neck, and fastened to a stick: even there, he is ever busy, sometimes walking this way and that, sometimes sporting with his long tail, and if any thing comes within his reach, he picks it up, looks at it, turns it over, and seems to say, “Can I possibly turn this to any account?”

515. So much for the raccoon, a gray animal, twice the size of the cat, and seeming to be a sort of intermediate link between the bear and monkey. He is yet common even in many parts of New England, but still more so in Kentucky, and in all the other western states and territories.

516. The opossum is another animal peculiar to America, though there are quadrupeds in New Holland which resemble it. He is only found in the milder parts of the United States; but in these regions he is common. He is of the size of a cat, with short legs, claws for climbing trees, and a long, strong tail, with which he sometimes hangs himself up, as we hang up a piece of meat.



OPOSSUM.

517. But the most curious thing about this creature is, that the female has under the belly a pouch into which her young ones creep in time of danger. This is a wonderful contrivance, and enables her to save her little ones from the hawks, owls, and other creatures that attempt to prey upon them.

518. The badger is found in the western country,

and is about the size of the raccoon. He resembles the bear in shape, and in many of his habits. He lives partly on flesh, and partly on vegetables. The woodchuck, or Maryland marmot, is well known in all parts of the United States. The prairie marmot, as the name implies, lives in the Prairies, where great numbers herd together and dwell in their burrows.



PRAIRIE DOG OR MARMOT.

519. The skunk is of the martin or the weasel tribe, but his chief celebrity arises from his singular mode of defence. He does not bite or scratch, but ejects against his enemy a villanously fetid liquor, and woe be to him who is near! In other respects, the skunk is a quiet animal enough, though he is too apt to get into the barn, suck



the eggs, and eat the chickens. The only animal in Europe that resembles the skunk, is the polecat.

520. There are several other quadrupeds in the United States, which I can but mention;—the otter, that lives in ponds, and often amuses himself with sliding down hill, though without the use of a sledge; the beaver, the most ingenious house-builder among four-footed beasts; the musquash, or musk-rat, a humble imitator of the beaver; the mink, a long, black fellow, that dwells in ponds; the moles and rats, of which there are several kinds. All these I must leave, as to any thing farther, to themselves.

521. The squirrels cannot be passed over so lightly. The black, gray, and fox squirrels are the largest kinds, and nearly of a size. They dwell in the forests where nuts abound, and make nests in the trees, of sticks and leaves, lining them with moss. They are common in nearly all parts of the country; but in the forests of the Western States, a dozen may sometimes be found on a single tree.

522. These creatures often migrate in vast numbers from one part of the country to another. In so doing, they swim rivers, though of considerable width. I have seen them toiling across the Ohio, reaching the opposite shore so completely exhausted as to lie motionless for several minutes upon the sand.

523. Nay, I have seen them, overcome with fatigue, yield to their fate, and go down the stream. At such times, many of them are killed by men and boys, either in the water, or on the margin of the river. If, in their march, these creatures meet with a field of Indian corn, they make dreadful havoc in it.

524. The red squirrel is a lively little fellow, that scampers along upon the top of the fence, by the road-side wherever you go. The striped squirrel peeps out from the stone wall, or a hole at the root of a tree, in the neighbourhood of every forest. The flying squirrel has a membrane on either side, which he spreads like wings, and, slanting downward, sails from one tree to another.

525. Thus I have given you an account of the principal quadrupeds that belong to our country. I have not told you of the horses that are found wild in the plains or prairies of the west; for the horse is not a native of America; and though he may be found in prodigious multitudes in the wild parts of the west country, these are but the offspring of Spanish horses brought to Mexico by Europeans.

XLI. BIRDS.

EAGLES. VULTURES. CONDOR.

526. OF the feathered tribe, the species are much more numerous than of quadrupeds. In the United States, there are several kinds of eagles, some of which appear to be common to the eastern and western continent.



WHITE-HEADED OR BALD EAGLE.

527. The white-headed or bald eagle was supposed

to be peculiar to America, and for this reason was selected as our national emblem ; but it appears to be occasionally found in Europe. It is, indeed, a bird of such power that it might fly from one continent to the other, in the northern latitudes, where they approach nearer each other.

528. In this country we have a great variety of hawks, among which is the duck-hawk, which is ascertained to be the same as the wandering-falcon of Europe, a bird greatly esteemed in the days of falconry for his skill and power in striking down the birds that he was taught to pursue.

529. Of vultures there are two kinds, the turkey-buzzard and black vulture of the Southern States. These birds are common in Charleston and Savannah, and may be often seen in the streets devouring pieces of putrefied flesh. As they are useful in thus clearing away offensive matter, which in a hot country might engender pestilence, they are protected by public opinion, and prowl about the town in perfect security.

530. Flocks of these birds may be often seen in the warmer parts of our country, wheeling high in air, or feasting on the carcass of a dead horse, or sitting lazily upon the decayed branch of a forest oak.

They are solemn-looking birds, with a disagreeable countenance, and, from the food they eat, always carry about with them a filthy odour.

531. The condor of South America, a mighty species of vulture, and the largest bird of flight, is



sometimes seen among the Rocky Mountains within the limits of the United States. Here, amid the

gloomy solitude of snow-capped peaks, he seems to brood over the scene, moodily gazing in search of food. He is content to dine on carrion, but, when hunger presses, will attack a wounded animal, and by persevering efforts rend him in pieces.

532. The raven is found in the north-western portions of the United States. We have two or three species of crows, and a large family of owls. The magpie, a loquacious bird, often mentioned in English books, is found in the plains west of the Rocky Mountains, but he never migrates to the eastward. Travellers speak of him as an impudent, thievish wretch, who steals into the tent of the wanderer, and if not closely watched, will carry off whatever comes in his way, if it suits his purpose, and is not too heavy for him.

533. Of pigeons we have several kinds, the most remarkable of which are the Carolina-pigeon and the passenger-pigeon. The former may be often seen in pairs, in a sandy pathway, during the summer months; they are gentle birds, possessing all the dove-like manners of their tribe. These are really *doves*, if we separate *doves* from pigeons; and in the West Indies have the name of ground-doves.

534. The passenger pigeon is splendidly formed,

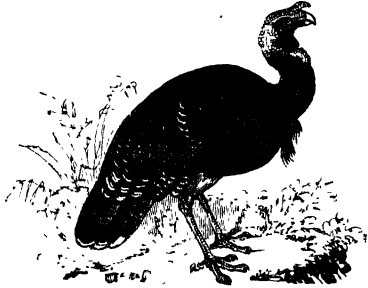
having a long tail, bright eye, and very glossy plumage. His neck shines with metallic brilliancy. His upper plumage is lead colour, his breast usually a light red. The passenger-pigeon frequents many parts of Great Britain, and of all the ancient world.

535. The flight of this fine bird is remarkably swift, and it may sometimes be seen in flocks containing millions. I have seen them myself pour through the air in a continuous stream for nearly a whole day. Multitudes of them are taken in nets, or shot, and brought to market, both in spring and autumn.

536. These birds pass from the southern to the northern regions in April, for the purpose of breeding. They sometimes assemble in a forest in countless multitudes, and here, intending to establish themselves for the season, begin to build their nests, when a wonderful scene is presented. The birds are fluttering and flying about in all directions; some are billing and cooing, and some are fighting.

537. Thus things go on; the eggs are laid, the young birds are hatched, and for months together there is a perpetual murmur through the forest, sounding like the distant roar of a cataract. At length the autumn approaches, and the myriad host takes its departure for a warmer climate.

538. The wild turkey is peculiar to America. In early times it was abundant in all the Atlantic states, but it is now rare, except in the woody districts of the western country. Here it is still common, and in some of the western markets a



WILD TURKEY.

fine wild turkey may be purchased for a quarter of a dollar. All the domestic turkeys now in the world are descended from the American wild breed. The natural history of the turkey is full of interest.

XLII. BIRDS, INSECTS, REPTILES, FISHES, ETC.

539. WE have several species of grouse, among which are the pinnated and the ruffed grouse. The former is commonly called heath-hen, and may be occasionally met with in the south-east of Massachusetts, on Long Island, and in New Jersey. In

the southern and western regions it is still more common. Its flesh is greatly esteemed; and, in order to prevent the diminution of its numbers, laws have been framed for its preservation.

540. A few years since, a bill was introduced into the legislature of New York, entitled, "An act for the protection of the heath-hen." One of the representatives, reading the word *heathen*, strenuously opposed the bill, on the ground that it was very improper for a Christian country to pass laws in favour of idolaters.

541. The ruffed-grouse is generally called a *partridge* in the north, and *pheasant* in the south of the United States; but it is very different from both the pheasant and partridge of Europe. It is much smaller than the first, and larger than the last. The *quail* of America is larger than the quail of Europe, and, in several respects, is different. It is, in fact, a different bird, and closely resembles the European partridge.

542. It is impossible even to name, in this brief sketch, all the species of birds which are found in our climate. I had intended to describe briefly the whole of the most remarkable kinds; but the truth is, they are all interesting, and I find it difficult to choose.

I have room to mention only a few more of those which are most worthy of notice.

543. Of our singing birds, the most remarkable is the mocking-bird, a species of thrush, common in the warmer parts of the United States. It has a few original notes of its own, but its chief talent consists in imitation.



MOCKING-BIRD.

544. Its song is chiefly composed of the notes of other birds, which are often blended in such a manner as to produce a beautiful effect. It can be taught short pieces of music, and it easily catches waltzes and other lively strains from the flute. Its musical talents are probably surpassed by no feathered minstrel in the world.

545. We have many other good singers in our woods and fields, as, the brown-thrush, the wood-thrush, the song-sparrow, that red-breasted thrush which we call the robin,—several linnets and finches, and a great number of warblers.

546. Besides these birds, esteemed for their song, we have many that are prized for their flesh. In addition to those already mentioned, we have the snipe, woodcock, plover, curlew, rail, rice-bird, and many others.

547. Of water-birds, we have great variety, as swans, wild geese, and many species of ducks, among which latter there are several kinds not known in Europe. One of these is the canvass-back, which is abundant in Chesapeake Bay. This for the table is the most celebrated of water fowls.

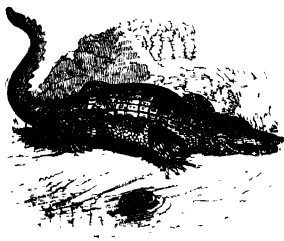
548. Of other water birds, we have a long list, as cranes, herons, spoonbills, bitterns, pelicans, cormorants, and many others. Of birds celebrated for the beauty of their plumage, we have the orchard and Baltimore oriole, the scarlet tanager, the Carolina parrot, and that exquisite little fop called the humming-bird.

549. Thus I have named some of the most interesting species of our birds; and I need only say, in addition, that if the jays, wood-peckers, cat-birds, buntings, black-birds, sparrows, swallows, fly-catchers, larks, blue-birds, wrens, and *chickadees*, appear to have been treated with neglect, it is for lack of room, and not from any disposition to overlook the

just pretensions of any of these beautiful frequenters of the air.

550. That nothing may be wholly omitted, in this sketch of animated nature in our country, we must remark, that we have a full supply of flies, gnats, mosquitoes, bees, wasps, hornets, beetles, moths, and butterflies. But we must descend from the element in which the insect tribes love to buzz about, to the earth, where, amidst mud and slime, we find various races of reptiles.

551. In the south-eastern states, along the rivers and lagoons, you may often see the lazy alligator basking on the bank, or lying in wait for his prey. This creature is formidable enough, but he seldom attacks a man. He resembles the crocodile of the ancient continent, but is less ferocious.



ALLIGATOR.

552. We have our share of toads, tortoises, frogs, and lizards, and we have a good assortment of serpents. The rattlesnake is peculiar to this country,

yet, though his bite is very dangerous, a person seldom dies from it. The black, striped, milk, water, and grass snakes, are harmless inhabitants of our fields. The moccasin and coppersnake of the south are venomous, and need to be carefully shunned. The adder is common in many parts of the country, and everywhere has a bad name, which he richly merits.

553. Of fishes, whether belonging to the briny deep, or to rivers or lakes, we have our share. We have salmon, though these are now scarce, and I think they are hardly equal to the salmon of Scotland. Scotch salmon, packed in ice, are beginning to be brought across the Atlantic, to the United States, in British steam-boats. We have shad, which is a fine fish here, though in Europe a very poor one.

554. We have herring, mackerel, cod, halibut, haddock, bass, and black-fish. The turbot and sole, so common, and so much prized in England, are seldom, if ever, caught on our coasts; but we get an abundant supply of lobsters, oysters, and clams.

555. If the reader is fond of bigger fish and larger stories, I must ask him to pay me a visit, and I will then tell him tales of whales, grampuses, sharks,

thrashers, sword-fishes, and other princes of the deep; all of which frequent our republican shores. I will also give him an account of the sea serpent, in which I am a firm believer.

556. As to those beautiful little inhabitants of the bright rivulet and crystal lake, (such as trout, perch, bream, shiners, suckers, pike, and the like,) we have a good supply, though I believe they are less in size, and less abundant, than in many parts of Europe.

557. In closing this article upon animals, it is proper to remark, that, at the present day, we have no quadrupeds on this continent, which can compare with several remarkable species in the other hemisphere. We have nothing like the elephant, camel, giraffe, rhinoceros, or hippopotamus.

558. In North America, we have no bird of the ostrich kind, though the rhea of South America bears a strong resemblance to the family. In North America, we have no monkeys or apes, nor have we any serpents which can compare with the anaconda and boa of other climes.

559. One thing must not be overlooked, that in this, as well as in other countries, the bones of certain animals that do not now exist are found

imbedded in the soil. Among these are the remains of a gigantic beast, of which several imperfect skeletons have been found in different parts of the United States.

560. To this the name of mammoth was at first given, it is now called *mastodon*. It must have much resembled the elephant, but was, at least, three times as large, and of different proportions. There may be reason to believe that this animal roamed in herds over this country, not very many centuries since. But its history must be left to conjecture. All we know is, that its bones are now found in many places, and we safely conclude that, at no very distant period, these bones were clothed with flesh, tied together by sinews, and endued with life.

561. There is reason to believe, also, that many other animals once existed in this country, of which the entire race is swept away. We are likewise assured, from the impressions of leaves imprinted on various substances, that vegetables, not now known in our climate, once flourished here.

XLIII. INDIANS.

ESQUIMAUX. ABORIGINES OF AMERICA.

562. WHEN Columbus discovered America, he imagined that it was a part of India. The islands, therefore, which he first visited, were called the *West Indies*, and the inhabitants were denominated *Indians*. This name was afterwards extended to the aborigines of the whole country, and it is preserved to the present day.

563. There are few things more debated than the origin and early history of these natives of the western continent. When discovered they were utterly destitute of a written language, and, having no books, they kept no records, except as events might vaguely descend by tradition from one generation to another.

564. The first questions usually asked in regard to them are, Whence did these people come? Were they created here, or did they migrate hither from some other quarter of the globe? These are inquiries to which the Indians themselves can furnish no reply.

565. We are, therefore, left entirely to conjecture. The most probable supposition appears to be, that the Indians came from different parts of Asia.

566. The Indians of the present day, cross Behring's straits in their canoes, and this may have been done in former ages as well as now. Besides this, the Indians bear a near resemblance to some of the inhabitants of Asia, particularly of the Asiatic islands. They have also certain manners and customs which bear an affinity to those of Eastern nations.



ESQUIMAUX.

567. But the Indians were not the only early inhabitants of America. When first discovered, its

aborigines might be divided into four great classes ;— the Esquimaux of the northern regions, who lived then, as now, chiefly by fishing ; the Indians, subsisting for the most part by hunting, and spread over the whole continent ; the Caribbee Indians of the West Indies ; and the more civilised Indians of Mexico and Peru.

568. As to the Esquimaux, who contrast so remarkably with Indians, it may be remarked, that they are a race of short stature, and appear, both in person and habits of life, to resemble the inhabitants of Lapland and the northern borders of Asia. It has been conjectured, not without probability, that these people are all of the same original stock.

569. The Caribs appear to have been very numerous in the West Indies ; and, at the period of their discovery, to have been leading a pacific life, and sustained by the bounties of a fertile soil, and a luxuriant climate. The Mexicans and Peruvians had made considerable progress in the arts ; they had built cities, constructed temples, and understood agriculture.

570. They were, though profuse in that of gold and silver, ignorant of the use of iron ; they had no knowledge of the plough ; and had no horses. It is

obvious, therefore, that whatever progress they had made in civilization, they were still comparatively a rude and ignorant people, yet their countries exhibit remains of great and wonderful works of art.

571. The tribes which occupied the territory which now belongs to the United States, were merely hunters. They had no towns, or cities, or permanent abodes; and almost the only arts they possessed were those which enabled them to construct wigwams, or huts of sticks covered with turf; to convert the skins of wild animals into rude clothing; to make paints of red and yellow earth for decorating their persons; to make weapons of war, such as bows with strings twisted from the sinews of the deer, and arrows headed with pieces of flint; war-clubs, and tomahawks, which last were hatchets with heads of stone. Their only instruments for cutting were sharp pieces of stone or flint.

572. Some of the tribes had a rude knowledge of pottery, and constructed a few earthen vessels, which were baked in the sun, or perhaps in fire.

573. In war, they fought with bows and arrows, and clubs. They practised every species of art in their attempts to surprise their enemy, or escape from them. Some of them rarely erected fortifica-

tions or intrenchments of any kind; the wild forest, the deep valley, and the rocky precipice, affording them their only defences and retreats. Others had strong stockades, which the first English settlers denominated castles, and the French, in Canada, *villes*, or towns, and which passed with their English translators for cities.

574. The tribes were usually small, and they never composed large armies. It was uncommon for several tribes to combine, and a thousand warriors rarely met in battle. Their custom was not, as in civilized countries, for two armies to take the field, and fairly fight. Their art of war was ruder, and bloodier, and full of stratagem and treachery.

575. When an attack was resolved upon against a neighbouring tribe, preparations were made in secret. Care was taken to lull the enemy into security. Perhaps an unusual display of amity was made; but while these steps were taking, the warriors were preparing for the attack.

576. The quiver was filled with arrows, straightened and polished with care, skilfully pointed with flint, and nicely feathered. The best bow was chosen, and the string examined. The war-club; and the flint scalping-knife, were duly prepared. The persons

of the warriors were painted with hideous emblems, and attired in such a fashion as to render them as frightful as possible; for it was a great part of their scheme to carry sudden terror into the breast of their enemy.

577. Thus equipped, they departed on their bloody errand. Choosing the hour of night, and seeking the shelter of the forest, their march was at once rapid and as stealthy as the creeping of the panther. They usually contrived to approach the wigwams of their enemies a little before daybreak, that is, during the hours of deepest sleep.

578. Dispersing themselves in such a manner as to make a united assault, the fell war-cry burst at once from a hundred voices; the wigwams were then entered, and the astonished inmates were slaughtered without mercy. There was no pity for defenceless woman nor for helpless childhood. These were beat down and massacred, as if they had been reptiles.

579. Stimulated by the sight of blood, roused almost to a pitch of insanity by the wail of the wounded and the despairing, the warriors flew from hut to hut, yelling like fiends, and striving to see which should outdo the other in the work of death.

580. But the attack was seldom made without

fierce resistance. Men living the life of savages, trained by custom to exist in perpetual danger, soon recover from sudden panic; and though attacked at



INDIAN WAR PARTY.

an unexpected hour, and waked from deep repose by the voice of their enemy, already at their doors, they spring to their feet, snatch their ready weapons, and, with hearts nerved to the effort, plant themselves foot to foot, and eye to eye, before their assailants.

581. Then comes the dash of the war-club and the death-grapple. It is not easy to give the full picture of these scenes. In the fierce story of human warfare, there is nothing more terrible than these Indian battles. It sometimes happened that nearly a whole tribe was exterminated in a single night; yet more frequently, these attacks resulted only in the murder of a few women and children, and a few warriors on either side.

582. So violent, however were these wars, and they were attended with so many circumstances of a nature calculated to make deep impressions, that, when strife had taken place between two tribes, a state of friendship seldom subsisted between them afterwards. Even if peace was agreed upon by the chiefs, the torch of war was again too easily lighted between them.

583. One remarkable custom prevailed among the Indians. Whenever a warrior slew his enemy, he cut off the skin of the skull, called the *scalp*. This was a trophy intended to prove the number of his slain enemies. He, therefore, who accumulated most scalps in his wigwam was most honoured of the warriors.

584. I have heard a curious story connected with this custom. During the old French war, an Indian

slew a Frenchman who wore a wig. The warrior stooped down and seized the hair for the purpose of securing the scalp. To his great astonishment, the wig came off, leaving the head bare. The Indian held it up, and examining it with great wonder, exclaimed, in broken English, "Dat one big lie!" meaning—That is a false thing;—false hair!

XLIV. INDIANS, CONTINUED.

585. WAR and the chase were the great businesses of life among the Indians; and he who was most successful in these pursuits was most esteemed among the people.

586. When a young Indian wooed a wife, he did not seek to display a small foot, a lily hand, a graceful bow, or nice discretion in the arts of the tailor. He did not feel that it would aid his suit to be esteemed the best dressed man among his fellows, nor did he plume himself upon possessing money, lands, or bank stock. But he told the maiden what he had done in hunting or battle. He told her how he had slain the deer with his arrow, and how he had triumphed over the shaggy bear by skill or strength.

587. He told her how he had pursued his enemy ; how he had raised the war-cry in his camp at night ; how he had slain his women and his children ; how he had met the painted warrior in personal conflict ; and he laid at her feet a string of bloody scalps to attest his achievements. It was by such tales as these, that the Indian suitor sought to win the love of the Indian maiden.

588. Nor was this altogether unreasonable. A woman wants protection ; and, in a rude state of society, he who possesses a stout heart, a vigorous frame, and a bold hand, can best afford it. Woman, too, is apt to admire those qualities which bring renown ; and he who would gain her favour, cannot do better than show her that he has those qualities.

589. The food of the Indians consisted of the flesh of deer, bears, squirrels, wild turkeys, and birds of various kinds. Those who lived in the regions of the wild oxen, fed largely on the flesh of those beasts. They were slain with arrows, and the ancient hunters had so much skill, that they could strike down their game with wonderful certainty. In the present day, they pursue them on horseback, and with rifle-guns.

590. They fed also upon fish, usually taking them with spears, though they also caught them with

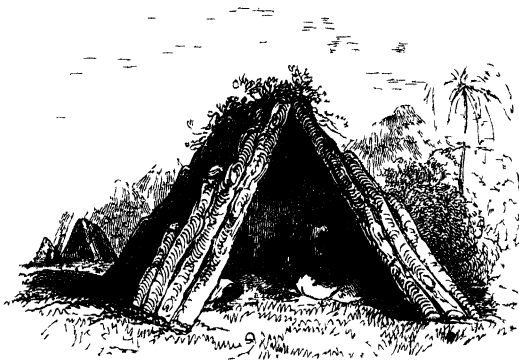
hooks made of bones. The hunting and fishing were done by the men. The women attended to household duties, and cultivated a little corn, and beans, and a few pumpkins; this was the whole extent of Indian agriculture.

591. The corn was sometimes eaten raw, either green or dry, after being pounded. The meat was sometimes dried in the sun, and sometimes boiled in a hollowed stone vessel, the water being heated by putting hot stones into it. The young corn was sometimes cut from the cob or ear, and boiled with the meat, and with beans, thus making a kind of broth called *succotash*.

592. The furniture of the wigwams was very simple. There were no chairs, no sideboards, no mahogany tables, no sofas, no marble mantel-pieces. The beds consisted merely of skins and furs. The inmates sat upon the ground; they usually took the meat in their fingers, and ate from the stone dish in which the food was cooked.

593. Sometimes they used misshapen spoons, rudely cut out of wood; and they had trenchers made in a similar manner. The fire was built on the ground, without a chimney, the smoke passing off through an opening in the top, or through the door.

All after the manner of the ancient world, and as among ourselves, almost to this day.



INDIAN WIGWAM, OR HUT.

594. They had no books among them ; there was no Bible, no Spelling Book in which they might learn to read ; no House that Jack Built, and no Mother Goose's Tales for the little Indian boys and girls. There was no church in which they might worship ; they knew no Sabbath ; they gave no names to the days of the week ; they counted months only by the waxing and waning of the moon, and they numbered years only by the return of the seasons.

595. They had never heard of Christ, or of that God who has taught mankind to be kind one to another, to love truth, to hate a lie, and to do to another as we would have another do to us. They believed in a Great Spirit, whom they sometimes called *Manitto*, and master of life, to whom they addressed, as they still address, all prayers and thanks and praises. They believed in evil demons, and these they sought to appease by absurd ceremonies.

596. They also believed firmly in a future existence, and fancied that those who excelled in the chase, who displayed courage in war, and who slew many enemies in battle, would, after death, pass into a beautiful country, where they might spend an eternity in the renewal of the chase, and other earthly pleasures.

597. Such was the state of the Indian tribes, occupying that portion of North America which now belongs to the United States. So they lived from year to year, and so they doubtless had lived for ages before our forefathers came to this country. They seemed not to improve in their condition; one generation followed another, and there was no advance made towards civilization.

598. And what was the reason? I think I can tell you in few words. They held all property in common; the houses, the lands, the utensils, belonged to the whole tribe, and were not divided among individuals as among us. Now, it has always been found, that where property is held in this way, the people do not improve.

599. A man will not work hard to till the land, to build a good house, or make anything that is excellent, if, when done, it is not his own. There is no inducement, therefore, to industry or excellence, where property is held in common, where it belongs to any body or every body, and where the produce of a man's labour, skill, and invention, does not belong to himself.

600. I beg my young readers to remember this; for they will thus perceive that nothing is more important to mankind than the institution of property, and those laws which secure to a man what he has justly acquired. Never take from another what belongs to him! Never do anything, even when grown to manhood, which tends to weaken the protection afforded to property by the law: and never encourage fantastic theories of which you may hear, about men living in common; or about equal dis-

tribution of goods. Other reasons, however, are to be sought for, why these Indians never advanced beyond holding their lands in common.

XLV. INDIANS, CONTINUED.

INDIAN ANTIQUITIES.

601. I HAVE already told you that the Indians or red men of this country were probably the descendants of Asiatic tribes. But their early story is for ever lost. How eagerly soever we may strive to peep behind the veil of years, and discover what may there have happened, it is all in vain.

602. Yet in travelling through the great valley of the Mississippi, we meet with mounds of earth, evidently thrown up by the hand of man. Some of them are of great extent, and considerable elevation, and it might at first seem, that these would shed some light upon the history of the past. But the present Indians know nothing of their origin, and seem to imagine that they were constructed by nations who occupied the land before they or their fathers possessed it.

603. In Tennessee, there are a great many of

these mounds, some of which are ten feet high, and fifty feet wide at the bottom. In the western part of Virginia, a few miles from Wheeling, and near the Ohio, is a mound seventy feet in height, and forty rods in circumference.

604. In the north-eastern part of Alabama, near the Etowee River, there is a still more remarkable structure of the same kind. The height is seventy-five feet, and its circumference one thousand one hundred and fourteen feet.

605. Like most of these works which have been discovered, this tumulus is covered with forest-trees, some of them measuring twelve feet in diameter. This proves that it must have been erected many centuries ago.

606. Besides these mounds, which are usually circular, and appear like hills, in the form of pyramids, other artificial structures have been discovered. Near Marietta, in Ohio, are some very remarkable works. These consist of walls and mounds of earth. In one place there is an area of forty acres, enclosed by an eathern rampart six or eight feet in height, and twenty-five to thirty-six feet thick at the base. Within this is a high platform of earth. Near this structure is a mound of a regular shape, thirty feet

high, and three hundred and fifty in circumference at the base.

607. The town of Circleville, in Ohio, has received its name from a circular wall or parapet of earth, which appears to have been constructed ages since. Now, I suppose, my young readers would be glad to know who reared these structures, when they were erected, and for what purpose? I should be glad to answer these queries, but it is impossible to answer them with any certainty. The following observations, however, may give some assistance in attempting to penetrate the obscurity which hangs over the subject.

608. These mounds and walls occur in various places throughout the valley of the Mississippi, and in no other part of the country, except that there are some smaller works of the kind in the western part of the state of New York. On opening some of the mounds or tumuli, they have been found to contain human bones. This affords reason to believe that they were all erected as burial-places for the dead. These sepulchral mounds have belonged to the usages of all nations, and are to be met with in every part of the habitable globe.

609. Some of the western tribes bury their dead

at the present day in a similar manner. If they rear only smaller mounds, it is probably because the existing tribes are less numerous than those which once occupied the country.

610. As to the walls or parapets, it is very likely they were built for defence, and answered the purpose of forts. It is probable that, previous to the conquest of Mexico by the Spaniards, the western Indians might have held some intercourse with the Mexicans, and derived from them a few arts. Or tribes living on the borders of Mexico may have migrated from time to time, and settled in different parts of the great valley of the Mississippi, carrying with them some adherences to Mexican manners and customs.

611. Either of these conjectures will enable us to account for these monuments of antiquity. The tribes who erected them may have been swept away by war, famine, or pestilence, and the remnants of the tribes might have been too few in numbers, and too unsettled in their condition, to imitate these works of skill and labour which were produced by their ancestors. Thus you see that a little observation and a little guessing, will possibly enable us to unfold the mystery of these Indian wonders. But whether we

have actually found the truth, is still a matter of some doubt.

612. While the history of the Indians prior to the settlement of this country by our European fathers is wrapped in uncertainty, we are able to trace their story since that period with little difficulty. You already know that the Indians within the present boundary of the United States were divided into a great many small tribes. Each of these tribes seemed to speak a different language.

613. But, on examination, it was found that many of them closely resembled each other. Thus it appears that all the tribes of New England, New York, and the Middle States, spoke dialects of the Algonquin or Chippewa language; and hence it is inferred that these were all of the same original stock.

614. Some of these tribes were the Penobscots of Maine; the Natick and Marshpee tribes of Massachusetts; the Narragansetts of Rhode Island; the Mohicans and Pequots of Connecticut; the Iroquois or Five Nations of New York, or, as they were formerly called of Canada, for their part of New York was formerly part of Canada; consisting of the Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas, Senecas, and

Cayugas; to these, add also the Tuscanonaş, making the whole six nations; and the Delawares of Pennsylvania and Delaware.

615. The southern Indians appeared to speak dialects of another language, which has been called, from Florida, the Floridian. Of these there were a great many tribes; the Creeks, Choctaws, Chickasaws, Cherokees, and Seminoles, being the principal.

616. The western Indians spoke dialects of the Dahcotah language. The principal tribes were the Winnebagoes, Otoes, Ioways, Missouriis, Assinniboins, Omahaws, Cansas, Dahcotahs, and Osages. Thus you perceive that all these Indians, divided into several hundred small tribes, may be classed into three great families—the first, the Chippewa family; the second, the Floridian family; and the third, the Dahcotah family.

617. I cannot now tell you the long story of these tribes. It is enough for the present to say, that the various Chippewa tribes, which filled the forests of New England and the Middle States, have perished on the land, save a few miserable remnants, that still linger upon the soil where their fathers dwelt. But they are degraded, and fast diminishing, and the places that now know them will soon know them no

more. A few scattered tribes of the Chippewa family, as the Sacs and Foxes, and some others, still roam in freedom on the far borders of the western lakes.

618. The fate of the southern Indians has been protracted to a later date, but destruction is marching close at their heels. They have recently made desperate struggles for liberty; but their strife has been in vain, and they are about to be exterminated or removed from the home of their fathers.

619. But various Algonquin tribes still dwell in the broad valley of the Mississippi; but these too have shared in the adverse fortunes of the red man. They have been driven westward, inch by inch, and, now, are to be found only to the west of the Mississippi. Many of them dwell upon the plains or prairies of the Missouri and its branches, and some occupy the broad valleys that sweep along the western feet of the Rocky Mountains.

620. They have all learned the use of the rifle, though the bow and arrow are not wholly laid aside. Since the wild horses have multiplied, many of them have become expert horsemen. They live upon the flesh of the wild oxen and deer, and instead of wearing the skins of wild animals, exchange these with

the fur traders for blankets, beads, knives, guns, rifles, powder, and ball. They also obtain intoxicating liquors, and these bring upon them the most dreadful evils.

621. Besides the south-western Indians of the Algonquin stock, there are others that cannot be classed in any of the three great families we have mentioned. Among these are the Pawnees, Blackfeet, Crows, Manitarees, and Mandans, who live far up the Missouri, and even towards its distant sources in the Rocky Mountains.

622. There are also the Shoshonees, who are fierce warriors and bold horsemen, occupying the mountainous regions between the head-waters of the Missouri and Columbia Rivers. To the west of the Rocky Mountains, on the banks of the Columbia, and along the shores of the Pacific, there are still other tribes; but I need not fill my page with their hard names, and their country, as I have said, is not yet acknowledged to belong to the United States.

XLVI. CIVIL AND POLITICAL DIVISIONS.

STATES AND TERRITORIES. PARTICULAR POPULATION OF EACH STATE AND CAPITAL. ARMY AND NAVY OF THE UNITED STATES.

623. I HAVE now given you a very brief account of what may be called the natural or physical geography of the whole territory of the United States. I have told you of the Mountains, Rivers, Valleys, Lakes, Animals, and Original Inhabitants.

624. Thus I have presented a view of the country, and its contents, as formed by nature. I now propose to give a slight sketch of its civil or political geography. In this I shall tell you not of the works of nature, but of the works of man.

625. I shall tell you how the country is divided into States; I shall give you an account of some of the principal Cities, Towns, Railroads, and Canals; I shall tell you of the Commerce, Agriculture, Fisheries, Manufactures, and other sources of wealth, and branches of public industry. Having spoken of these, and a few other matters, I shall proceed to give you an outline of the civil and political history of our country, from the time it was first settled by white people.

626. The United States consist of twenty-six States and four Territories. In my fifth and sixth sections, I have told my young readers about the three Territories of Oregon, Wisconsin, and Florida; and the fourth is the small but important Territory, usually called the district of Columbia, upon the river Potomac, of which I shall presently have much to say.

627. The annexed table, will show you the names of these States and Territories, and the Extent, Population, Capital City or Town, number of members of Congress, and the time of admission into the Union, of each State; with some other notice of the Territories, and of the District of Columbia.

628. You will observe from this table, that Virginia is the most extensive of the twenty-six states, that New York has the greatest population, that Rhode Island is the smallest in extent, and that Arkansas has the smallest population.

629. You will notice that thirteen of the States, existed and acted together in the time of the revolution, because these are marked with stars. They then were united almost fifty years ago, while the additional thirteen have become members at different subsequent periods.

STATES, TERRITORIES, POPULATION, ETC. 241

	Extent in Miles.	Population.	No. of Reps. in Con- gress.	Date of Admission into the Union.	Capital.	Popu- lation in 1830.
EASTERN STATES.						
Maine	35,000	399,955	8	1820	Augusta	3,080
New Hampshire	9,491	269,328	5	*	Concord	3,727
Vermont	8,000	280,652	5	1791	Montpelier . . .	1,193
Massachusetts	7,900	610,408	12	*	Boston	61,392
Rhode Island	1,225	97,199	2	*	Providence, &c.	
Connecticut	4,764	297,675	6	*	New Haven and Hartford.	
MIDDLE STATES.						
New York	46,085	1,918,608	40	*	Albany	24,238
New Jersey	8,320	320,823	6	*	Trenton	3,925
Pennsylvania	47,000	1,348,233	28	*	Harrisburg . . .	4,311
Delaware	2,100	76,748	1	*	Dover	4,316
Maryland	9,356	447,040	8	*	Annapolis	2,623
SOUTHERN STATES.						
Virginia	70,000	1,211,405	21	*	Richmond	10,060
North Carolina	50,000	737,987	13	*	Raleigh	1,700
South Carolina	33,000	581,185	9	*	Columbia	3,310
Georgia	62,000	516,823	9	*	Milledgeville . .	1,600
Alabama	51,770	309,527	5	1819	Tuscaloosa	2,000
Mississippi	48,000	136,621	2	1817	Jackson	
Louisiana	48,320	215,730	3	1812	New Orleans . . .	46,300
WESTERN STATES.						
Tennessee	45,000	681,903	13	1796	Nashville	5,566
Kentucky	40,000	687,917	13	1792	Frankfort	1,682
Ohio	44,000	937,903	19	1802	Columbus	2,437
Indiana	36,400	343,031	7	1816	Indianapolis . . .	1,200
Illinois	55,000	157,445	3	1818	Vandalia	500
Missouri	64,000	140,455	2	1821	Jefferson	
Arcansas	55,000	30,388	1	1837	Little Rock	
Michigan	60,000	31,639	1	1837	Detroit	2,220
TERRITORIES, ETC.						
District of Columbia	100	39,834			Washington . . .	18,827
Florida	50,000	30,836			Tallahassee . . .	1,000
Wisconsin.						
Oregon.						

630. The United States are often spoken of under four subdivisions, namely, the Eastern, Middle, Southern, and Western. The table will show you the States belonging to each of the four subdivisions. Each State has a capital, or seat of government. This capital is not always the largest town in the State; for you will observe that Albany is the capital of the State of New York, though it is not a tenth part as large as the city of New York. So, in Pennsylvania, Harrisburg is the capital, though but one fortieth as large as Philadelphia. In the annexed table, I have given you the Population of the several States and of the several Capitals in the year 1830. No doubt since that time, these have increased, but no later census has been taken. The following is a later account which has fallen in my way, regarding six only of our States :

Name.	Population.	No. of Towns.	Town Population.	Governors' Salaries, in English Money.
Maine	512,000	.. 18 ..	87,700 ..	£320
Vermont	322,000	.. 6 ..	18,500 ..	160
New York	2,456,000	.. 25 ..	490,000 ..	850
New Hampshire	201,000	.. 6 ..	27,200 ..	212
Pennsylvania	1,764,000	.. 30 ..	316,000 ..	850
Ohio	1,405,000	.. 13 ..	76,000 ..	250
Totals	<u>6,660,000</u>	<u>98</u>	<u>1,015,400</u>	<u>£2,642</u>

XLVII. THE SEAT OF GOVERNMENT.

631. I SUPPOSE you have heard of the District of Columbia. This is a territory ten miles square, situated upon the river Potomac, between the states of Maryland and Virginia. It was ceded to the Union by Virginia. If you ever see this place, you will find that it contains the city of Washington, Georgetown, and the city of Alexandria.

632. Washington will strike you as altogether a very singular-looking place. Instead of being compactly built together, like other cities, it appears like the fragments of a great city separated from each other, and scattered over a large space.

633. If you begin at one end of the town, you will find a large cluster of buildings, such as if they belonged to New York or Boston. You will then move to a considerable distance without meeting a single house ; after which you will meet with another cluster of tall buildings, looking like a piece of a city, and then you will come to another space. Thus you will proceed for two miles, alternately meeting with city-like groups of houses and hotels, and broad, open spaces of grass, forest trees, and wooden fences, without a single building. Meanwhile, if you consult

the engraved map of the city, you find every foot of ground laid out and named in streets and squares.

634. At the eastern part of the city, you will observe a magnificent edifice, built of light-coloured stone, with the flag of the United States flying at



THE CAPITOL.

the top. This is called the Capitol. Here Congress meets, and here the Supreme Court of the United States holds its sessions.

635. Before you enter this splendid edifice, I advise you to stop a moment, and look around upon the prospect. The scene is indeed beautiful. A wide valley lies before you, presenting a variety of interesting objects to the view. To the south flows the Potomac, and on its margin you can see the Navy-yard, where there are several ships-of-war. To the west lies the built part of the city, divided by a broad passage called Pennsylvania Avenue. When viewed from this point, Washington loses that broken aspect which I have described, and appears like a splendid city.

636. If you look beyond the city, you will observe that the valley is bounded by a range of hills, some of which are adorned with country villas and houses. On entering the Capitol, you will, at first, be lost and confounded amidst a great variety of staircases, archways, and rotundas.

637. After wandering about in a wilderness of rooms, you will discover that there are three principal apartments in this great edifice. The largest and finest is called the Representatives' Hall; and here the representatives meet every winter, to afford their services in law and government.

638. In another part of the building, you will find

the Senate Chamber, where the Senators assemble also to assist in making laws. In another part of the building, you will find a room devoted to the Supreme Court.

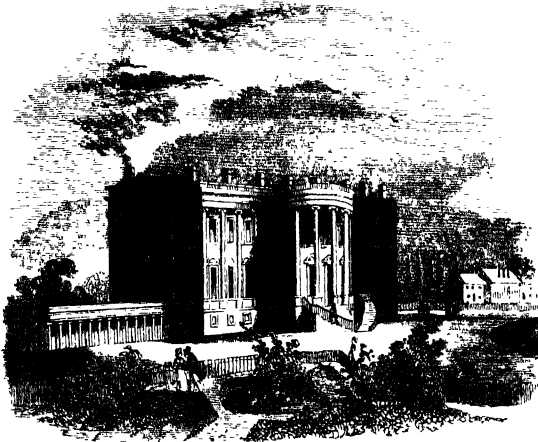
639. If you should chance to visit this building in the winter season, you will find the Capitol full of people. You will find two or three hundred members of Congress in the Representatives' Hall, and, if you wait a sufficient time, you will hear plenty of long speeches.

640. You will also find about fifty Senators in the Senate Chamber; you will find five or six Judges in the Supreme Court room; and, besides all these persons, you will meet with as many more, some passing hither and thither, and some watching the proceedings, in each of the several apartments I have described.

641. After leaving the Capitol, you should proceed for a mile along the wide avenue I have mentioned, when you will come to a handsome white house. Here you will find the President of the United States.

642. You must carry a letter, or get somebody to introduce you to him, and having done this, you may tell him that old Peter Parley has advised you to

pay him a visit, and ask him to tell you all about the Government, and how he contrives to manage the



PRESIDENT'S HOUSE.

affairs of such a great country? Be not afraid to ask him questions, for he is a pleasant gentleman, and will treat you kindly.

643. Perhaps the President will invite you to one of his Levees, and, in that case I advise you to go. It will be held on an evening, and you will see at least five hundred people. The President will re-

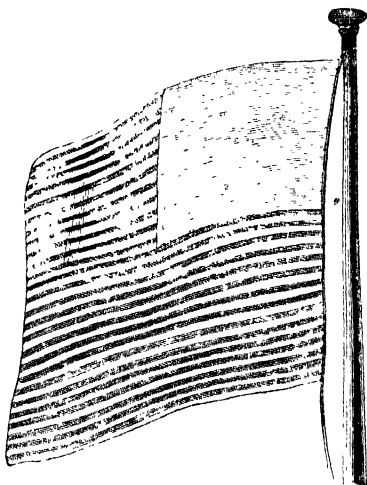
ceive you and them in his best suite of rooms, which are very handsome. One of these rooms is very large, and of a circular form.

644. You must have some friend with you, to explain every thing you see, and tell you the names of the people. You will see generals of the army, these will be distinguished by golden epaulettes on their shoulders. They have fought battles with the British and the Indians. You will also observe some hard stout-looking gentlemen, decked with epaulettes, and wearing dirks or daggers at their sides. These are commodores of the navy, who have seen bloody service upon the sea.

645. You will remark certain gray-haired gentlemen, of a solemn aspect, with stars upon the left breast. These are ambassadors, sent from foreign countries, to manage important affairs with the President. Besides these celebrated personages you will probably see Mr. Clay, Mr. Calhoun, Mr. Benton, and other distinguished men of the United States. You will also observe a large mixture of handsome ladies, with the usual proportion of fops and dandies.

646. After staying about a week in Washington you will begin to understand why that city is called the capital of the United States. It is the seat of

government, or the Capital City, but you must distinguish between the *Capital*, and the *Capitol*. You will perceive that here Congress meets; that here the president lives, who presides over the affairs of the country; you will see, in short, that this is the place where all the general affairs of this considerable nation are carried forward.



FLAG OF THE UNITED STATES.

XLVIII. THE GENERAL GOVERNMENT.

647. I SUPPOSE my young readers know that no family can live comfortably together without some one to govern them. If there is no father or mother to punish those who are naughty and wicked, to reward those who behave well, and thus keep the household in order, the whole will become a scene of uproar and confusion.

648. The same thing would happen to a nation if there was no one to rule over it. If there were no laws, or nobody to put them in force, the strong men would rob the weak of their possessions; the cunning would deceive the simple, and thus a large part of the community would become the victims of injustice, cruelty, and crime.

649. To prevent these evils, and to render each man secure in the possession of his life and his property, the people establish a form, or constitution of government. This provides for the election of people who shall make laws, and for others who shall see that those laws are executed.

650. The Constitution of Government of the

United States was framed by a Convention of the States assembled at Philadelphia, soon after the successful conclusion of the war of separation from Great Britain; and this went into operation in 1789, since when it has continued in uninterrupted force.

651. This constitution provides for three branches in the government, as in the government of Great Britain; but all of which three branches are here elective. Congress consists of two bodies, called the senate, or upper house, and the house of representatives, or lower house. These two houses meet in the Capitol at Washington, every winter, to make laws for the country as I have before told you.

652. The senate consists of two members sent from each of the twenty-six states, appointed by the several state legislatures. These hold the office for six years.

653. The duty of the President who is at the head of the government, is to see that the business of government is executed throughout the whole country, according to the laws made by Congress.

654. The Judiciary branch consists of several judges, whose duty it is to explain and apply the laws of Congress. By this I mean, that if two

persons get into a dispute, the case is brought before these judges, and after a full examination of the facts and the law, the court decide how the matter ought to be settled between the two contending parties.

655. The members of the house of representatives are chosen by the people of the several states ; every forty-seven thousand inhabitants being entitled to one member. Thus the large states send more than the small ones. New-York, for instance, has forty members ; while Rhode-Island has but two. The table, at page 241, will show you how many members are sent by each state. These, you will recollect, are chosen for two years.

656. The process of making a law is this :— Some member brings what is called a bill, either before the house of representatives, or the senate. It is there discussed. If a majority agree to it, it is then sent to the other house, and there discussed. If a majority agree to it, it is sent to the president, and, when he has signed it, it becomes a law.

657. Now let me remind you, that there are probably at this time fourteen millions of people in the United States, either free or slaves. It is for the government of this vast family, that these laws are made. If they are good, the people will be made happy ; if

they are bad, the people will be made miserable. How important it is, then, that these law-makers should be good and wise men! In my fourth section, I have spoken more particularly of the amount and description of our population, slave and free.

XLIX. THE GENERAL GOVERNMENT,

CONTINUED.

658. I HAVE said that the President is the Head of the Government, and I need not tell you that he has plenty of business on his hands. He is assisted by Four Secretaries, composing a council, which, after the Cabinet Council of Great Britain, is called the Cabinet. One of these is called the Secretary of State, another Secretary of the Treasury, another Secretary of War, and another Secretary of the Navy. The President is also assisted by a Post-master-General, and an Attorney-General.

659. While at Washington, you will observe four large buildings, near the President's house, called the Four Departments. Suppose you pay a visit to the Department of State. This building you will find to contain several rooms. In one of them you

will find the Secretary of State, whose chief business is with the foreign affairs, so that, to this extent, at least, his duties resemble those of the Secretary for Foreign Affairs in Great Britain.

660. You will find him busily engaged in looking over papers, many of which consist of letters sent by ambassadors and other foreign agents of the United States from all the principal countries in the world, telling how affairs are going on there.

661. If you go to the other rooms in the Department, you will see a great number of clerks engaged in writing, and you will soon come to the conclusion that the Secretary of State, in superintending the various affairs of this department, has quite enough to do.

662. Suppose you now pay a visit to the Treasury Department. Here, too, you will find a busy scene. You must remember that a great deal of money is wanted to carry on the affairs of Government. The President is paid twenty-five thousand dollars a year for his services; the Secretaries are each paid six thousand dollars a year for their services; the members of Congress are each paid eight dollars a day for their services.

663. Beside all this, the expenses of the Army and

the Navy are to be paid; the expenses of ten thousand Post-offices are to be paid; in short, there are probably two hundred thousand persons in the employment of the Government, all of whom are to be paid. In this way, the expenses of the Government amount to about twenty millions of dollars a year.

664. And how do you suppose such a vast sum of money is obtained? In two ways. First, from the sale of wild and western lands, purchased from the Indians, or from France, or Spain, or taken in warfare, of which the government own many millions of acres; and, secondly, by duties laid upon articles of merchandise brought from foreign countries, and collected at the custom-houses. The General Federal Government has no sources of revenue but these, and can create no other; for all taxes and internal levies in the United States, proceed from, and are appropriated by the State Governments.

665. You know that a great many vessels are employed in bringing sugar and coffee from the West Indies; knives and forks, calicoes, gingham, flannels, woollen cloths, fowling-pieces, locks, saws, lamps, and other things, from England; silks, watches, clocks, and jewellery, from France; wines from Sicily; figs from Smyrna; teas from China; and a

great variety of other articles from different parts of the world.

666. Now, when a vessel arrives with any of these things from a foreign country, they are taken to the custom-house, and the duty that has been fixed by Congress, is there paid upon them. The money thus collected passes into the Treasury of the United States; and thus, from the duties on imported goods, and from the sale of public lands, the twenty millions of dollars wanted by the government is procured.

667. Now, it is the business of the Secretary of the Treasury to watch over the collecting of this vast sum of money, and the paying of it out to the various persons employed by the Government.

668. The Secretary of War takes care of the affairs of the army. This consists, in time of peace, of five or six thousand men, who are distributed throughout the various fortifications, navy-yards, and military posts, in the United States.

669. The Secretary of the Navy superintends the various ships belonging to the government. You will find him, as well as the secretary of war, full of business.

670. The Postmaster General is charged with the

superintendence of the post-offices throughout the United States. If you write a letter at Boston to a friend at New Orleans, and just drop it into the post-office, you know that it will reach your friend, at the distance of fifteen hundred miles, in about a fortnight.

671. What an admirable contrivance is this, by which you can send your thoughts and feelings to a distance, in a manner, too, that no one can know them, but he to whom they are addressed !

672. It is by means of the various post-offices throughout the towns of the United States, that we are able to know what is going on in every part of the country. It is by these that business is transacted between persons living hundreds of miles from each other ; it is by these that friends, who are thousands of miles apart, may hold communion one with another. You will not doubt that the postmaster-general has enough to do to watch over this wonderful machinery, of the post-office.

673. Such are the departments at Washington. They will enable you to understand that the business of governing a great nation like ours is a vast concern ; and as it is the duty of the president to watch over all these matters, you will readily see that he

must be a man of great knowledge and great industry, in order to the faithful and successful discharge of his important duties.

674. You will, perhaps, like to know how a man is made President of the United States. The people choose a number of electors in each state, and these choose the President. He is elected for four years. There is nothing in the provisions of our Constitution of Government, to prevent the same man being re-elected every four years, even through all his life. Excepting John, and John Quincy Adams (father and son) every President has been re-elected at the end of his first four years; that is, he has filled the office eight years. I have told you how the members of Congress are chosen. The president appoints his secretaries, the Postmaster-general, Envoys to foreign courts, and many other public officers; but it is necessary that the Senate shall approve these appointments.

L. THE STATE GOVERNMENTS.

675. I HAVE just been telling you of the general, or national government, the seat of which is at Washington. But you know that our country consists of

twenty-six different states, and each of these has a government of its own.

676. This may seem a sort of puzzle at first, but it is easily understood by a little study. You have only to bear in mind that the general government has charge of certain great matters, in which all are interested. The chief of these are the army, navy, commerce, and the post-office. The other concerns are managed by the state governments.

677. Thus it is that the people of each state choose a governor, and certain persons to make laws for them, and judges are appointed to expound the law. Thus the government of each state is divided into the executive, the legislative, and the judicial, departments.

678. The governor is at the head of the executive department, and it is his duty to superintend public affairs in the state, and see that every thing goes on according to the laws. The legislature is the law-making power, and consists of a senate and house of representatives, chosen by the people.

679. The judicial department consists of various judges, who hold their courts at different places, to try men who have been guilty of crimes, and to settle disputes which arise between different individuals.

In order to enable you to understand the operation of the state government, I will tell you a story.

680. One night, a man was riding through a forest alone. It was rather dark, but still he was able to perceive two men standing by the road-side. As he came up, they seized the horse's bridle, pulled the man to the ground, and robbed him of his watch and all his money. They then ran away as fast as they could.

681. The man was a good deal bruised, but he went to the next town and told what had happened. Several of the people immediately set out in pursuit of the robbers. Early in the morning, two men were found in the forest, near where the robbery had been committed. They were seized, and, after a slight examination, they were committed to prison, to await their trial.

682. After a few weeks, the judges met in the court-house, and twelve men, called *jurors*, were selected from the people. The two prisoners were then brought before the court, and called upon to plead guilty, or not guilty. The man who had been robbed told his story, and said that these two men appeared to be the robbers, but he could not certainly tell, for the night was very dark. The persons who

seized the prisoners were then examined, and they testified that they found the man's watch, and his pocket-book full of money, in the possession of the prisoners.

683. These facts convinced the jury that they were the robbers, and accordingly they brought in a verdict of guilty. The judge then pronounced their sentence, which was that they should be imprisoned for ten years, and work hard all the time.

684. Now, I have told you this story to make you understand several things. The laws of the land forbid such crimes as robbery, murder, &c. If any person commits any of these crimes, the law requires that he shall be seized, tried, condemned, and punished. Thus you see that the law makes it very dangerous for one person to do injury to another; and thus acts of injustice and cruelty are seldom practised.

685. It is in this way that the law becomes a protection to the people. It is in this way that a man is enabled to feel secure in the possession of his house, his lands, his money, his goods, and his property generally. If there were no law, every thing would be in a state of confusion; no person's property would be safe. The strong man would rob the

weak man, and violence would take the place of justice.

686. There are some other things which I wish you to remark. In the first place, remember that no man is condemned until he has had a fair trial before a court. In the second place, remember that a court for the trial of most cases consists of the judges and a jury of twelve men. The duty of the jury is to hear the evidence, and determine the fact whether the person is guilty or not. When the verdict is rendered, it is the duty of the judge to decide what punishment the law prescribes for the crime.

687. But it is not the only business of government to provide for the punishment of felons. The roads upon which we travel from one place to another, the court-houses, school-houses, and many other things, are constructed by order of the government.

688. In order to manage the affairs of the states with more ease, they are divided into counties. Each county has a court-house, a court, and a prison. There are also county officers, to attend to the roads and other matters. In the Northern and Middle States, the counties are subdivided into towns, the officers of which take charge of the schools, the paupers, and other local interests.

689. Now, I suppose my young readers think that all this story about government and laws is very stupid, and perhaps they feel it to be of no concern to them. But let me tell them, that, if it were not for the government and the laws, they would not be secure of a home; their father's house might be taken from them by violence; they could not at evening sit down by the pleasant fireside, and feel secure and happy under the protection of their parents.

690. If it were not for the laws, there would be no schools to instruct youth to read and write, there would be no pleasant roads, and they would not be permitted, as they are now, to go to church on a Sunday, and worship God according to the faith of their fathers. Do not refuse, therefore, to study these dull chapters, for I assure you that young people are as much interested in government as others.

LI. GENERAL REMARKS ON GOVERNMENT.

691. IN order to understand our own country, it is well to compare it with others. You will observe that here the government and laws are formed by the people, or by persons of their choice; the officers

who administer the government are also elected by the people. Ours is therefore, a republican government, which is supposed to be better than any other, because it is adapted to promote the happiness of all.

692. In most other countries, the government is not formed by the people generally, but by a few persons. A king is placed at the head, the people having nothing to do with his election. When a king dies, his eldest son usually succeeds him, and he reigns till death. This species of government is called a monarchy.

693. The nations of Europe are generally governed by kings, who live in splendid palaces, and are surrounded with great wealth and grandeur. Being independent of the people, they have little intercourse with them, but live in a state of separation from all except the great.

694. In order to form a society fit for the presence of a king, certain families are endowed with titles. One man is called a duke, another an earl, and another a baron. These are spoken of under the general title of lords, and, with their families, are considered superior to the common people.

695. Now, in a country where such a system as this prevails, the government and laws are not equal.

These confer certain benefits on some, which are denied to others; and the result is, that while there are a few who are very rich and proud, there are many who are poor and degraded.

696. In this country, you will observe that we have no king to rule over the people, whether they like it or not; there are no dukes, earls, and barons. The laws here are equal, giving the same protection and the same privileges to the rich and the poor; and conferring no titles, except such as are bestowed by the voice of the people, for services rendered to the public.

697. The great difference between our country, then, and most others, is, that ours is a land of liberty, while despotism reigns elsewhere in a greater or less degree. Here the people are free to seek happiness in their own way, provided they obey the laws. Here the people have no masters; the government is their own; it is one they have made to suit themselves; and the public officers, from the president down, are their agents and servants. These come in by their choice, and go out at their bidding.

698. In countries where kings rule, the people are not free; the government is forced upon them, and they must take it, whether they like it or not. They

are like horses harnessed to a coach; the bit is put into their mouths, the king seizes the reins, and drives them as he pleases. If he puts on the whip, they must bear it.

699. There is, however, a great difference in these despotic governments. A good king may sometimes govern kindly and wisely, and in some countries, the power of the king is checked by parliaments, or assemblies, similar to our Congress, in the choice of which the people are permitted to have some influence. This is the case in England, where the people enjoy a good deal of freedom. The same may be said of France. But in Spain, Austria, and Russia, the people have little power, and the monarchs rule them in an arbitrary manner.

700. On the whole then we have great reason to love our country, not merely because it is our own, but because of that glorious system of government which affords the same kind shelter to the rich and the poor, the strong and the weak; because it makes no invidious distinctions, but is like the sun in the sky, which sheds its equal warmth and light upon all.

701. But, while we cherish this love of our country, let us avoid all vain-glory and idle boasting. If we ever meet with foreigners, let us not insult them by

insisting upon the superiority of our institutions over theirs. Let us remember that, in many respects, the older countries possess advantages over ours; and, if it were otherwise, it would be wrong to wound the feelings of others, for what is rather their misfortune than their fault.

LII. CITIES AND TOWNS.

702. I HOPE by this time you will understand what is meant by government. You will recollect that, in the United States, we have a national government, for the purpose of regulating commerce, and managing the army, the navy, the general post-office, &c. This is sometimes called the *federal* government, because it is formed by a federation or union of all the states. Congress makes the laws of the federal government, and the president is placed at its head.

703. Besides this general government, you will remember that each state has a separate government of its own, with a governor, legislature, and judiciary. Thus you see that our country consists of twenty-six little republics united into one great republic.

704. I have told you that each state is divided into counties; and in every county there are a number

of cities or towns. Cities are generally large places, built upon the seacoast, or on the banks of a river, where a good many vessels come to carry on commerce.

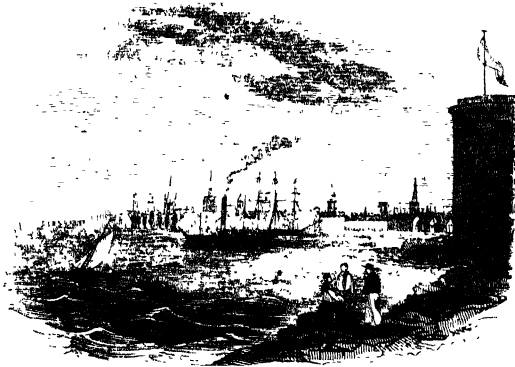
705. Now, you will observe that, in cities, it is necessary to have the streets paved, to have them lighted when the night is dark, to have watchmen go about at night to take up thieves and robbers, and to give the alarm, when any of the buildings are on fire.

706. In order to manage all these matters, cities and towns are permitted to have governments of their own, which take care that the streets are paved and lighted; and they establish what is called a police, consisting of watchmen, constables, &c., to see to the safety of the citizens, or townspeople.

707. The largest city in the United States, and the largest in America, is New York. It contains about three hundred thousand inhabitants, and is one of the most flourishing places in the world. It is situated at the southern point of Manhattan Island, or New York, and, on two sides, is so crowded with vessels, that they look like a forest in winter, the trees of which are stripped of their leaves.

708. As you approach New York from the water,

you will be astonished at the busy scene. Coasting vessels are coming in, some from Boston and other



parts of New England, some from the Southern States; and sea-going vessels, some from England and other parts of Europe, some from Africa, and some from Asia.

709. The coasters, and sea-going vessels are loaded with every species of commodity. Some are filled with lumber from Maine; some with cod-fish and mackerel from Massachusetts; some with ducks, geese, eggs, butter, and cheese, from Connecticut;

some with coal from Philadelphia; some with cotton from Savannah; some with flour from Baltimore; some with pork, sugar, and tobacco, from New Orleans; and others with spices, tea, coffee, silks, cloths, iron ware, oranges, pine-apples, lemons, and a multitude of other things, from foreign countries.

710. And while so many vessels are coming in, as many are departing, laden with a great variety of merchandise, and destined some to one country, and some to another. In the midst of these vessels, you will see multitudes of little boats gliding about like birds, together with many steam-boats puffing and plashing through the water, and seeming to say, "Get out of my way, or I will sink you!"

711. If you enter the city, you will find a still more busy scene. Broadway is the principal street, through which a vast crowd of people is constantly pouring from morning till midnight.

712. This street is one of the finest in the world, and I, like other people of the United States, could easily talk about it for a full hour. There are also many other handsome streets and squares in New York; and tides of people are always rushing through them. The passengers seem always full of business: they walk fast, and their eyes are wide open, as if

eagerly engaged in the pursuit of some very interesting object. There are many excellent and elegant houses in New York; large churches of the English worship, noble spires, and a sumptuous City Hall of white marble, facing the park.

713. Next to New York, Philadelphia is the largest city in the United States. It is laid out in squares,



PHILADELPHIA.

like a chess-board, the streets crossing each other at right angles. The houses are generally well built, and many of them are very handsome. They have a plain appearance, but they are substantial and comfortable.

714. The Bank of the United States is perhaps the finest building in this country. It is of white marble, and decorated with superb fluted columns. The Pennsylvania Bank, though more modest, is also very beautiful. The Exchange, where the merchants meet to consult about business, and where the Post-office is kept, is a beautiful building.

715. Boston is the largest town in New England, and in the United States, and some parts of it are



BOSTON, WITH STATE-HOUSE.

exceedingly handsome. It is not a *city*, only because it is without a corporation. Instead of a government

of mayor, aldermen, and other municipal officers, like that of New York, it has only its *select-men*, like every other *town*, even in the woods in the Eastern States. There is no *city* in all New England. The Common is a beautiful place, particularly in summer. I need not tell my young Boston friends about the Frog Pond; but my readers who have never seen it may bear to be told, that it is a pretty sheet of water, in the midst of the Common, walled around with hewn stone. In the warm season, it is a place where the boys sail their little vessels, and teach their dogs to swim. In winter, you may sometimes see a hundred skaters upon it, flitting hither and thither, like a swarm of gnats in July.

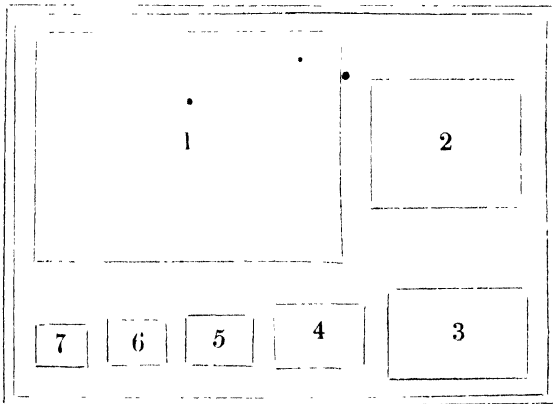
716. The State-house is a handsome building, standing upon a high hill in the midst of the city. Quincy Market is a beautiful edifice of granite. The King's Chapel is a fine old church, but not very large, erected before the revolution. This is a *church*, and not a *meeting house*, and the only place of public worship in New England, or the Eastern States, in which the doctrines of the Church of England are preached, or its common prayer book used. Tremont House is a famous hotel, and a very elegant building.



TREMONT STREET, BOSTON.

717. There are many other fine cities and towns in the United States, among which are Baltimore in Maryland. Charleston in South Carolina, New Orleans in Louisiana, Cincinnati in Ohio, Louisville in Kentucky, Providence in Rhode Island, and Portland in Maine. To these I might add many others, but I have not room to describe them. I must only refer you to the maps, which will show the situation of these places I have mentioned, and many others.

718. If we turn our attention to foreign countries, we shall find that there are many cities much larger than New York. London in England, Constantinople in Turkey, Pekin in China, have each between one and two millions of inhabitants. There are more than a hundred cities in the world that are larger than New York. The following diagram will show you the size of some of our principal towns and cities, as compared with London.



719. Fig. 1 represents London, which with its environs has a million and a half inhabitants; Fig. 2

represents New York, which has about three hundred thousand; Fig. 3 represents Philadelphia, which has about two hundred thousand; Fig. 4 represents Baltimore, eighty-five thousand; Fig. 5, Boston, seventy-five thousand; Fig. 6, New Orleans, sixty thousand; Fig. 7, Charleston, forty thousand. You will recollect that these statements are not taken from the census of 1830, but are estimates supposed to give pretty nearly the present population.

720. In foreign countries, a considerable difference is to be observed between our cities and towns and theirs. Our oldest are but little more than two hundred years old, while some of the 'cities and towns of Europe, Asia, and Africa, are one, or even two thousand years old, if not more. Ours however have, on this account, a much newer and fresher appearance. You will hardly find a building in any of our towns or cities that is a hundred years old, and there are very few which are even fifty years; while in most foreign cities you will find some that are five hundred years old, and many that are two or three hundred years. I confess, however, that such things are usually celebrated as antiquities in those cities themselves; that a house of a hundred years old is thought very ancient, and there are usually more ancient lines

of streets, crooked and narrow, almost all over Europe, than ancient buildings at their sides. While new buildings are springing up continually, old buildings are being taken down.

721. In ancient times, it was the custom to build high stone walls around a city, for defence in time of war. In England, most of these walls are taken down, and the few that remain are in a decayed and ruinous state. London was once surrounded with a wall, but it is now removed. Most of the large cities in Europe, Asia, and Africa, are still defended by walls.

722. The smaller towns and villages in the United States differ still more than our cities from those of the eastern continent. Most of our houses in the country are built of wood, and in New England they are frequently painted white. The houses are not packed close together, but there is usually considerable space between them.

723. The churches, or meeting houses, are generally of wood, and are painted white. Every thing in these places seems to indicate a recent origin of our towns; and it often happens, that the stumps of the trees of the old Indian forests, still standing close to, or in the midst of a village containing several

thousand inhabitants, prove that it has scarcely seen thirty years ; for so long do these stumps last, if not moved out of the way.

724. The smaller towns and villages in Europe are very different from all this. The houses are generally of rough stone, laid in clay or mortar. They are packed close together, like bottles in a wine-cellar, with dark narrow streets between them. The churches are generally of stone, and are often five hundred or even a thousand years old. As to the houses, in the meantime, I am not now speaking of England, where brick is more common than stone, and where white-coated cottages, and villas, and village-churches, incessantly meet the eye.

725. The European villages, I mean usually those of the European Continent, have generally the dingy squalid appearance, which belongs to the dirty suburbs of a large town, and are destitute of that open, airy, and cheerful aspect, which characterizes many of the villages of this country.

726. If I may be allowed to illustrate the difference between these European villages and those of the United States, I should say that the former might be compared to old age tottering with decay, and ragged from negligence and poverty ; while ours



VILLAGE SCENE, IN AMERICA.

are like youth with a new suit of clothes, his hair just combed, and his face just washed.

LIII. AGRICULTURE AND OTHER SOURCES OF WEALTH.

727. I HAVE told you that there are fourteen millions of people in the United States. I suppose that two-thirds of these are engaged in agriculture. This is

very important, for nearly all our food is produced by tilling the land. Commerce and manufactures provide us with our clothing, our houses, our furniture, and many nice articles called luxuries.

728. What a multitude of good things are produced by agriculture! Wheat and rye, from which bread is made; maize, or Indian corn, with which we fatten our pigs, and from which we make hasty-pudding; oats for the horses, buckwheat for cakes like crumpets, potatoes, beans, peas, rice, cotton, tobacco, hemp, flax, sugar-cane, and a great variety of fruits and kitchen vegetables, are all the result of agriculture.

729. Beside all this, how much hay is raised for the cattle and horses! how many thousands of sheep are fed! what countless herds of cows and oxen, what numbers of horses, what flocks of geese, ducks, and turkeys, what droves of swine!

730. In New England, the winter being long, and the summer short, and the land in general not very fertile, a large proportion of the inhabitants are devoted to lumbering, which term I will explain by and by, to manufactures, navigation, fisheries, and commerce; still the farmers cultivate the soil with industry, skill, and profit. They raise a little wheat,

some rye, and a good deal of Indian corn. They also raise oats, barley, buckwheat, hay, and garden-vegetables. On the whole, the agriculture and gardens of New England supply the wants of the inhabitants, except that we are obliged to get wheat, flour, rice, and oats, to some extent, from other parts of the United States. For several years past, indeed, strange to say, wheat has been imported into the United States from England.

731. The Middle States are very fruitful, and the inhabitants not only produce a sufficient amount of food for themselves, but they have great quantities of wheat or flour to sell, which is sent to all parts of the country, and abroad.

732. In Maryland and Virginia, the people are devoted to the raising of tobacco. In the other Southern States, they produce vast quantities of cotton and rice. In Louisiana, they raise sugarcane, from which they get large quantities of sugar. In the Western States, they produce cotton, tobacco, wheat, and Indian corn, in prodigious quantities. They also raise a great many cattle and hogs.

733. The yearly value of all the agricultural products in the United States is immense. The whole amount of cotton is about four hundred million

pounds weight a year, the value of which is about forty million dollars, or ten millions sterling. Of



COTTON, TOBACCO, AND SUGAR.

tobacco, the value is six millions; of animals, including horned cattle, sheep, hogs, horses, &c., three millions five hundred thousand; of vegetable food,

such as bread-stuffs, potatoes, &c., nine millions. The value of agricultural products, in addition to these, is also very great.

734. But agriculture is not the only source of the wealth of the United States. The various mines annually yield products to an immense amount. The anthracite coal-mines of Pennsylvania alone produce eight hundred thousand tons, which are worth nearly five millions of dollars. All the gold mines of this country together yield annually about three millions of dollars.

735. The yearly amount of iron, derived from the mines, is about two hundred thousand tons; lead, ten million pounds; salt, five million bushels. Besides these things, there are mines of copper, black lead, cobalt, bismuth, and saltpetre. In this estimate, you perceive I do not include the granite, marble, and freestone quarries.

736. These few items will show that there are a good many people at work in the United States. But our countrymen are not satisfied with ploughing, hoeing, and harrowing the surface of the earth, and digging into its bowels; some of them, you must remember, are fond of roaming in the woods, and catching wild animals for the sake of their furs;

others, still more adventurous, get their living from the bosom of the briny deep. There are others who go into the wild forests to cut down trees, to be

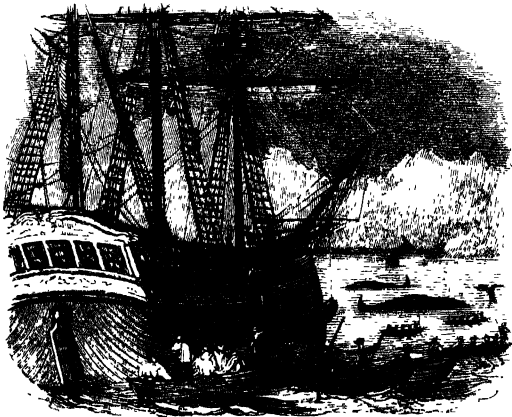


HUNTERS IN THE FORESTS.

converted into lumber and ship-timber; I include lumbering in my list, and lumbering includes the making of staves, and headings, for flour and pork-barrels, and wooden shingles, instead of tiles, for the roofs of buildings. There are others, still, who employ themselves in extracting pitch and tar from pine-trees, for the use of ships.

737. If I had room, I should love to tell you of the wild adventures of the hunters and *trappers*, who go to the western wilderness to get the skins of bears, bisons, oxen, or buffaloes, as they are improperly called, beavers, deer, foxes, martens, otters, lynxes, raccoons, and other four footed beasts.

738. I should like to tell you of the Massachusetts men who spend their lives in catching mackerel, cod,



WHALE SHIP.

and other fish. I should like to tell you of those bold fellows that go in big ships from Nantucket,

prowling through every ocean on the face of the globe, in search of whales and seals, and come back with their vessels laden with oil, spermaceti, whalebone, and sealskins; but I have only room to tell you that the whole yearly value of our fisheries is estimated at three million dollars, and that of our lumber, naval stores, furs, &c., at four million five hundred thousand dollars.

739. I could tell you a long story of our commerce; for our vessels visit every clime, and whiten with their sails the waves of every sea. At this moment, while I am writing, hundreds of them are ploughing every portion of the Atlantic, the Pacific, and the Indian Ocean. Some are bearing their burdens of cotton, tobacco, flour, and other productions of our agriculture and manufactures, to distant markets; while others are toiling back from every point of the compass, with cargoes of tea, spices, silks, indigo, wines, raisins, figs, oranges, lemons, clocks, watches, cutlery, cotton, linen and woollen goods, and thousands of other articles.

740. The value of the articles thus transported upon the water is very great. I suppose that the value of our annual exports, that is, merchandise sent out of the country, amounts to a hundred million

dollars, and that our imports, that is, merchandise brought into the country, amount to a hundred and ten millions in value. What a vast concern, then, is that trade conducted by sea, which we call commerce or foreign trade!

741. I am obliged to overlook the buying, selling, and bartering, which is carried on in-land, and which is more particularly called *trade*, or, internal or domestic trade. This is a great part of trading business, but I must leave it untouched to tell you something of our manufactures.

742. I suppose you have heard of Lowell, which is a city of manufactures, and where they make a great many millions of yards of sheeting, shirting, calico, and gingham, every year. You have heard of Cocheco, Springfield, Pawtucket, and other places, famous for their manufacturing establishments, but I have not time now to describe them.

743. I can only tell you that the people of New-England, finding that their climate is severe, and their soil stingy, are obliged to invent various modes of getting wealth. Many of them take to the sea, and convert mackerel, cod-fish, seals, and whales, into ready cash. Some of them take to the woods, and convert the furred jackets of bears and beavers

into gold. Some till the lands, some keep school, some preach, some peddle, and some practise physic.

744. But there are still many who are not occupied in any of these pursuits, and as the Yankees, as we say, must ever be doing something, they turn their attention to all kinds of manufactures. In one town, a large part of the inhabitants devote themselves to making shoes, in another to making straw bonnets, in another to wooden clocks, in another to buttons, in another to woollen cloths, in another to cotton goods, and in others to something else. Thus every one is employed; thus every one is earning the means of living, and doing his part toward promoting the comfort and prosperity of the country. Some, as at Duxbury, supply the country with wooden bowls, and spoons, and trenchers, and other wooden ware, which, with us Yankee wits, is called Duxbury *china*.

745. In the Middle States, the soil is more fertile, and a larger portion of the inhabitants are devoted to agriculture. Still the amount of manufactures, particularly in New-York, New-Jersey, and Pennsylvania, is immense. Rochester, in New-York, is famous for its flour mills; Patterson, in New Jersey, for its cotton factories; and Pittsburg, in Pennsylvania, for its iron works.

746. Besides these places, there are many other towns in the Middle States where manufactures are carried on. There are a multitude of small establishments, which attract little attention, but which, on the whole, produce vast results. Even in the large cities, where it would seem that everybody is engaged in buying and selling goods, or in keeping hotels, there is a vast deal of nice work in jewellery and in other fine manufactures.

747. The Southern and South-western States are chiefly devoted to agriculture. The labour there is almost wholly performed by negro slaves, who do very well to cultivate cotton, tobacco, rice, and sugar-cane, in a hot country; but they would hardly be a match for the Yankees in catching bears and beavers, in harpooning whales, in navigating ships, in driving cotton mills, or in making and selling wooden clocks.

748. In the Western States, the fine soil tempts the people to bestow their chief care on its cultivation. The rich crops of wheat and corn, which it yields, leave them little inducement to engage in manufactures. They may catch wild oxen upon the prairies, but there are no *whales* within their reach, and they are too far from the ocean to engage in

commerce. Still, there are extensive cotton and woollen mills in Ohio and Kentucky, and manufactures are increasing.

749. I will finish this long chapter, by telling you that, in all the cotton mills of the United States, there are a million three hundred thousand spindles, which annually produce about two hundred million yards of cloth, worth twenty-six millions of dollars. The annual value of the woollen manufactures is forty million dollars; of glass, porcelain, &c., three million; of paper, seven million; hats and caps, eleven million; cabinet furniture, ten million. The value of other manufactures amounts to many millions.

750. Thus I have endeavoured to give you some idea of the vast sources of wealth in this country. If you reflect upon this matter, you will see that agriculture, commerce, ship-building, navigation, manufactures, fisheries, hunting, lumber-cutting, and wooden-bowl and clock-making, employ millions of people, and feed millions of mouths.

LIV. CANALS.

LAKE ERIE, OR ALBANY CANAL.

751. It is said that, many years since, some persons in Spain proposed to the government to cut a canal across a part of the country, for the purpose of rendering the transportation of goods more cheap and easy. The subject was referred to a council of monks, who, after solemn deliberation, declared it as their opinion that, if Heaven had designed that water should flow in the proposed route, a natural channel would have been provided for it. This was thought a sound opinion by the government, and the project was abandoned.

752. But the people of this country take a different view of the matter. They think it right to use the faculties and advantages that God has given them. If a river flows where it is wanted, they use it; if not, they cut channels across valleys, and through hills, and thus make artificial water-courses, upon which boats may carry merchandise from one point to another.

753. The most extensive canal in the United States, and one of the greatest in the world, is that

which extends from Albany to Buffalo, both in the



VIEW OF BUFFALO

state of New York. This is called the Erie, or Lake Erie canal, and is three hundred and sixty-three miles in length. It was the first great enterprise of the kind in the United States, and was executed at the expense of the state of New York. The whole cost was about nine million dollars.

754. This canal was begun in 1817, and finished in 1825. It was found so beneficial, that the people

in various parts of the country were induced to undertake a multitude of other canals, many of which have gone into successful operation.

755. To make you understand the benefits of these works, let us look somewhat particularly at the Erie Canal. This extends from Lake Erie to the Hudson



ALBANY, OR ERIE CANAL.

River. Now, suppose you were a farmer along the borders of this canal. The land here being very fertile, and well adapted to the cultivation of wheat,

if you raise a thousand bushels, you may put it into a boat upon the canal, and have it floated down to Albany at a small expense. If you raise Indian corn, or oats, or barley, or any thing else, you may get it to market in the same way. Nor is this all. The farmers living around the borders of Lake Erie may send their produce in vessels to Buffalo, and it may be there put into the canal-boats, and taken down to Albany.

756. Thus you perceive that, by means of this canal, a vast amount of produce of various kinds may be sent to Albany, and thence to the city of New York, which could never reach that market, if there were no canal. In the United States, you cannot fail to hear of Rochester flour, and Salina salt. These commodities may be found in Boston, New York, and all the great market towns, and let me remind you that they all come down the Erie Canal, and but for this great work, they would probably never be seen in the Atlantic markets.

757. There are a number of canals in New England, but none of great extent. In Pennsylvania, there are several canals, some of which have cost immense sums of money, and are of great utility.

By means of these, a large part of the anthracite coal which is used in the Atlantic States is brought to market.

758. When you are sitting, on a cold winterly night, by a warm fire of Peach Orchard or Lackawanna-coal, remember that, but for the canals of Pennsylvania, the coal from which you derive so much comfort had never got into your grate!

759. I cannot now undertake to give you a particular account of the several canals in the United States. They are very numerous, and of immense benefit to the country. If you should ever go to Albany, I advise you to go and see the basin into which the boats come, that bring the produce down the Erie Canal. This will give you some idea of the importance of this great work.

760. You will there see a great collection of boats, loaded with almost every species of produce. Many of them are filled with wheat, some with flour, others with oats, and others with barley. Some are loaded with salt, some with boards, some with beef, some with pork, and some with other things. Many of these articles are brought three, four, or five hundred miles, and some of them more.

761. Now, why do you think that all these articles are brought down the canal? For this plain reason, that they can be brought a great deal cheaper and



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easier than in any other way. If there were no canal, the expense of taking a barrel of flour from Buffalo to Albany would probably be six dollars; and by the canal, it can be carried for half a dollar.

762. And while the canal thus enables people to

send their produce to Albany, the boats can carry back a supply of sugar, molasses, tea, pepper, calicoes, cloths, knives, forks, and such other articles as they need, from foreign countries. You will see, therefore, that an intercourse is thus opened between the city of New-York, and all the towns on the Hudson River, and the country far back to the borders of Lake Erie, by which, people are able to send in a cheap and easy manner the produce of their farms to market, and get in return whatever they may want.

763. This internal trade of the country, by means of canals is of great importance. If you should ever go to Philadelphia, you will see an immense quantity of boxes, bales, and packages of goods, marked with the names of people living in different parts of the western country, some of them more than a thousand miles off. These are sent, chiefly by the canals, to Pittsburg; and thence some go, or might go, to Cincinnati, some to Louisville, some to St. Louis, and some to New Orleans, and all the country of the Mississippi, and its tributary streams.

764. At Pittsburg, you would observe that a great amount of flour and other produce comes up the Ohio to that place, and thence is sent to Philadelphia,

by the canals. Here, again, you will observe, that these works afford a communication between the Atlantic and Western States, enabling the people to carry on a profitable trade with each other. You will readily understand the benefit of these internal improvements, when I tell you that a barrel of flour may now be sent from Louisville in Kentucky to Philadelphia for half a dollar, which would formerly have cost ten times as much.

LV. RAIL-ROADS. STEAM-BOATS. POST-ROADS.

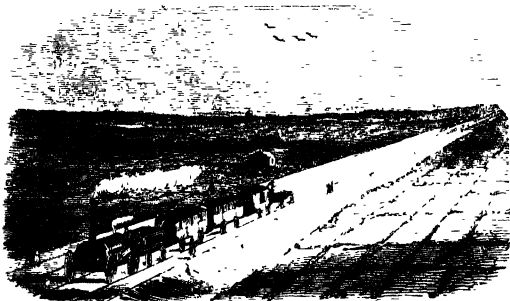
765. RAIL-ROADS are a more modern invention than canals. They are very expensive, as it usually costs about twenty thousand dollars to make a rail-road for a single mile. Thus you see that a rail-road, fifty miles in length, would cost a million of dollars. Perhaps if the country were hilly, and a double track were laid, it would cost twice that sum. Yet such are the wonderful speed and facility with which cars may be driven over a rail-road by means of steam, that many of these costly works have been con-

structed in the United States, many others are begun, and others still are projected.

766. They are found so useful, that, for carrying passengers from one place to another, they have, on many routes, taken the place of stage coaches; and, to some extent they have even superseded the canals for the transportation of merchandise. The speed with which the cars are driven is truly wonderful. They go at the average rate of fifteen miles an hour, and sometimes they whirl along at the rate of thirty miles an hour.

767. Rail-roads, as I have said, are of recent origin. When the cars first began to run, it was amusing to see the astonishment of the horses and cattle, as the engines came snorting, smoking, and puffing over the road. In Pennsylvania, two or three years since, a bull chanced to be in a field, and for the first time saw the engine coming. He seemed to consider it some new-fashioned beast, and determined to give it battle. Accordingly he lifted his tail in the air, and ran down the side of a hill at full gallop, intending to plant his horns in the side of the car. But its speed was greater than he had reckoned upon, it therefore shot by, and the bull went down the hill, heels over head.

768. You have heard of the rail-road from Boston to Worcester in Massachusetts. Near the latter place is an insane hospital, which commands a view



RAIL-ROAD STEAM-CARRIAGES.

of the road. When the first car came into Worcester, a crazy man, who had been in the hospital for some years, was looking out of the window. He saw it coming, and was astonished at the velocity with which it glided forward. "Upon my word," said he, "that's a strange-looking beast, and travels desperate fast for such a short-legged crittur!"

769. I cannot undertake to notice all the rail-roads in the United States. If, however, you are at Boston, you may go upon a rail-road to Lowell, twenty-

six miles in an hour and a half; or you may go to Worcester, forty miles in two hours and a half; or you may go to Providence, forty miles, in two hours and a half.

770. In New York and Pennsylvania, there are a great number of rail-roads, and others are about being made. In other parts of the country, too, there are numerous works of this kind, either finished, begun, or projected. It appears probable that rail-roads will be built throughout almost every section of our country, at no very distant period. They enable people to travel from one place to another with amazing ease and rapidity. Formerly, it was a long day's journey from Boston to Providence, but now a man in Boston may set off after breakfast, go to Providence, stay there two hours, and get back to dinner.

771. Thus, although mankind are born without wings, they contrive to travel about almost as rapidly as the birds of the air. I will presently give you a brief table, which will show you the length of the principal canals and rail-roads in the United States.

772. If I had plenty of room and time, I would give you a particular account of the steam-boats in the United States. These do not yet cross the

ocean like to those of England, nor do they go upon very long voyages by sea. They generally ply up and down the rivers, or across the bays and sounds, along the Atlantic border. They travel at the rate of ten or twelve miles an hour, and are devoted to the carrying of passengers and merchandise. Some of the larger ones are nearly two hundred feet in length, and cost more than a hundred thousand dollars.

773. The engines in these boats have often the power of a hundred horses, and the speed with which they plough through the waters is quite wonderful. There are many steam-boats on the Hudson River, plying between the city of New York and other cities on the banks of that noble stream. The passage between Albany and New York, a distance of one hundred and fifty miles, is very often made in ten hours. These boats frequently carry five hundred passengers. Five thousand persons, have performed a passage on this river in a single day. It is probable that near a million of persons go up or down the Hudson River in steam-boats every year.

774. But this is not the only river upon whose waters these leviathans are accustomed to ply. There is hardly a stream in the United States, of

any magnitude, that has not its steam-boat, and some rivers have hundreds. The Mississippi and its numerous branches are navigated by a multitude of steam-boats, some of them carrying a burden of near one thousand tons, and making trips of two thousand miles in length.

775. No foreign country, is superior to ours in regard to steam-boats. They are numerous here, they travel with much rapidity, and are fitted up in as good style, as those of any other country: it must, however be confessed that they meet with many serious accidents.

PRINCIPAL CANALS IN THE UNITED STATES.		
Names.	Miles long.	Course, Cost, &c.
Blackstone . . .	45	From Worcester, Mass. to Providence, R. I.; summit level, 450 feet; 48 locks; cost 700,000 dollars.
Champlain . . .	63	From Lake Champlain to Erie Canal, 9 miles from Albany; 21 locks; cost, 1,180,000 dollars; summit level, 134 feet; in New York.
Chesapeake and } Ohio }	110	The total length from Georgetown, D. C. to Pittsburg, Penn., is 340 miles, of which 110 have been completed to above Williamsport, with 44 lift locks, and 5 aqueducts; cost, 3,650,000 dollars.
Chesapeake and } Delaware }	14	Summit level, 12 feet; 2 lift locks, and 2 tide locks, 66 feet wide, 10 deep.
Delaware and } Hudson }	108	From the Hudson, 90 miles above New York, to Honesdale. From the Delaware to Honesdale, 36 miles, it bears the name of Lackawaxen canal.
Dismal Swamp .	23	From Joyce's Creek to Deep Creek, N. C.

PRINCIPAL CANALS IN THE UNITED STATES.—*Continued.*

Names.	Miles long.	Course, Cost, &c.
Erie	363	From Lake Erie to the Hudson; 84 locks, 40 feet wide, 4 deep; cost, 9,027,000 dollars.
Farmington	78	From Newhaven, Conn., to Northampton, Mass.
Lehigh	46½	From termination of Morris canal at Easton, Penn., to Mauch Chunk rail-road at Stoddardsville, Penn.; cost, 1,558,000 dollars; 41 lift locks, 7 guard locks.
Middlesex	27	From Boston to the Merrimac; 20 locks; cost, 528,000 dollars; Mass.
Miami	266	From Cincinnati to the Maumee; Ohio.
Morris	97	From Jersey City, opposite New York, to Easton, on the Delaware; principal elevations surmounted by inclined planes; 24 locks, 23 planes; cost, 1,200,000 dollars; New Jersey.
Ohio	334	From Lake Erie, at Cleveland, to the Ohio at Portsmouth; with the Miami canal, 66 miles, cost, 5,500,000 dollars; Ohio.
Pennsylvania		This consists of a series of canals and rail-roads, from Philadelphia to Pittsburg, and of canals up the North and West Branches of the Susquehannah. Canals from Columbia to Holydaysburg, 172 miles, and Johnstown to Pittsburg, 105, with the Columbia and Alleghany rail-roads, form the line from Philadelphia to Pittsburg. The section from the mouth of the Juniata to the Lackawannock, is 114 miles; and that from Northumberland, up West Branch to Bald Eagle Creek, 72 miles; Beaver division from the Ohio up the Beaver, 25 miles.
Santee	22	From the Santee to Cooper's River, South Carolina.
Schuylkill	110	From Philadelphia to Port Carbon, Penn.; 125 locks, 31 dams; tunnel of 450 feet; cost, 2,336,380 dollars.
Union	80	From Middletown on Susquehannah, Penn., to Reading, on Schuylkill canal, Penn., with feeder of 24 miles; tunnel, 730 feet; 92 locks; 2 summit reservoirs, covering 35 acres.
Wabash and Erie	210	From the Wabash to the Maumee, Indiana.

PRINCIPAL RAIL-ROADS IN THE UNITED STATES.

	Miles long.		Miles long.
Boston to Lowell; Mass. . . .	26	Baltimore and Ohio; Md., Vir., and Penn.	81
Boston to Worcester; Mass. . . .	43	Philadelphia to Columbia; Penn.	83
Boston to Providence; Mass. and R. I.	41	Charleston and Hamburg; South Carolina	132
Providence to Stonington; R. I. and Conn.	40	Danville and Potsville; Penn. . .	54
Schenectady to Saratoga; N. Y.	23	Hudson and Mohawk; N. Y. . . .	16
Amboy to Camden; New Jersey	61	Ithaca and Owego; N. Y.	30
Alleghany Portage; Penn.	34	Newcastle and Frenchtown; Del. and Md.	16½
Baltimore to Washington; Md. . .	33		

776. In England, the canals and rail-roads are numerous; they are executed at more expense, are more thoroughly finished, and more nicely constructed, than in the United States. Holland, being a flat country, is crossed in every direction by canals, and in most other countries of Europe, there are some useful works of this kind. Rail-roads are making great progress in Holland, Belgium, Austria, France, Germany, Greece, and all other parts of Europe.

777. China is famous for its canals, some of which were executed hundreds of years ago. The Imperial canal is seven hundred miles in length, and is the longest in the world, and, being connected with several rivers, opens a communication from Pekin to Canton, a distance of sixteen hundred miles. Steam-boats and rail-roads are almost unknown in Africa and Asia.

778. The common roads in the United States intersect every part of the country, and the great routes between the principal cities are tolerably good. In the Southern and Western States, they are generally bad. The great road executed by the government of the United States, and extending from the city of Washington to Illinois, is an admirable work. On the whole, however, our post-roads are far inferior to those of Great Britain and many other parts of Europe.

LVI. RELIGION,

779. I HAVE told you enough of the people of the United States, to impress you with the idea, that we are, on the whole, a busy, bustling people, all being eager after some profitable pursuit. Within the Union we see that millions of individuals are engaged in various occupations, all having in view a good share of the comforts and pleasures of life.

780. Some are at work in extracting wealth from the soil; some make the deep forest echo with the axe and the saw-mill; some are tracking the deer and oxen of the prairie; and some, in regions still more remote, are seeking to deprive the beaver, fox,

and marten, of their fur. Some are hard at work in the bowels of the earth; some are engaged amid the humming sounds of the factory and the mill; some are fathoming the depths of the sea with hook and line; some are chasing the wandering whale; while others are spreading the adventurous sail to every breeze, on every sea; and all these are putting forth their strength, and tasking their invention, to get money, and by means of money to command the good things of the world.

781. But the numerous churches and meeting-houses that are spread over the country, still show that the people are not so wholly engrossed in the present as to forget the future. There are very few, and I think that I almost ought to say none, who do not adopt and follow some religious creed. It is a part, and a glorious part, of our laws, that every man shall be permitted to enjoy his own freedom on the subject of religion. Nearly all profess to be Christians, and to take the Bible as the basis of their faith. They interpret this book, however, in different ways, and consequently are divided into many sects. The principal of these are, Baptists, who are either Free-will Baptists or Calvinistic Baptists, Methodists, Calvinists (including Presbyterians, Congregationalists, &c.), Universalists, Catholics, Episcopalians,

Christians, Lutherans, Quakers, and Unitarians. There are also a few Jews.

782. The relative numbers of the principal sects are estimated as follows:—Baptists, four million three hundred thousand; Calvinists, including Presbyterians, Congregationalists or Independents, &c., four million and twenty-five thousand; Methodists, three million; Roman Catholics, eight hundred thousand; Episcopalians, or of the Church of England, six hundred thousand; Universalists, six hundred thousand; Lutherans, five hundred and forty thousand; Christians, three hundred thousand; Friends, or Quakers, two hundred and twenty thousand; Unitarians, a hundred and eighty thousand. Beside these there are some minor sects, of which a part are exceedingly singular in their tenets and rites.

783. The great difference between this country and that of most others, on the subject of religion, is this, that here, it is left very much to the people, while in other countries some particular form of religion is supported by the government.

LVII. MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.

784. THE larger proportion of the inhabitants of the United States are the descendants of people who came from England and settled here. Accordingly, the prevailing language of this country is the English language, and the manners and customs of the people bear a general resemblance to those of England. Our houses, our house furniture, our modes of cookery, of eating, drinking, sleeping, our religious rites and ceremonies, our modes of cultivating the soil, our modes of travelling, are generally similar to those which prevail in England.

785. At the same time, it is proper to observe, that our peculiar climate, our government, and other circumstances, have contributed to stamp the people of this country with many distinct features. While, therefore, it must be understood that our manners and customs are substantially English, there are many things in which we differ from the people of England.

786. I have told you that the United States are spoken of under four divisions.—New England, or the Eastern States, the Middle States, the Southern

States, and the Western States. Now, the English language prevails throughout all these divisions.

787. The only difference, so far as language is concerned, is that those of one division of the Union, or of one part of a state, accent a few words differently from those of another, have peculiar tones of speech, use a few different phrases, from each other, and a few different English words upon similar occasions, and perhaps employ certain figures of speech peculiar to themselves. A man from "Down east," when he would apply a strong expression to another man, says, "As rough as a bear," while an inhabitant of the borders of the Mississippi expresses the same idea by saying, "As savage as an alligator."

788. But, notwithstanding this degree of uniformity of language, the four divisions of the United States present considerable differences of manners. In New England, the climate is cold and severe during a great part of the year, and the soil, with the exception of a few fertile tracts, is not prolific. On the whole, this region is not one which encourages the people to live an idle life. On the contrary, the inhabitants find it necessary to be prudent, economical, and industrious, in order to live comfortably.

789. The New Englanders are, therefore, from

necessity, a prudent and saving people. These traits of character are strengthened by the precepts and examples impressed upon the community by the first settlers of New England. These, for the most part, were Puritans, members of a religious sect in England at the time, a very religious set of men, who discouraged luxury and licentiousness, condemned worldly amusements, and, at the same time, devoted their minds and bodies with great energy to the serious and profitable affairs of human life.

790. Trained up under such influences, impelled by the dictates of stern necessity, the real Yankee or New Englander, no sooner enters upon the theatre of action, than he sets about laying the foundation of acquiring wealth, or at least independence. He does not spend his time in idle dreaming; he expects no miracle which may send a shower of gold into his pocket.

791. He is, of course, pretty well educated; for fathers, knowing that their sons are to make their own way in the world, have taken care to establish schools in every nook and corner of New England, or the Eastern States.

792. The young adventurer, therefore, sets out in search of fortune with two things in his favour; he

has both the will and the means to obtain success. He is not always content with following in the footsteps of his father. Suppose a farmer in Vermont has six sons ; one, perhaps, will remain to be a stay and staff to the good old man when he totters down the hill towards the sunset of life ; but another first gets to be a schoolmaster, then studies law, flourishes a time before the courts, goes to Congress, and finally is, for his year, or so, governor of a state.

793. A third pushes off on foot to Boston, drives a stage for a time, then tends a bar in a tavern for a while, and is taken at last as clerk into a store, or shop or warehouse. Here he gains the confidence of his employers, at twenty-one is admitted into partnership, and is soon a tradesman of established reputation. The fourth, is a wild, roving fellow, who first goes to sea before the mast ; but, his wild oats being sown, he at length becomes perhaps captain of a packet ship, and, at the age of fifty, is a weather-beaten seaman, and retires upon a comfortable income.

794. The fifth is a pedler, and circulates tin-ware for half a dozen years throughout the Southern States. He then goes on a hunting expedition to the Rocky Mountains ; after his return he officiates

as steward on board a Mississippi steam-boat. Being of a musical turn, he joins a caravan of wild beasts, or a show, and plays the clarionet through all the principal cities of the United States. He then migrates to Kentucky, where, for a short time, he keeps a school. He next removes to Alabama, where, with a capital of two or three thousand dollars, which he has saved, he sets up a shop, in a new town, still covered with the stumps of the primeval forest trees. The town increases, and our young trader flourishes. In due time he acquires extensive cotton lands. These he cultivates with care, and, year by year adding acre to acre, becomes a wealthy planter, respected and beloved by all around him.

795. The sixth is the favourite son, and, like most favourites, comes very near being spoiled. He is sent to college, and there acquires some learning, and a good estimation of himself. But he chances to be sent to one of those colleges where there is little intercourse between the pupil and the instructor, and where a parcel of young men are left without rudder or compass at the most stormy and dangerous period of life. He catches, therefore, the infection of bad principles, and goes forth with a diseased and impure spirit to the world.

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796. He is bred a lawyer ; he has talents, perhaps genius ; he commences life with fair prospects, but still with the idea that fortune is to come without being obtained by effort. He is disappointed, and becomes dissipated ; he loses his friends, and is on the point of being lost to society ; but he is still a New Englandman. His father's honourable example, his mother's religious counsel, come to his aid. The good and evil are at strife, but the former prevails ; he shakes off his indolence, he tramples his vices beneath his feet.

797. He makes a bold effort, and removes to the wide valley of the Mississippi ; he establishes himself as a lawyer in the vicinity of some court-house, still, like the town resorted to by his brother, surrounded with the relics of the recent forest. He devotes himself carefully to his profession, and, at the age of forty, is honoured and respected as the Chief Justice of the State. Such, or something like this, is the history of many a New England farmer's family. I speak of individuals, and of meritorious and successful exertions, which have gained their object, even after errors have been committed.

LVIII. MANNERS AND CUSTOMS,

CONTINUED.

798. I OUGHT, perhaps, to have said before, that the term *Yankee* is applied by foreigners to all the citizens of the United States. But in this country, it signifies an inhabitant of New England. It is often used in the Southern States as a term of reproach, and it is probable that some of the southern people really believe that all the New Englanders are a set of peddling knaves, who get their living by selling wooden nutmegs, and similar counterfeit commodities, and by other kinds of low cheating, all of which are incessantly spoken of in the United States, and nowhere more than in New England itself, under the general name of “Yankee tricks.”

799. There is one effectual method of curing such sweeping prejudices. Let a southern man, who entertains these notions, visit New England; let him mix with the people, study the institutions, and acquaint himself with the actual condition of society, and he will go back ashamed of his former wholesale opinions, which he will perceive were at once illiberal, and unjust.

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800. There are several things in most parts of New England which will strike the attention of a traveller with great force. The large number of the school-houses will show him that common education is universal; the neatness and frequency of the meeting houses will show that the people are attentive to religion; the general air about the dwellings will give assurance that there is much comfort, virtue, and peace, within them.

801. If the traveller is a Southerner, or one from the Southern States, he may miss the ready hospitality of his own warm-hearted country; he may indeed think the manners of the people cold and repulsive at first; but let him get through this cautious exterior, let him get into a New England house, and understand the New Englander's heart, and I am sure that even he will not withhold his affection and respect.

802. The Yankees, as I have before intimated, are busily engaged in the secular pursuits of life. Yet on the Sabbath these occupations are entirely suspended, and the day is spent in a serious, and devout manner. There are few holidays. The Fourth of July is a political festival, being the anniversary of the day on which, in the year 1776, the United

States, then thirteen British Colonies, declared themselves independent. It is usually celebrated by public dinners, and the delivery of set orations. Its popular name is Independent Day. A religious Day of Thanksgiving takes place in the autumn, and is a time of universal festivity. It is an occasion in which the children, who have been separated from the parent roof, and scattered in various directions, return and meet once more to commune with each other, and revive the pleasant memories of childhood and youth. I am speaking of the Eastern States.

803. In the Middle States, though the descendants of English settlers constitute the majority; there is a large mixture of Dutch, Irish, Scotch, Swedes, French, and Germans, and their descendants. Among these, there are many who can hardly speak English. In Pennsylvania, there are whole villages where a large part of the inhabitants know no other than the German language.

804. A community so mixed as this can hardly be described in general terms. The two great rival cities of New York and Philadelphia, however present some obvious peculiarities of character. In New York, the people appear to be under the constant pressure of active impulse. The streets

are ever flowing with tides of people, always seeming to be in haste. Those on foot walk rapidly, those who are riding or driving dash on as if in a race; there is a life, a briskness, and energy, about everything in the city, which bespeaks great and growing prosperity.

805. Philadelphia has a more staid and sober aspect. The people move with a more measured pace, the houses have a plainer appearance, the ladies are less dashily dressed. Among the people who pass along the streets, the drab coat, and broad brim of the Quaker, and the somewhat prudish though attractive attire of the Quakeress, are frequently seen. There seems, indeed, to be a sort of Quaker taste about every thing.

806. If you travel to the Southern States, you will soon observe many peculiarities in the country and the people. The climate being warm, the inhabitants do not need to protect themselves so carefully from the inclemency of the winter season. Their houses, therefore, are more carelessly built, and more negligently kept. They are seldom painted, and have not the tidy appearance of the more northern dwellings.

• 807. There is a similar negligence in regard to dress. The people, generally, seem not to study

neatness in this respect. The same may be said of their travelling vehicles, such as chaises, waggons, and other carriages, &c. There is an air of negligence about them all. The harnesses are not nicely made, or carefully fitted, and the vehicles themselves are often awkward and out of repair. It would seem that the people are of an easy disposition, caring little for appearance, and determined not to take a great deal of trouble, even to make things convenient.

808. There are perhaps two reasons for this : the climate, which as I have already mentioned, renders it unnecessary to provide careful protection against the weather, while, at the same time, it disposes the people to indolence ; and the system of slavery, which throws all the labour of the country upon the negroes.

809. As I shall not have a better opportunity than the present to give you some account of slavery, in the United States, I will tell you about it here. We have a great number of Negro slaves. These are chiefly in the Southern and South-western States ; that is, in Maryland, Virginia, North and South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, Tennessee, Kentucky, and Louisiana : in these states slavery is established by law. In all the other States, slavery is either abolished or never existed.

810. Now, in the Slave States, the manual labour, as I have before said, is generally performed by negroes. These are held as property, and bought and sold like houses, lands, or cattle. The slaves, therefore, spend their lives in serving others, and have little interest in doing more than will content their masters. They will perform, perhaps, their task, for this will promote their immediate comfort. But they will be likely to go no further.

811. The effect of such a state of things upon the manners of society is plain. The white people will be apt to disdain labour, for this will be regarded as the business only of slaves; and the slaves, as I have just said, will do no more than is required of them. Among a society thus situated, we cannot expect habits of neatness and order. In such a country, we cannot look for tidy, well-kept dwellings, for neat dress, for convenient and well-contrived vehicles of travelling. The truth is, that in order to live comfortably, a careful and vigilant industry is necessary, and this cannot exist where the labouring part of the community have no interest in property.

812. The southern slaves are not often compelled to labour very hard, and they are usually as well fed as the poor people of other countries. They are a light-hearted race, and seldom repine at their lot.

They have generally known no other condition than that of servitude, and often would not accept liberty, if it were offered. Like the man who had been forty years in prison, and, having got accustomed to the darkness of his cell, when set free, begged to be taken back to his dungeon, their minds are generally bowed to their condition.

813. Many of them are not taught to read or write. Having early imbibed the idea that to serve their masters faithfully is their duty, they often do serve them with alacrity. When kindly treated, they seldom fail to give back a return of affection. The mothers are often known to treat their own children with negligence or cruelty, while they seldom fail to lavish upon the children of their masters the most assiduous care and attention.

814. Such is the condition of the slaves. The white people, planters, or slave-masters, and slave owners, accustomed to command, acquire a manner which the Yankees consider haughty and dictatorial. They are, however, generous, high-minded, and patriotic. They love their friends, and they love their country. They have great hospitality, and a stranger will ever find prompt and hearty kindness at their hands.

815. The planters generally own large estates, often consisting of several hundred acres. Their dwellings, situated in the midst of their estates, are usually at a considerable distance from other houses. If you should ever go to one of these, you will need no introduction. The title of stranger will insure you a welcome reception. Here you may stay as long as you please, and the liberal fare of the household will be at your command.

816. In the Western States, or upon the western side of the Alleghany Mountains, and in the Valley of the Mississippi, the people generally live in a more simple manner than in the east. They have abundance of such luxuries as the wild game of the forest and a prolific soil can yield. But their houses are often rude and ill-furnished. In the larger cities, however, such as Cincinnati, Louisville, Lexington, Nashville, and St. Louis, there are fine houses, splendidly furnished, and the people have all the luxuries which commerce can afford. Tea, sugar, coffee, wine, and other foreign dainties, are as abundant as in any part of the United States.

817. The people of the Western States are frank, hospitable, and full of energy. If they meet a stranger, they freely tell their own history, and

expect similar frankness in return. They are lovers of adventure, and are a little too apt to get themselves involved in fierce personal quarrels. They are, however, brave, upright, and patriotic.

818. I have not space to describe more particularly the manners and customs of our countrymen. Indeed, to speak the truth, they have fewer peculiarities in this respect than any other nation. Their religious rites and ceremonies are few and simple. Being engaged in the ardent and stirring pursuits of business, they have not much time or taste for holiday sports and festive celebrations.

819. In other countries, the people have continued, from the times of their ancestors, many distinguishing customs. The Roman Catholic religion, which once prevailed throughout Christendom, abounding in feasts, fasts, processions, anniversary-shows, and ceremonies, has everywhere left traces of its rites and observances.

820. In most foreign countries, too, the people are divided into various classes, each being marked with peculiar traits of character. If, therefore, you were to visit foreign lands, you would meet with many curious manners and customs, which you do not find in this country, and you would probably return satis-

fied that we are a plain, daily-life people, living on terms of great equality with each other, and more distinguished for general intelligence, simple manners, and a good opinion of ourselves, than for any other thing.

LIX. HISTORY.

AMERICAN DISCOVERIES. SETTLEMENTS.

821. I HAVE NOW given you a very brief sketch of the geographical, political, and social condition of the United States. It only remains for me to give you an outline of their history. I do not propose to enter into details, for there are several books which will furnish you with these. My design is to direct your attention only to a very few leading features of our public annals.

822. The history of the United States may be divided into three portions—colonial, revolutionary, and independent. The first embraces those events which took place between the first settlement, in 1607, and the commencement of the revolution in 1775. During this first period all the settlements were colonies of Great Britain, and subject to her government.

823. The second period embraces those events which occurred between the year 1775, when the colonies threw off the authority of Great Britain, and the final close of the struggle, in 1783. The third period embraces the events which have occurred since the establishment of our independence, through its acknowledgment by foreign powers, Great Britain itself inclusive. I propose to give you a rapid sketch of these three periods.

824. You know that the whole American continent remained unknown to the inhabitants of the Eastern Hemisphere, till its discovery by Columbus, in 1492. To the Eastern Hemisphere it was a New World. The first discovery having been made under the government of Spain, the people of that country took the lead in following up the adventures of Columbus. They therefore seized upon whatever territory they liked, and subjugated or destroyed the inhabitants without scruple.

825. In the space of about fifty years, they had got possession of the finest of the West India Islands, of Mexico, and of nearly the whole of South America. Thus they held within their grasp the most fertile portion of the New World. The Portuguese, at this time, were enterprising mariners, and they, too,

shared in the spoils of the New Continent. They took possession of that portion of South America which is now called Brazil, and seized also upon other territories.

826. The French and English were behind the Spanish and Portuguese in American discoveries, but at length the English made settlements along the Atlantic coasts of North America, as did, a few years after this, the French in Canada and Louisiana. The first English settlement within the present boundary of the United States, was made in 1607, on an island in James River, in Virginia. On the 13th of May of that year, Captain Christopher Newport arrived with a hundred and five colonists. These immediately commenced the erection of huts on the island, and called the place Jamestown.

827. Things went on pretty well at first; but in a short time, the inhabitants found that the food they had brought with them was exhausted. They were therefore oppressed by hunger, and sickness soon followed. In the space of four months, fifty died. Those who remained placed at their head a singular, and since celebrated man, named John Smith. He was a person of great energy, skill, and enterprise. He soon took measures to build a fort for protection

against the hostile Indians around, and made long journeys into the wilderness, where he obtained corn and other supplies; for, as you here see, the Indians of those southern parts, even then grew corn, and had some to part with in barter.

828. The colony began, therefore, at length, to flourish, and new settlers arrived, till several towns and villages were established in the vicinity. The adventurers suffered many sharp trials from pestilence and bloody wars with the Indians, but they triumphed over every difficulty, and, in the course of years, an extensive settlement was established, under the title of Virginia.

829. The next settlement within the boundary of the United States was made by some Dutch fur-traders, in the year 1614, at Albany, on Hudson's River, so named by Hudson the English navigator and discoverer. During the same year, some other Dutch people built a few houses where the city of New York now stands. This was on an island, called by the Indians Manhattan, a name which it still occasionally bears. These little settlements gradually increased by the arrival of new colonists from Holland. This latter step was inspired, no doubt, by what they heard in Holland about the New Nether-

lands, under the name of Niew Nedderlandes. Having few wars with the Indians, and suffering little from the effects of climate, the Dutch settlements advanced with rapidity, and soon rose into a wealthy and extensive colony.

830. The New Netherlands, continued subject to the government of Holland, till the year 1664, when it was taken by the English under James Duke of York, afterwards King James the Second, and the city of New York, which had before been called New Amsterdam, received its present name.

LX. HISTORY, CONTINUED.

SETTLEMENTS, CONTINUED.—NEW ENGLAND.

831. THE first permanent settlement in New England was in 1620, by a body of Puritan Emigrants at Plymouth, Massachusetts. These Puritans, were a religious sect, and of course entertained notions peculiar to themselves. They were unhappy in England, for they were not permitted peaceably to worship God in their own way. They, therefore, first removed to Holland, and afterwards from Holland to America.

832. They came not to America impelled, like the

Spaniards, with a greedy desire of gold, nor, like most other settlers, for the sole sake of trade, commerce, or profitable speculation. Their chief design was to establish a community, which, in a new country, might perpetuate their religious, social, civil, and political views; and at the same time, they sought a sanctuary where such a community might dwell unmolested. They called themselves less Colonists than Pilgrims.



LANDING OF THE PILGRIMS IN NEW ENGLAND.

Many of them were persons of respectable family and circumstances in England.

833. After a tedious voyage across the Atlantic, they landed in mid-winter, and immediately began to erect huts for shelter. The Virginian settlers had to contend with the diseases brought upon them by the excessive heat and moisture of a southern climate. The Pilgrims had to struggle with the opposite terrors of a winter more fierce and lengthened than any thing they had known in Europe.

834. Many fell victims to hunger, cold, and privation. But the remainder persevered with inflexible fortitude, and finally triumphed over every difficulty. More emigrants soon joined this colony, and others also planted themselves at Boston, Salem, &c.

835. Two colonies were thus established: one called the Plymouth colony, the other the colony of Massachusetts Bay. The Colonists at first seemed to be all of one mind; but there were many learned men among them who were fond of discussing religious topics, and so they very soon fell into religious disputes, and persecutions of their own. There was a clergyman, named Roger Williams, who did not agree in opinion with the other clergymen, and, therefore, he was banished. He set forward, through the wilderness, with his family and some friends, and established himself at a place which he called Pro-

vidence: This was in 1636. It was the beginning of the present town of Providence, and the first settlement in Rhode Island.

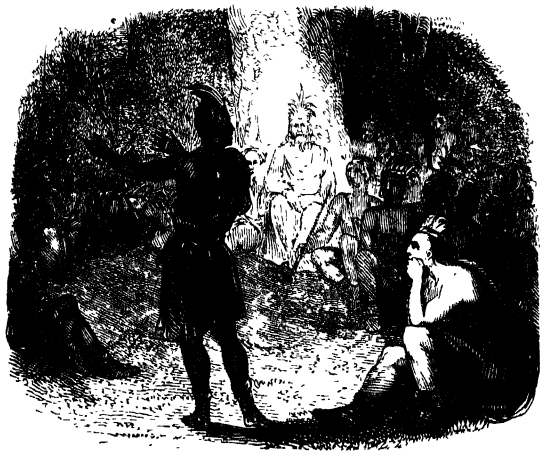
836. Williams appears to have been a wise and benevolent man, and, though he was surrounded by powerful Indian tribes, and without the means of defence, he contrived to gain their affections, so that through his good management, the colony was soon in a flourishing condition.

837. The first settlement in Connecticut was made, in 1633, by emigrants from Massachusetts, at Windsor, a few miles north of Hartford. Hartford, Wethersfield, and other places in the vicinity, were settled soon after. It was about the same time, that settlements were made at New-Haven, and other places in that quarter. The first settlement in Maine was made in 1628; the first in New Hampshire, in 1623. No settlement was made in Vermont till 1724.

838. At this distant day, we cannot easily comprehend the toil, suffering, and care, which attended the establishment of the New-England colonies. In the first place, the people had to contend against the rigours of a climate far more severe than that of England, to which they were accustomed; and, in

the next place, they were surrounded with powerful Indian nations. These, at first, gave the white men welcome, and, for nearly fifty years, offered little resistance to the progress of the settlements.

839. But, at length, the sagacious chieftains of the red-men perceived that the white people were rapidly



INDIAN COUNCIL.

increasing, and that, unless speedily checked, they would overspread the whole country, cut down the forests, convert the hunting grounds into meadows

and wheat fields, and sweep the native inhabitants away from the land of their fathers. They resolved, therefore, to unite, and make one great effort to exterminate the English colonies throughout New England.

840. The leader in this bold and bloody scheme, was a chief whom the English knew by the name of Philip, and whom they called King Philip, and whose castle, or fortified town, was on Mount Hope, in Rhode Island. His Indians were the Pequots, or Pequods. The war commenced in 1675, just one hundred years before the war of the revolution. It was carried on with great skill and energy by the Indians; and the white people left their ploughs in the furrows, and went to meet the enemy. There were many skirmishes, and some battles. But the Indians hid themselves in swamps and forests, only occasionally sallying forth upon some unprotected village, slaughtering men, women, and children, and reducing the houses to ashes.

841. For three years, these scenes were occurring in the different New England settlements; but at length, Philip was killed, and then the Indians, reduced in numbers, dejected, and disappointed, sullenly submitted to their fate.

842. There were other wars with the Indians after this period, but none in which the tribes generally united. The colonies therefore, increased, and by degrees the Indians seemed to vanish from the soil.

LXI. HISTORY, CONTINUED.

SETTLEMENTS. THE FRENCH WAR OF 1756.

843. LET us now turn our attention to the more southern colonies. The first settlement in New Jersey, which is adjacent to New York, was made in 1624 by emigrants from Denmark. Other settlements were soon after made in this territory by Dutchmen and Swedes. The population, however, was very small. In 1664, this colony came under the British authority, with the colony of New Netherlands.

844. In 1681, a colony of Quakers, established themselves on the Delaware, near the spot on which Philadelphia now stands. These had been sent out by William Penn, a man of eminence and fortune, to whom in an adjustment of certain claims, a patent of Proprietorship had been given by King Charles the Second. He soon after came himself, made a treaty

with the Indians, and organized the colony. He was a good and wise man, and, guided by his counsels, the settlement went on prosperously.

845. Maryland was first settled in 1664, by two hundred Roman Catholics from Ireland; Delaware, in 1627, by Swedes and Finlanders. North Carolina by English emigrants, in 1650, and South Carolina, in 1670. Georgia in 1732.

846. You perceive that the whole country, from Maine to Georgia, along the border of the Atlantic, was now settled. But no English settlements had yet been effected west of the Alleghany Mountains. Meanwhile, the colonies continued to increase in population and prosperity, though they had still some trouble with the Indians, and suffered from the effect of wars in Europe between England and France.

847. These maritime colonies, you will recollect, belonged to England, while Canada, in the north, and Louisiana, in the west, or what at one time, had the sole name of Canada, belonged to the French. In 1756, a celebrated war broke out between England and France, which was chiefly carried on in America. Both countries sent out large armies, commanded by very famous generals.

848. The object of the French was to take the

British colonies; the object of the British, to take the French colonies. Many battles took place along the borders of Canada. Many Indians were in both armies. The events that occurred during this famous struggle are very interesting, but I must refer you to other books for the story. I can only give you an account of the most important and the final battle.

849. The French capital and chief fortress in Canada was Quebec, on the river Saint Lawrence, and on the land side of which is an open plain, called the Heights of Abraham. On a dark night, General Wolfe, the English commander, climbed the rocks, with his bold followers, and in the morning, they were in battle array on the Heights of Abraham.

850. General Montcalm commanded the French. He was a brave officer, and knew that he must conquer the British, or Quebec would fall into their hands. The battle soon began. The muskets and the cannon hurled forth their deadly shot, and hundreds of dying and dead men strewed the ground. Again, and again, the lines met, and then recoiled from each other. At length the French were defeated, and Quebec taken. General Wolfe died on the field of battle, and Montcalm was mortally wounded. The result of this victory was complete,

as to Great Britain, and all the French colonies, in the north of North America, became, thenceforth, subject to the British crown. Louisiana remained still in possession of the French.

LXII. HISTORY, CONTINUED.

CAUSES OF THE REVOLUTION. BATTLE OF LEXINGTON.

851. THE capture of Quebec took place in the year 1759; but peace was not concluded between England and France till the year 1763. By the treaty of peace, all the northern colonies, belonging to France, including Canada, and what are now called New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia, were ceded to Great Britain, and have ever since continued British.

852. The English colonies were now thirteen in number, exclusive of those taken from the French. They were New-Hampshire, Massachusetts (including Maine), Rhode-Island, Connecticut, New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North-Carolina, South-Carolina, and Georgia. Vermont was claimed both by New Hampshire, and New-York, and had not yet acquired an independent colonial existence.

853. The French war, and especially the final triumphs of Great Britain over France in North America, were among the immediate occasions of the colonial independence. It was now nearly a hundred and seventy years since the first settlement had been made in Virginia. The colonies now contained about three millions of thriving inhabitants. These had often found it necessary to combine for mutual defence, and they began to have a national feeling. This was increased by the supposed discovery that the English government already looked upon them with jealousy, and had the double desire to keep the colonies poor and feeble, and to make them chiefly subservient to the increase of the wealth and prosperity of Britain.

854. This soon excited feelings of resentment in the colonists. They loved England, for it was the land of their fathers; they loved it, for it was the country whence they had drawn all their notions of religion and morals. They ever gave to it the endearing titles of *home* and *mother country*. They were attached to the form of the British government, and both loved and honoured the person of the king.

855. It was, therefore, with slow and reluctant steps, that they came even at last to a belief, which,

however, sprung up and grew upon them, that the mother-country was wholly selfish in its policy towards the colonies, and that, in its eager desire to make them mere instruments of aggrandizing Britain, it was careless of the happiness of the people.

856. This belief, however, spread widely among them at last. Parliament claimed the right to tax the colonies, and yet would by no means permit them to send representatives as members of that body. The colonists resisted this unqualified claim. They maintained that taxation and representation should go together; in other words they said that, if the English government would not allow the colonists to send members to Parliament, to speak from time to time in their behalf, they would not submit to be taxed by the English Parliament.

857. Parliament, however, proceeded to pass several acts imposing taxes upon the colonies. This produced a general ferment throughout the country. The people had reasoned, remonstrated, petitioned, but in vain. They, therefore, prepared to cut asunder the ties which had hitherto bound them to their father-land.

858. The colonists knew that Britain was a powerful nation, that she had great armies, skilful generals,

and a navy that rode triumphant over every sea. They knew, too, that England had great wealth, and that, if the colonies rebelled, she would bring to bear upon them all her engines of power, impelled by an active spirit of resentment. Yet, knowing this, they did not long hesitate. Looking the danger that threatened them full in the face, they prepared for what they knew must be a bloody struggle.

859. England saw the gathering tempest, and sent a large number of troops to Boston, the focus of excitement, to keep the people quiet in that quarter. But this step failed of the desired effect. Disturbances broke out between the people and the troops; and it was obvious to all, that the forced calm which seemed for a time to reign, was but the forerunner of some fearful convulsion. That convulsion soon followed.

860. On the evening of the 18th of April, 1775, General Gage, the British commander at Boston, sent a detachment to destroy some military stores at Concord, a distance of eighteen miles from Boston. It was the expectation of the detachment, that the night would cover their march, and enable them to accomplish their object without resistance.

861. But the colonists were on the watch, and messengers were speeded through the darkness, to

communicate the tidings, and call for aid. That night, a hundred and thirty colonists were gathered together at Lexington, in the same vicinity. After a short consultation, they separated, agreeing to return at an early hour of the morning, when they supposed the enemy might come.

862. Accordingly, they were on the spot at Lexington when the British troops came up, though as yet they offered no resistance. But the British officer approaching brandished his sword, and cried out, "Disperse, you rebels!" he also ordered his men to fire. Some say that this order was not obeyed, but most Americans assert the contrary, and say that two or three of the colonists fell. Here, then, was bloodshed, the first in the war of our revolution.

863. The British soldiers proceeded to Concord, hastily destroyed some stores of flour and ammunition, had a slight skirmish with the Concord militia, and, beginning to feel apprehensive about their situation, turned their backs upon the scene of their exploits, and marched rapidly towards Boston.

864. As they drew near to Lexington, they found that the people were coming upon them from all quarters. They kept the main road, and thus presented a fair mark to the incensed inhabitants, who

collected under the shelter of trees, thickets, sheds, and fences, along the roads. Many an old rusty gun, which had never before been aimed at other game than foxes and raccoons, was now directed against the ranks of the soldiers, who did not fail to fire in return.



BATTLE OF LEXINGTON.

865. The detachment, at length, reached Lexington, where, it received a reinforcement of nine hundred men, under a young officer, Lord Percy. It

rested a short time, and then proceeded towards Boston, still beset on every side.

866. Every stone wall, every rail fence, every thicket, was a breastwork, behind which the colonists lay concealed, and from which they assailed the soldiery. At night, the latter reached Charlestown, and in the morning came into Boston. But sixty-five of their number had been killed, one hundred and eighty wounded, and twenty-eight made prisoners. Of the colonists, fifty were killed, and thirty-eight wounded and missing.

867. Such was the battle of Lexington, the opening scene of a bloody drama. The news of it flew in every direction, as if borne on wings. The plough was stopped in the furrow, the mechanic threw aside his tools, the shopkeeper forsook his counter, the clergyman gathered the men of his flock, and, arming themselves as well as they might, they all set out for Boston. In a few weeks, the whole town was surrounded by armed men, and the British commander, with several thousand soldiers, found himself besieged in the place.

LXIII. HISTORY, CONTINUED.

BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL, ETC.

868. THE struggle had now begun in good earnest, but the colonists were almost destitute of every thing which might seem necessary to carry it on with success, except determined courage and confidence in their cause. They collected, however, on the hills around Boston, and did what they could to annoy the British troops in that town. They had two or three old rusty cannon, and they made these speak to the English general and his soldiers, in a voice which often made them uncomfortable.

869. You must remember, that, at the time of which I speak, Boston had not more than ten thousand inhabitants. These were shut up with the British in the town, and suffered a good deal from the cannon-shot, and from various privations. They submitted, however, without a murmur, for their hearts were full of the cause of their country.

870. At length, a good many people having collected around Boston, and these being provided with a tolerable supply of weapons and warlike stores, they determined to get possession of a hill called

Bunker Hill, in Charlestown, about half a mile from Boston. Accordingly, they marched through the intervening marshes in the night, and when the British general got up in the morning, he saw the colonists like a swarm of bees on the top of the hill.

871. He was very much surprised and alarmed at this sight, for he perceived that they could direct their cannon-shot, from this position, into the very heart of Boston. So collecting his best troops, he made preparations for the attack. The colonists knew what was coming, and worked with assiduity. The British threw some cannon-shot amongst them from the ships, but they continued toiling at their intrenchments, scarcely paying any attention to the cannon-balls that howled through the air, or ploughed up the earth amongst them.

872. This was on the morning of the 17th of June, 1775. The people of Boston took a deep interest in what was going forward at Bunker Hill. They saw the British troops marching through the streets, and knew their purpose. It was a moment of fearful interest. The Bostonians gathered upon the hills and houses, that they might see the hill, where their countrymen were throwing up their breastworks.

873. At length, the troops reached Charlestown.

Having set the houses in the town on fire, they proceeded up the hill, and approached the intrenchments. Behind these, the defenders lay in long lines, keeping a perfect silence. But when the troops had come very near they took deliberate aim, and fired a deadly volley. The troops were taken by surprise, and many of them were stretched upon



BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL.

the field. They soon rallied, however, but were again driven back. A third time they returned to the charge, and the colonists, who had now exhausted

their powder and ball, were obliged to abandon their works.

874. Such was the battle of Bunker Hill, in which a thousand and fifty-four of the British were killed and wounded; and of the Americans four hundred and fifty-three. Its result was important to the colonists. They were defeated, indeed, but only through a deficiency of ammunition. It had now been proved that they were able to meet the regular soldiers of Great Britain, with the probability of triumph, if they could but be provided with adequate means.

875. The charm, then, of England's power seemed broken, and from this time it ceased to exercise its wonted influence over the minds of the people. Already persuaded of the justice of their cause, they now felt confident in their ability to maintain it.

876. Never, perhaps, was there a period, in any country, when the pulse of patriotism beat so full and strong as it did, at this hour of trial, in the breasts of the colonists. A few timid individuals, or men of opposite opinions, it is true, shrunk from the impending tempest, and either placed themselves under the protection of the British forces, or stood aloof from the conflict.

877. But by far the larger portion entered, heart and hand, into the cause. Private interests seemed for a time to be forgotten. Men forsook, as I have said, their occupations, and freely surrendered to the public use their goods and stores, and even the reluctant miser stretched wide the mouth of his purse, and gave its contents to aid the cause of the colonists.

LXIV. HISTORY, CONTINUED.

REVOLUTION, CONTINUED.

878. I do not propose, as I have before said, to give you a detailed account of the revolution. I shall therefore omit several interesting events which followed the battle of Bunker Hill. It is necessary, however, to state, that deputies were now sent from the several colonies, to consult upon the affairs of the contest. These met at Philadelphia, in May, 1775, forming what has been called the Continental Congress; and it may as well be remarked here, that this Congress continued in session throughout the revolution, and that the whole war was conducted under its direction.

879. On the 15th of June, two days before the battle of Bunker Hill, Congress had elected George

Washington commander-in-chief. Washington proceeded to the vicinity of Boston, and took immediate measures to organize an army.

880. He had to contend with great difficulties, but his skill, patience, and courage, enabled him to bring order out of confusion; and in the course of a few months, he compelled the whole of the British military forces to quit Boston, get into their ships, which lay in the harbour, and sail away. The evacuation of Boston took place on the 17th of March, 1776.

881. Perceiving that the enemy would now attempt to take New York, Washington proceeded to that city, where he mustered a considerable army. The British saw the necessity of making a great effort, and therefore sent over additional forces. These, were now hovering upon the coast, threatening the colonists. Yet, undismayed by the impending storm, the members of Congress drew up a solemn Declaration, that henceforward the colonists stood absolved from their allegiance to the king of Great Britain, and were, therefore, an independent people.

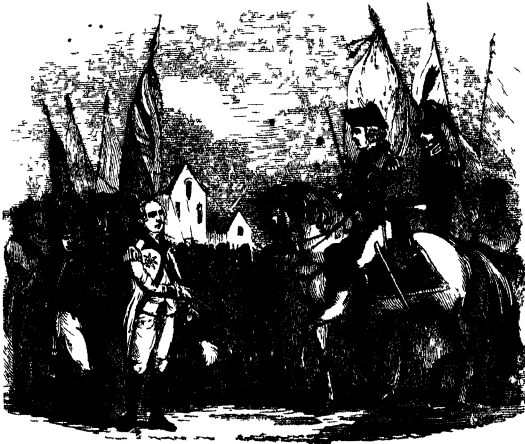
882. It was signed by every member of Congress, and on the 4th of July, 1776, it was sent forth to the world. This was the birthday of our freedom, and

on its annual return, as I have had occasion to signify, it has since been hailed as our national holiday. But our independence was not to be established by mere words. There were many hard blows to be dealt on both sides, before the dispute could be settled. In August, Washington was obliged to retreat from New York, and the British took possession of that city. The ensuing winter was a period of great gloom. Our forces were reduced, poverty and privation visited the camp, and nothing but the admirable fortitude of Washington, and the steady nerve of Congress, could have sustained the sinking spirits of the country.

883. The campaign of 1777 was however distinguished by a great and cheering event. The British army, of nearly ten thousand men, marching from Canada to join the British forces at New York, were captured at Saratoga, by the colonists, under General Gates. This was on the 7th of October. The whole country now rang with rejoicings, and well it might. A fatal blow had been given, from which the British never recovered. The French court took part in our cause, and sent fleets and armies to assist us. Thus aided, the war was maintained with vigour, though with varied success. Our armies were often defeated, but we continued to gain

strength, and rose up, from defeat, with added experience and redoubled power.

884. At length the closing event of the war drew near. Lord Cornwallis, a British general, had an army of about seven thousand men in the South. This was in camp with intrenchments at Yorktown, in Virginia. Washington, with his army, was near



SURRENDER OF CORNWALLIS.

New-York, watching the British in that city under Sir Henry Clinton. Without permitting Sir Henry

to guess his design, he suddenly marched to the south, and being joined by the French troops, attacked Cornwallis in his intrenchments. It was a fierce assault, and in a few days the British general, with his whole army, was compelled to surrender. This was on the 19th of October, 1781.

885. This splendid achievement was the last great event of the war. The British were now convinced that the attempt to subjugate the country was vain, and gradually withdrew their forces. In the following year the terms of peace between the two countries were agreed upon, and the independence of the United States formally acknowledged.

LXV. HISTORY, CONTINUED.

SKETCH OF EVENTS SINCE THE REVOLUTION.

886. THE war was now over, the cannon had ceased its roar, and the smoke of the battle had disappeared. The people were, therefore, left to consider other matters.

887. Our country had, indeed, achieved its independence. While the war continued, the minds of all were filled with the events of the struggle. That

being over, they had leisure to look around, and count the cost at which they had purchased freedom. And indeed it was a heavy reckoning. Thousands of lives had been lost, millions of treasure had been expended, sufferings which no tongue could tell had been endured. Nor was this all: towns and villages had been laid waste, the lands were untilled, houses had gone to decay, industry had been paralyzed, commerce annihilated, and almost every man's pocket had been drained.

888. A mighty task was now in the hands of the noble men who had been entrusted with the control of affairs, a constitutional form of government was to be agreed upon, laws to be enacted, and all that wondrous machinery to be contrived and set in operation, which is necessary to secure life and property to the citizen, and give encouragement to the great interests of commerce, agriculture, and manufactures. A crushed and wounded people was to be raised, healed, and opportunity given them to recover from the desolating effects of the war through which they had just passed.

889. This great work was nobly performed by a convention composed of delegates from the thirteen colonies, who assembled at Philadelphia, in May,

1787, and drew up the plan of the Constitution, which was presented to Congress and ratified by them, September 17th, in the same year, and then came into operation. Ten amendments were made December 15th, 1791, an eleventh, January 8th, 1798, and a twelfth, September 25th, 1804.

890. The provisions of the Constitution are given in Chap. 48. Washington was the first President, and the first Congress under the Constitution assembled at Philadelphia, which city continued the seat of government until it was removed to Washington in 1800, and now began that course of prosperity which astonished the world and peopled our land with the poor and overtaxed of other countries, who found in our virgin soil those means, not of subsistence only, but of affluence, which were not open to them at home.

891. In framing the Constitution, great care was exercised to preserve for each State its own rights, and this as will be seen hereafter gave rise to a claim for secession from the Union on the part of some of the States, especially those holding slaves, which caused, or threatened to cause, the disruption of the mightiest republic the world ever saw.

892. In 1812, Congress, at the recommendation of President Madison, declared war against Great Britain, which country was then deeply involved in war with the Emperor of France. Many brilliant actions were fought on both sides, but eventually the war was ended, Great Britain having taken Napoleon prisoner and sent him to the Island of Saint Helena, where he died in 1821.

893. In November, 1837, during the Presidency of Martin Van Buren, a portion of the French population of the British province of Lower Canada commenced an insurrection, which, in spite of a long course of inflammatory proceedings on the part of the insurgents, took the provincial and also the home government by some degree of surprise; so that though the time, the incidents, and the numbers engaged in the struggle were brief and limited, it required several short and sharp military encounters before order was perfectly restored.

894. The movement was confined to the district of Montreal, which abuts upon the States of Vermont, New Hampshire, and New York, yet much blood was shed, many prisoners taken, and a considerable amount of suffering endured by the unfortunate country

people, some of whom had been induced by the demagogues of the day to take up arms, while others suffered from their violence ; and a lawless spirit of disaffection began to betray itself among the people of these states, while there was perfect amity between the government of the United States and that of Great Britain.

895. As is at this time painfully apparent in the war of Secession, the torch of warfare or even of civil discord is seldom lighted without setting on fire a circle that is ever widening, either within or without the country, that first sees its flame. The example of the disaffected Canadians was instantly followed by a few brawling fellows and their unhappy followers in Upper Canada, and now the whole country had ample materials of excitement for the vicious, the visionary, and the ambitious,

896. Though adventurers from the United States could enter Canada in arms, either against the British government, or the peaceable Canadians, only as bandits, pirates, or robbers, these considerations were insufficient to deter a certain number from being led into that course of guilt and folly, some erred as the victims of a revolutionary madness,

while others were lured on by the hopes of plunder, or of notoriety.

897. The dispute between Great Britain and the United States, known as the "Boundary Question," at this time occupied much of public attention in both countries. It was surrounded with many difficulties which mainly arose through a geographical error, made in drawing up the treaty of Independence in the year 1783, and it was at one time feared that the different constructions placed on the terms of the treaty by the two governments, might lead to disastrous results, not so much on account of the extent of territory involved, as upon the importance of that territory to the government of Great Britain; forming, as it did, the route by which she could obtain ready access from the Atlantic Ocean into Canada, in the winter season.

898. The difficulty on the part of the United States, being that, however much the government of the States might be convinced of the correctness of the views of Great Britain, they had no power whatever to cede any portion of the territory in question, without the consent of the State of Maine, which was determinedly refused: happily the good feeling and

friendship that subsisted between the two powers, enabled them to conclude arrangements to their mutual satisfaction, and thus a war was (most probably) averted; which, had it occurred, would have been the greatest calamity of the age.

899. Since the settlement of this "Boundary question," there have been no misunderstandings between the United States and other governments, than those minor ones which have readily yielded to diplomatic agency.

900. The various kingdoms of the Old World have found in the United States, an outlet for their super-abundant population; vast numbers having left the heavily taxed land of their fathers and found a home and prosperity in the "Land of the West." Between the years 1819 and 1860, more than five million (5,062,414) emigrants, or natives of foreign countries, have landed in America; of these, 1,486,044 were natives of Germany, while 1,425,018 were subjects of Great Britain, Ireland supplying much the larger quota. It is cheering to know that these emigrants (many of whom have been compelled to leave their native country by their inability either to procure a living for themselves or to see a prospect of

establishing their children), do not forget those they leave behind, but are careful to remit money from time to time to enable other members of their family, or their acquaintances, to join them in the land of plenty.

CHAPTER LXVI.

901. The prosperity of the United States is sufficiently vouched for, in the statements I am now going to lay before you. The imports in 1830, as before stated, were valued at one hundred and ten million (110,000,000) dollars, increased in 1861 to three hundred and thirty-five millions, six hundred and fifty thousand, one hundred and fifty-three (335,650,153) dollars, while the exports, which at the previous date were valued at one hundred million (100,000,000) dollars, had risen in 1860, to three hundred and seventy-three millions, one hundred and eighty-nine thousand, two hundred and seventy-four (373,189,274) dollars, and the population estimated in 1830 at fourteen millions (14,000,000) had increased in 1860 to thirty-one millions, four hundred and forty-five thousand and eighty (31,445,080), of which number twenty-

six millions, nine hundred and seventy-five thousand, five hundred and seventy-five (26,975,575) were whites, four hundred and eighty-eight thousand and five (488,005) were free coloured people, and three millions, nine hundred and fifty-three thousand, seven hundred and sixty (3,953,760) were slaves. But in order that those of my young friends who are sufficiently interested or industrious, may have an opportunity of exercising these qualities, I here give you a new tabular statement, by which you will be able to ascertain and compare the variations in the population of the various states in 1860, with what it was in 1830 as stated on page 241.

States.	White.	Free Col.	Indians.	Slaves.	Total.
Alabama - -	526,271	2,690	160	435,086	964,201
Arkansas - -	324,143	144	48	111,115	435,456
California - -	338,005	4,086	14,555	—	379,994
Connecticut - -	451,504	8,627	16	—	460,147
Delaware - -	90,589	19,829	—	1,798	112,216
Florida - -	77,747	932	1	61,745	140,425
Georgia - -	591,550	3,500	38	462,198	1,057,286
Illinois - -	1,704,291	7,628	32	—	1,711,951
Indiana - -	1,338,710	11,428	290	—	1,350,428
Iowa - -	678,779	1,104	65	—	674,948
Kansas - -	106,390	625	189	2	107,206
Kentucky - -	919,484	10,684	33	225,483	1,155,684
Louisiana - -	357,456	18,647	173	331,726	708,002
Maine - -	626,947	1,327	5	—	628,279
Maryland - -	515,918	83,942	—	87,189	687,049

POPULATION OF EACH STATE.

361

States.	White.	Free Col.	Indians.	Slaves.	Total.
Massachusetts -	1,221,432	9,602	32	—	1,231,066
Michigan - -	739,799	6,799	2,155	—	749,113
Minnesota - -	171,227	259	2,369	—	173,855
Mississippi -	353,899	773	2	436,631	791,305
Missouri - -	1,063,489	3,572	20	114,931	1,182,012
New Hampshire	325,579	494	—	—	326,073
New Jersey -	646,699	25,318	—	18	672,035
New York - -	3,831,590	49,005	140	—	3,880,735
North Carolina	629,942	30,463	1,158	331,059	992,622
Ohio - - -	2,302,808	36,664	30	—	2,339,502
Oregon - - -	52,160	128	177	—	52,465
Pennsylvania -	2,849,259	56,849	7	—	2,906,115
Rhode Island -	170,649	3,952	19	—	174,620
South Carolina	291,300	9,914	88	402,406	703,708
Tennessee - -	826,722	7,300	60	275,719	1,109,801
Texas - - -	420,891	655	403	182,566	604,215
Vermont - - -	314,369	709	20	—	315,098
Virginia - - -	1,047,299	58,042	112	490,865	1,596,318
Wisconsin - -	773,693	1,171	613	—	775,801
Colorado - - -	34,231	46	—	—	34,277
Dakota - - -	2,576	—	2,261	—	4,837
Columbia - - -	60,763	11,131	1	3,185	75,080
Nebraska - - -	28,696	67	63	15	28,841
Nevada - - -	6,812	45	—	—	6,857
New Mexico - -	82,979	85	10,452	—	93,516
Utah - - -	40,125	30	89	29	40,273
Washington - -	11,138	30	426	—	11,594

26,966,662 487,996 36,662 3,953,760 31,445,080

902. You will at once see that this table affords other information besides the mere population of each state; by its subdivisions it shows the slave states and those least civilized, or those in which there are the

greatest number of Indians, and you will also perceive that the increase of the population in the free states is much greater than in the slave states; this is owing to the fact that there is no rapid increase among the slaves, and that in consequence of the ordinary work of the plantation being performed by the slaves, there is only occasionally need for the employment of free white men when works of skill or ingenuity are necessary; these skilful labourers are mostly natives of Ireland or Germany, under the charge of resident gangsmen, who contract for the work and pay the labourers, taking the overplus for their profit. The planters generally complain of the high prices they have to pay for this kind of labour, but we must remember they look at the question from their standpoint of slavery, where they have merely to provide their slaves with a sufficient quantity of coarse food and scanty clothing to enable them to continue their toil.

903. Visitors to the Southern States hear strange remarks about the Old Country, as they call England. At the commencement of the war it seemed to be a matter of course that England must recognise the Confederate States, because her great cotton manu-

facture was mainly dependent on them for the raw material, indeed, some of the planters seemed to think that the whole of the gigantic commercial system of Great Britain was dependent on the Confederate States of America, but my young friends, I dare say, know, that although in 1862-3 our trade with America was almost destroyed, the whole trade of Great Britain was considerably greater than in preceding years.

904. In enumerating the causes which led to the rupture between the United or the Federal States (as they were called) and the seceding or Confederate States, it will be necessary to refer to the causes which led to the rupture between the American Colonies and the Mother Country, to the constitution of the United States, to the States of which succeeding presidents have been natives, or in which they resided, and to the aspect of affairs at the time of the secession taking place.

905. First, then, as to the cause of rupture between the American Colonies and Great Britain. It has been already shown that under the protection of the Home Government, the Americans had prospered in every way, and although many, among

TALES ABOUT THE UNITED STATES.

them had great love and veneration for the old country, yet a large number thought that England had no right to tax American industry, without the consent of the American people, and, therefore, they petitioned the king and government of Great Britain to give them a parliament, so that they might manage their own affairs in their own way. Failing in obtaining this they refused to pay the taxes imposed, especially a tax upon tea; Great Britain endeavoured to coerce them, they resisted, succeeded in their resistance, and thence became independent.

906. 'In preparing the constitution of the country, such was the unanimity of the various states, that though every care was taken to provide against the interference of foreign countries, it does not seem to have been expected that these very States might also change their opinions, or feel desirous to leave the union. Great care was taken to preserve "State Rights," and thus it appeared that the Union was composed of independent states, the peoples of which agreed to bind themselves together, to appoint a President and Government who should take the entire management of all matters relative to their transactions with foreign governments, or on matters

of foreign policy, while possessing their own Governors and managing their internal affairs in their own way.

907. This is a rather dry disquisition, but it is necessary that my readers may understand the question of secession. Abraham Lincoln is the sixteenth President of the United States; nine have sprung from the now seceding States, and most of the remaining seven were men who have been representatives of the Southern feeling. The late President, James Buchanan, was eminently so, most of his ministers holding similar opinions.

908. Now, if we remember that the election of President takes place on the first Tuesday in November, and that he is not inaugurated, that is, does not take office till the fourth of March in the following year, we shall easily understand how a President and Cabinet favourable to the South, and knowing, or surmising their intention to secede, should be able to dispose of the army, navy, and munitions of war so as to place them in the hands of their friends, and leave the Federal States (for the time) nearly defenceless. This is what we are told the Cabinet of President Buchanan did, and so it was that when the seceding States had determined on their course,

TALES ABOUT THE UNITED STATES.

the Federal government found they had not only to create an army, but a navy, and all the material for carrying on war; hence their indecision at the commencement of the contest.

909. Hostilities began on the 14th April, 1861, in consequence of the Federals sending vessels to relieve Fort Sumter, one of the forts erected for the protection of Charleston, when the Confederates opened fire on the fort, and eventually it was surrendered to them by the commander, Major Anderson.

CHAPTER LXVII.

Russell, in his Diary, tells us that when the cannonade was at its height, and the fort, in flames, was reduced almost to silence, Colonel Wigfall put off from the shore in a small boat and steering right through the shot and splashing waters approached the walls. Holding up a white handkerchief on the end of his sword, he landed on the quay, clambered through an embrasure, and presented himself to the astonished Federals with a proposal to surrender, quite unauthorised, and "on his own hook," which led to the final capitulation of Major Anderson.

910. To show the miseries of this cruel conflict, the desolation of homes and the bitterness of feeling engendered, I will now tell you an anecdote taken from the same source. Captain Adams of the United States Navy was by birth a Pennsylvanian, and had married a lady who was a native of Louisiana (one of the seceding States), where he resided till his ship was put in commission. He was absent on foreign service when the war broke out, and received orders at sea to proceed direct to blockade Pensacola, where he heard that one of his sons had enlisted in the Confederate Army, that two others had joined the forces in Virginia—but this was not all, a gentleman brought him a letter from his daughter, in which she informed him she had been elected *vivandière* to a New Orleans regiment, and concluded with the unfilial wish that her father might be starved to death, if he persisted in his wicked blockade. It was pitiable to behold the emotion of the veteran, as he said, "God knows when I open my broadside, but that I may be killing my own children." Yet the gallant old sailor determined to do his duty to the Federal government.

911. When hostilities were inevitable, the

government of the Federal States found they had only a few hundred regulars, and some hastily-levied militia to defend Washington, the capital, but the States that remained loyal soon gave their support, and though there was much jealousy of an infringement of "State Rights," a considerable army of Volunteers were got together, most of whom had enlisted for a hundred days, as it was confidently asserted the struggle would be over in that time, and the union of the States maintained. Those who indulged such hopes were, however, doomed to disappointment, they had made the mistake of undervaluing their opponents.

912. It would be impossible in this limited space to give anything like a complete history of this deplorable war, but I will tell you of some of the battles that have taken place on land and at sea.

913. Passing over many skirmishes we come to the battle of Bull's Run, which was fought July -21, 1862. The Confederates were posted at Bull's Run, in a strongly entrenched position; General McDowell, who commanded the Federal (volunteer) army, having made his arrangements marched from Washington a short time previously, and the appearance

HISTORY—BULL'S RUN.

of the fight, or rather retreat, is thus described by Russell, correspondent of the "Times."—As he was nearing the scene of action, he met a body of Federal troops marching "without any semblance of order, in twos and threes or larger troops, some without arms carrying great bundles on their backs; others with coats hung from their fire-locks; many footsore;" he asked an officer, "May I beg to know, sir, where your regiment is going to?" "Well, I reckon we are going home to Pennsylvania." "I should think there is severe fighting going on behind you judging from the firing?" "Well I reckon, sir, there is," he replied. A pause now ensued, the enquirer being anxious for an explanation, at last the officer said, "We are going home, because, as you see, the men's time is up, sir. We have had three months of this sort of work, and that's quite enough of it."

914. Afterwards, he describes the complete rout and disorganisation of the Federal troops, who made the best of their way back again to Washington, defying all attempts to rally or stop them: but it must be borne in mind these were raw levies, undisciplined, and many having only enlisted for three months, they did not feel it incumbent on them to

stay an hour longer than the time agreed for, even though in going home they deserted their comrades; and were one cause of their being thrown into disorder; but all this is altered now, the peculiarities of the war, the vast extent of country on which they have to contend, and the numerous battles in which they have been engaged, have changed the whilom raw levies into veteran soldiers.

915. Here we may take occasion to remind our readers that as the inhabitants of the slave states depended on the Northern, or Federal States, for almost every useful article, the South not being a manufacturing, but an agricultural country; so, while the officers in the Federal army, being members of peaceful professions, or engaged in businesses, knew little or nothing (with few exceptions) of military science, many of the Southerners had received their education at the famous Military Academy of West Point, and thus knew much more (theoretically) of the art of war than their opponents. This may be one reason why the Confederates have been able with all foreign supplies cut off by the blockade to maintain a bold front by their own efforts, while the Federal have had all their ports open, and been able to send large numbers of mercenaries into the field.

916. I trust no Englishman of the present day will be found to advocate slavery. The price which England cheerfully paid to abolish the hateful system in all her dependencies, in 1833, sufficiently proves her abhorrence of the infamous traffic, and sooner or later it must be abolished everywhere. Now the Federals wish it to be understood that this war is caused by their desire to restrict slavery to the narrowest possible compass, while the Confederates tell us it is because of their asserting their right to govern themselves, and a determination to use that right, and their dislike to the Morel Tariff, which imposed exceptional duties on goods imported and exported by the South, such duties being for the benefit of the Central government, or, as they put it, for the benefit of the Federal States.

917. It is true that President Lincoln, on the first of January, 1863, issued a proclamation for the total abolition of slavery in the whole of the states, but then travellers tell us that the negro is treated as an inferior animal in all the free states, and that the white inhabitants do not admit his equality with themselves in any way, nor do they allow him to occupy the same carriages in travelling, or the same places of worship as themselves.

CHAPTER LXVIII.

918. THE battle of Bull's Run produced an immense effect on all sides. The South was exultant, and Europeans of sanguine temperament prophesied the certain success of the seceders. In the Northern States, however, it was felt that the disgrace must be wiped out at any cost, and the President called for five hundred thousand volunteers, which were soon forthcoming. General M'Clellan was appointed to command the fresh levies, being summoned from Western Virginia for this purpose. He at once, with such quiet earnestness, set about the difficult task of forming a mob into an army, and evinced such thorough ability, that (on the resignation of General Scott, whose age and increasing infirmities precluded his undergoing all the hardships incident to a state of warfare) he was appointed Commander-in-chief.

919. While M'Clellan was engaged in reorganizing the army, the Federals suffered a defeat at Lexington, and, again, at Bull's Bluff the Southern men were victors, driving their opponents from the field, and compelling them to recross the Potomac; and now at the close of 1861, in nine of the States

of the old American union, there was not the least trace of the former government, while the Southern armies were victorious everywhere.

920. The year 1862 opened more favourably for the Union armies. In the month of January, they gained a victory over a body of Southerners, who attacked them at Mill Springs, in Kentucky. In February, General Grant captured Fort Henry, on the borders of Tennessee. He afterwards attacked Fort Donaldson, containing a garrison of fifteen thousand men, who, having repulsed the attack of the Federal gunboats, sallied forth, and for a time drove the besiegers before them, but, being overwhelmed by numbers; were obliged to fall back upon the fort. This failure was fatal; the garrison saw they would soon be surrounded, and, therefore, preferred surrendering at once to being starved into submission.

921. After his victory at Fort Donaldson, Grant, with forty thousand men, halted at Pittsburgh Landing, on the Southern bank of the Tennessee. The Confederates being in force at Corinth, under Generals Beauregard and A. S. Johnston, and surmising that the Federals would shortly be reinforced, determined to attack them before the expected succour should

arrive. The attack was made on the 7th of April, by forty-five thousand Southerners. The Northern army had made no preparations to receive their enemies, and being surprised fell back in all directions, and, but for the death of Johnston, the rout would have been complete. On the following day the fight was renewed, the Federals having been strongly reinforced by an army composed of experienced soldiers under General Buell. The Confederates were now considerably outnumbered, but gallantly continued the battle, holding their enemy in check till Beauregard, seeing the struggle was hopeless against such odds, gave the order to retreat. The loss on each side was about ten thousand men.

922. Leaving the Northern army flushed with victory, and the Southern correspondingly depressed, let us just glance at the naval operations of the North (for it will be remembered that with all her ports blockaded the South had no navy). An expedition to North Carolina under Burnside, resulted in the capture of Roanoke Island, and some towns on the coast, farther south, many other points on the coast also fell into their hands, including Fort Pulaski and Fernandino Florida.

923. It had long been a favourite project of the Federals to capture New Orleans, which obtained the name of "the hot-bed of secession." To effect this purpose a formidable military and naval expedition under Butler and Farragut advanced up the Mississippi in the latter part of April. On the 24th fire was opened on Forts Philip and Jackson, which were subjected to a terrific bombardment; but the Admiral, finding he was not able to effect their reduction in so short a time as he wished, conceived the daring project of driving his ships past them up the river, and this he successfully accomplished in the midst of such a storm of fire as was seldom witnessed, and notwithstanding all the obstructions of booms, torpedoes, gunboats, &c. This daring act of the gallant Admiral was rewarded by the capture of New Orleans, and the subsequent surrender of the forts, which had so vainly attempted to impede his passage. Thus the crescent city was in the hands of the North, and her citizens in the power of Butler, who, it is stated, used his power infamously, treating, not men only, but women and children with brutal severity.

924. The first half of 1862 was a disastrous one for the Confederates; their armies were almost every-

where in retreat, while the coast towns were continually harassed by naval attacks, and M'Clellan was advancing on Richmond. . He carried his army down the Potomac river to the Peninsula, lying between the York and James' rivers, and after a few unimportant engagements succeeded in establishing his lines along the banks of the Chickahominy, within sight of the capital of the Confederates. But it was soon seen that he had reached the utmost limit of his advance, and the Confederates, perceiving M'Clellan's weakness, determined to assume the offensive.

925. At the battle of Seven Pines, the fortune of war turned decidedly against the North. After a desperate fight, they were badly beaten and compelled to make arrangements for retreating, not only from their lines on the Chickahominy, but from the Peninsula.

926. GENERAL LEE was now in command of the Confederates, and determining to follow up his advantage, fought out the series of sanguinary contests which will ever be known in the history of this cruel war, as "the Seven Days before Richmond." During the whole of these seven days, battle followed battle with such startling rapidity, that the Federals were

compelled to retreat, being defeated at Mechanics Ville, Gainsmill, White Oak Swamp, Peach Orchard, and Savage Station. Having reached Malvern Hill on the James' River, and within helping distance of the gunboats, M'Clellan made a determined stand and defied all the attempts of the Confederates to move him.

927. Lee, finding it useless to waste his army in this position of affairs, turned his attention northward and dispatched "Stonewall"* Jackson with a large force, to assail the Federals in Northern Virginia. Jackson found General Pope's army in position at Manasses (near the old battle-field of Bull's Run), and drove them before him like a flock of scared sheep. The tide of war seemed now to be setting strongly in favour of the Confederates, for while in May they were in retreat and acting merely on the defensive, in autumn disaster seemed to attend the Federals wherever they marched. Lee succeeded, by threatening Washington, in transferring the seat of war from Virginia to Maryland, necessitating the recall of M'Clellan from the Peninsula to protect Washington.

* So called from the firmness with which he withstood the Federals at Bull's Run—"like a stone wall."

928. In the meantime, Bragg had advanced the Confederate standards from the borders of Tennessee to the banks of the Ohio, threatening Cincinnati and all the chief towns of Northern Kentucky. When Lee crossed the Potomac, Stonewall Jackson was left to reduce Harper's Ferry, which surrendered, with its garrison of eleven thousand men, after a miserable show of resistance ; Munfordsville in Kentucky was also given up, five thousand Federals laying down their arms on the mere summons of the Confederates. Jackson's soldiers, flushed with these successes, hastened to relieve Lee, now hard pressed by the reviving spirits of the Northern men. * M'Cléllan, whose army it will be remembered had been summoned to the defence of Washington, was ordered by President Lincoln to drive the Confederates across the Potomac, and he readily undertook the task of doing so.

929. On the 14th September, General Hooker attacked the advanced guard of the Confederates at South Mountains in Maryland, and drove them from their strong position. The result of this movement was a general engagement on the 17th, between the entire force of both armies, on the banks of the Antietam, a tributary of the Potomac. Both armies

passed the previous night on the ground they were



to fight for, and the roll of musketry commenced with the first glimmer of daylight. Hooker, who commanded the Federal right, directed all his efforts against the Confederate left, but Stonewall Jackson met charge by charge, and though often driven back, recovered his ground almost as quickly as it was lost. Towards evening Lee drew back his left to strengthen

his lines, but Hooker being wounded was prevented from following up this advantage. Both armies again passed the night, on the battle-field, where now twenty thousand men lay dead or wounded. Lee, finding it hopeless to expect a Secessionist rising in Maryland, did not deem it prudent to risk another battle, and therefore retired across the Potomac into Virginia.

930. The Confederates were greatly elated by these successes, but already the fortune of war seemed about to change. They were badly beaten in an assault on the Federals under Rosencrans, at Juka and Corinth, and Bragg was compelled to fight a battle at Perryville, where he was beaten and forced to retire. At this time it appeared that both sides were satiated with slaughter, and contented themselves with a species of guerilla" warfare, first inaugurated by the Confederates, in which Stuart was especially distinguished by the adroitness with which he dashed completely round the Federal army and escaped scot-free.

CHAPTER LXIX.

931. This temporary lull was broken in upon by the loud demands of the Northern men for a renewal

of the attack upon Richmond, and some hesitation being displayed by M'Clellan, he was superseded by Burnside, who had won a name by his conduct in the North Carolina expedition. The ever watchful Lee, anticipating the intention of the Federal commander, retired to the south side of the Rappahannock, and took up a strongly entrenched position on the heights behind Fredericksburg.

932. Burnside commenced the bombardment of Fredericksburg on the 11th December, and on the following day, taking advantage of a thick fog, he crossed the river on a bridge of boats, and drove the Confederate pickets from the town. On the morning of the 13th, the entire Federal force advanced on the heights held by the Confederates under Lee, Longstreet, and Stonewall Jackson. The utmost gallantry was displayed in this attack; the Irish brigade deserve honourable mention, for they made six different charges on the position of Lee, and were almost annihilated by the crushing storm of shot and shell poured in by the Confederates. The Federals, finding it impossible to stand their ground, were beaten back, and after a day's rest recrossed the Rappahannock baffled, beaten, and demoralized.

933. The defeat of the army intended for the

reduction of the Confederate capital was the cause of much gloom and despondency in the North. The President was assailed on all sides by requests to form a new cabinet, and appoint better generals. Burnside, however, took the whole blame of the defeat at Fredericksburg on himself, and thus lost the command of the army of the Potomac, which now devolved on General Hooker.

934. The war had now endured twenty months with such varying success, that the sanguine unionists, who had prophesied that secession would be at an end in ninety days, were utterly confounded. The end of 1862 found the Federals in a state of despondency, their grand army had been routed, but both sides had been taught some valuable lessons and the aspect of affairs was soon to be changed.

935. On the last day of 1862 began the series of conflicts between the Federals under Rosencrans and the Confederates under Bragg, at Murfreesburg, in Tennessee. The latter were victors in the first day's fighting. The Federal right wing was broken by a dashing charge, and thirty pieces of cannon fell into the hands of the Confederates, while their cavalry dashed round the enemy's lines, capturing waggons,

ambulances, and stores. On the following day the Federal lines were strengthened, and opposed a compact mass which resisted all the attempts of the Confederates to make an impression on them. The armies were equally matched, being each composed of about fifty thousand men; but after three days of hard fighting the Confederates were beaten and compelled to fall back, each side having lost about ten thousand men.

936. Preparations were made in the latter part of April for another movement against Richmond. General Hooker had superseded Burnside as commander of the army of the Potomac, and not caring to attack Lee in his position behind Fredericksburg, carried his army up the Rappahannock, which he crossed at some distance above Fredericksburg, and suddenly appeared on the left of the Confederates, threatening to cut off Lee's communication with Richmond.

937. Hooker having despatched Stoneman to cut up the roads in the rear of the Confederates, and charged Sedgwick to occupy the heights of Fredericksburg as soon as they were abandoned by Lee, was so elated by his disposition that he issued his memorable

address to his soldiers, in which he declared "*the rebel army the legitimate property of the army of the Potomac.*" Lee, however, was aware of his danger, and turned his whole force to meet his antagonist, despatching the renowned "Stonewall" Jackson to turn the right of the Federals at Chancellorsville. Jackson fell suddenly on Hooker's German division, which he drove from the field; the Federals narrowly escaping a total defeat.

938. On the following day Jackson again attacked the Federals, but on this occasion Hooker was able to withstand the attack; though they were thoroughly checked, Lee now turned his attention to Sedgwick, who had occupied the heights so recently held by the Confederate force. After a sanguinary fight the Federals were thrown back across the Rappahannock, and Hooker, baffled in his attempt, if not beaten, retreated to his former position, having lost twenty thousand men in his attempt to give to his soldiers what he had vaingloriously styled "*their legitimate property.*"

939. This victory was a very costly one for the Confederates. Stonewall Jackson, the simple, earnest, prayerful warrior, fell, not indeed by the hands of the

Federals, but by a chance shot from one of his own men, by all of whom he was almost idolized. Even his enemies were proud of him. His loss was never retrieved.

940. Urged by politicians and theorists, but (it is believed) against his own judgment, Lee made preparations for invading Maryland, and before Hooker could surmise what his movements were intended to effect, the Confederate General had transferred the greater part of his forces to the Shenandoah on the way to the Potomac. On this march he routed and nearly annihilated a considerable detachment of Federals under General Milroy at Winchester, and crossing Maryland entered Pennsylvania.

941. The Federals commenced a vigorous pursuit, and Lee finding that his communications were threatened, turned, with the intention of massing his forces at Gettysburgh, but General Meade, who had recently been appointed to command the Federal army, seized the heights facing that place before Lee could bring his entire forces together. On the first of July the desperate battles (to which this place gives their distinguishing name) commenced. A portion of the Federal army under Reynolds, in their too great

eagerness to strike the first blow were signally repulsed and driven back on the main body, Reynolds being killed.

942. Meade's army was strongly posted, but the Confederates boldly attacked it on the second of July, and after an impetuous assault succeeded in driving back Meade's left, which was too far in advance of the main body. Meade at once reinforced the assaulted divisions, and Lee was compelled to change his order of attack; making a furious onslaught on the left centre of the Federals, he carried the slope of the height on which they were posted.

943. Meade's artillery was now brought to bear on the attacking force, and tore such gaps through them that they were compelled to relinquish their success in that quarter. They, however, succeeded in making some impression on the Federal right, when night put a stop to further effort. At daylight Meade reinforced his weakened division, and after some sharp fighting recovered the ground he had lost on the previous day. This struggle was over before mid-day, and an ominous silence succeeded the roar and turmoil of battle.

944. The roar of one hundred and thirty Confederate cannon at once breaks the silence, and when

the smoke clears away, Longstreet's division is seen charging up the hill on which the Federal troops are massed. Meade's artillery opens upon them, and, though their ranks are torn and lanes made through them, yet bravely they press on, reach their enemies and push them back. The Federals are retreating, the Confederate shout rings exultant, and again they renew their effort, but Meade quickly brings forward his reserve, and the wearied Confederates having done all that men could do, are forced to retire before superior numbers. Three times during this day did the Confederates charge with most unflinching courage, but were compelled to retreat by the superior numbers opposed to them.

945. Pickett made one daring effort and for the time the Federals gave way before him, but he was without supports or ammunition, surrounded by overwhelming numbers and exposed to such a cannonade as never before shook a battle-field, and was obliged reluctantly to retire, and leave the Federals masters of the field. We have no precise data upon which to fix the numbers lost by the Federals in these desperate battles, but may here note, that the whole history of the war of Secession has taught us that the principal loss is

ever with the attacking party. The Confederate General lost nearly fifteen thousand men of the very flower of his army and now slowly retreated into Virginia—Meade following at a respectful distance—neither side caring to lessen that distance, but keeping a strict watch on each other for the remainder of the year, each holding or claiming to hold the other in check.

CHAPTER LXX.

946. The operations against Vicksburg and Port Hudson which were set on foot in 1863, had for their ulterior object the opening up of the Mississippi to the Federals ; this effected, the Confederate States would have been divided, and a base of operations opened to the Federals which would have been of the utmost benefit to them. We can easily conceive the anxiety displayed, the one to gain and the other to frustrate this object. The whole contest was carried on in that space which stretches between the two places named, and in which the Red river (with its customary and much needed freights of cattle, salt, and such provisions

and other necessaries as find their way from Matamoras) debouches.

947. The Confederate President was so keenly alive to the importance of this position, that he told the people of Vicksburg when the bulwarks of their town fell, the Confederacy would fall also. To effect this much desired object, Grant, the Federal Commander essayed to cut a canal across that part of the bank opposite the town, round which the river makes a half circuit. This scheme failing, an attempt was made to open a new bed for the Mississippi through Louisiana to the Red river, but this also proved abortive.

948. The Federals having failed in their engineering, determined to try what could be achieved by dash and daring. Admiral Porter, who commanded the Federal fleet above Vicksburg, lost two of his vessels, which were taken possession of by the Confederates after they had run past the forts. Satisfied with this he made no further attempt. But Farragut, who was in the command of the fleet in the lower Mississippi, bringing the same intrepidity that he displayed at New Orleans into play, dashed past the thundering batteries of Port Hudson, destroyed the

Confederate transports, captured Natchez, drove away the Southern fleet, and effected a junction with Porter, who ran past Vicksburg to meet him.

949. While success had so far crowned the operations of the Federal fleet, those on land were prosecuted with unflagging vigour. A troop of Northern cavalry swept through the State of Mississippi and cut all communication between Vicksburg and the east, finally effecting a junction with the main army at New Orleans.

950. In May, the Federal army under Grant, which was encamped on the Western bank of the Mississippi, crossed that river below Vicksburg; after some minor successes he reached Jackson, and having defeated the Confederates at Champion Hill, he forced them to take shelter in Vicksburg, which he endeavoured to carry by storm but failed, and it was evident a siege was necessary to reduce the place. Siege operations were at once commenced and continued till the 4th July, when the Confederates being starved out, surrendered, and Port Hudson which had been invested about the same time as Vicksburg shortly followed suit, thus leaving the Mississippi open to the Federals, so that steamers could pass up and

down unmolested save by occasional shots from Southern guerillas.

951. When Vicksburg and Port Hudson had succumbed, the Federal forces in Tennessee advanced, and Bragg the Confederate General being outnumbered retired to the frontier of Georgia, Rosencrans following in pursuit, taking Chattanooga in his route. After much manœuvring, in which Rosencrans usually had the advantage, Longstreet and Hood united their forces with Bragg, and it was determined to assume the offensive. On the 19th September the Southerners attacked the Unionists under Thomas whose forces composed the right wing of the Federals, at Chickamanga, but were decidedly repulsed; on the following day they dashed at the right wing; drove it back and pierced the centre; by this success the army of Rosencrans was so completely routed, that the fugitives made the best of their way to Chattanooga, the division under Thomas held their ground and at night retired in good order to join the remains of the beaten Federals under Rosencrans.

952. The Federal forces sheltered by the fortifications of Chattanooga now defied all attempts of Bragg, who posted his forces on Look-out Mountain and

Missionary Ridge, so as to keep a watch on the town: Grant superseded Rosencrans. Hooker was sent to his aid and Sherman was summoned from Vicksburg to take part in the attempt to retrieve the lost credit of the Federals. Notwithstanding their enormous preparations—which ought to have been known by the Confederates—Bragg's forces were weakened by the absence of Longstreet, who was skirmishing in eastern Tennessee with Burnside, by whom he was beaten.

953. The 25th November was fixed upon by the Federalists for their grand attack, and that day the whole army issued from the lately besieged town. The left wing, under Sherman, succeeded after many repulses in driving the Confederates from Missionary Ridge, the other division advanced at a run up the sides of Look-out Mountain and pushed their enemies completely into the valley on the opposite side.

954. Thus ended the greatest sortie the world ever saw. The Confederates were defeated and the whole army fled from the field thoroughly beaten and disorganized.

CHAPTER LXXI.

955 Great efforts were made by the Confederates in the early part of 1864 to retrieve their losses; the year 1863 had closed in very gloomily upon them, for their armies had been everywhere beaten, and their resources diminished, but fortune again seemed inclined to smile upon them. A Federal cavalry force despatched from Tennessee to co-operate with Sherman, in a dash across Mississippi, was so badly beaten that the latter General was obliged to relinquish his purpose. In Florida, the Confederates completely routed a Federal force. Forrest succeeded in a guerilla campaign in Tennessee, cutting the negro garrison at Fort Pillow to pieces. Hoke gallantly captured Plymouth; and a splendid army under Grant, which was intended to proceed by the Red River into Louisiana, was totally routed by the Confederates under Kirby Smith. At one time the whole force, with the fleet of transports, were in danger of capture from the falling of the Red River, but Baily, a Federal engineer, raised the water by a dam, and then cutting a sluice sent them down on the flood.

956. Ulysses Grant was now appointed Lieutenant-general of all the Federal forces, and having established his camp, in Virginia, he commenced the re-organization of the army of the Potomac, with a view to the reduction of the fortress of Richmond. In the pursuance of this object, Sigel was directed to move a supporting column down the Shenandoah, while Butler, with a large force, was to co-operate with a large force, which was to move up the James River, in the direction of the doomed city. Grant, with the main body, crossed the Rapidan, and found General Lee waiting for him on the opposite bank.

957. The fighting began at the wilderness on the 6th, and was continued on the 7th, 8th, 9th, 10th, 11th, and 12th, and, perhaps, never was there such an appalling slaughter since men met in mortal strife. Yet, notwithstanding the superior numbers of the Northern army, Lee maintained his position, and Grant, finding he could not succeed by direct attack, tried a flanking movement, but Lee anticipated the attempt and defeated it. Manœuvring was now resorted to ; Grant withdrawing, attacking, changing his ground, but still met and held in check by the indomitable Lee.

958. Thus repulsed at every point, with his

army too near Richmond to permit another flanking movement, Grant made a bold dash at the Confederate lines, but so deadly was the fire of the Southerners, that the attacking forces were beaten off in ten minutes, and Grant, finding it impossible to reach Richmond from the North, effected a junction with Butler, and attacked Petersburg only to be again repulsed. Baffled in his aim he now began a regular siege of Petersburg. Meanwhile, Lee, feeling himself secure for the present at Richmond, despatched a force, under Ewell, into Maryland.

959. In a fight in the Shenandoah Valley, the Confederates were victorious, and crossing the Potomac they beat the Federals again on the Monocacy, threatened Washington, and leisurely retired with considerable booty. At this time the Federal General Sherman was driving the Confederates before him in Georgia, their General, Johnston, being outnumbered and outmanœuvred. After the capture of Rome by the Federals, Johnston took up a position on the Alatoona Mountains, and Sherman attempted to move round him; but Johnston turned upon the flanking division and fought "a brilliant battle, lasting, with intervals, for three days;" neither side gaining any decided advantage.

960. After this, the Confederate General retired to Mairetta, where he remained for a month keeping Sherman at bay. But Sherman's superior numbers and strategy compelled him to retreat to Kencaw Mountain, where he made a bold stand, and inflicted great damage on his assailants. He was, however, again forced to retreat, and the Confederates superseded Johnston by Hood, who strove to drive Sherman away by a number of furious attacks; but they reckoned without their host; Sherman was not only successful in repulsing all their attacks, but he compelled Hood to evacuate Atlanta, of which he took possession, thus accomplishing one of the main objects of his campaign.

961. In the prosecution of this terrible warfare, many circumstances have arisen which deserve the particular attention of all maritime powers—the introduction of the peculiar class of steam ships, of which the Monitor and the Merrimac were the first examples, is one of them.

962. I have not space to describe the peculiarities of these vessels, but they were both of an entirely different construction to any previously seen. I may just state that the Monitor sat extremely low in the

water, and had her heaviest guns mounted inside a tower or turret of iron, and which protected the turret gunners from the fire of her adversary, and, being circular, the shot glanced off without doing much injury, and was capable of being turned round so as to bring the guns to bear on any given point.

963. The Merrimac was a rudely extemporised vessel, having her gunners protected by a raised iron shield, that ran nearly the whole length of the deck; the sides of this shield were constructed at such an angle as to cause the shot to glance off, her bow was fashioned into a powerful ram, so that when she encountered a wooden vessel, after firing her broadside she could run stem on, and so cut a hole in her opponent and sink her.

964. When the Merrimac steamed out of Norfolk in Virginia, on the 8th March, 1862, her object was to destroy the wooden vessels that guarded the entrance of the port, and thus raise the blockade; after she had set fire to the Congress, sunk the Cumberland, damaged the Minnesota, riddled the St. Laurent, disabled the Ericsson, and several gunboats, and silenced some of the neighbouring forts, although defended by 2899 men and 230 guns, she

offered battle to the Monitor, which it is said a mere chance had brought to the spot; after an indecisive combat the two champions simultaneously relinquished the struggle, in which they had fought with unequal weapons, the Merrimac expecting to meet only wooden vessels, had not a single shot on board, being provided only with shells.

965. A month later, the Merrimac, being ready, steamed out to meet her antagonist, but for some unexplained reason, the Monitor refused to renew the combat. Since then the Merrimac has been destroyed by her own officers, and the Monitor foundered off Cape Hatteras.

966. Remembering, as I trust my young friends do, that the ports of the Confederates were blockaded, and that they had literally no navy when the contest began, it will at once be seen they must make extraordinary efforts if they were to have any ships of war; such efforts have been made and the few vessels they have possessed have done considerable damage to the commercial marine of the Federals, but none have been of a size or power to contend with their ships of war.

967. None of these ships have been so celebrated

as the Alabama, Captain Raphael Semmes; she was a wooden vessel of 1040 tons, barque, rigged, and fitted with a screw-propeller, built by Messrs. Laird, in Birkenhead, England, the same firm having also made her engines, which were of 300 horse-power each. Her motto was "Aide toi et Dieu t'aidera" ("Help yourself and God will help you").

968. The Alabama, known at this time as the "290," left the Mersey ostensibly on a trial trip with a company of ladies and gentlemen on board, on the 29th July, 1862, but as those in charge of her did not intend to return, a steam tug was signalled, which took off the visitors and returned with them to Liverpool, and the Alabama began her adventurous career; she was at this time unarmed, and not supplied with provisions or coals for a long voyage, but she made her way to Terceira, one of the Azores, which she reached on the 10th of August.

969. Eight days after, she was joined by the *Agripina*, which had been sent from London, with stores, guns, ammunition, and coals; these were speedily transferred to the "290," which then received the name by which she has become so widely known; she afterward received from the Bahamas a further supply of

stores, two 32 pounders, more coals, and her Captain, who came out in the same ship.

970. On the fifth of September, she made her first capture, a whale ship, and from that time to September, 1863, she had captured sixty Federal vessels, many of which she burnt after taking out the crew. In some cases, when passengers were on board the captured ships, they were released on the officer in charge signing a ransom bond, the sum named in the bond to be paid on the conclusion of the war, while one or two were turned into Confederate cruisers. The crews of the captured ships were either landed at the first convenient port or put aboard the ransomed ships; but some few chose rather to volunteer for service in the Alabama.

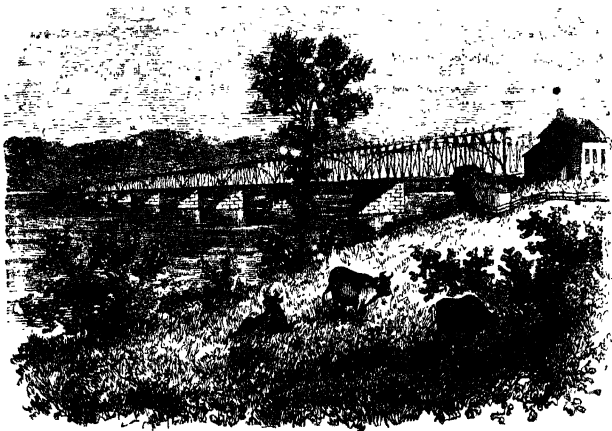
971. On December 2, 1863, the Alabama chased the Federal Mail steamer, Ariel, and after the latter had received some damage from the guns of her pursuer, she was brought to. The Ariel had 500 passengers on board, and several Federal Military officers. There was also on board, as part of the cargo, one 24 pound rifled cannon, 125 new rifles, 16 swords, 1000 rounds of ammunition, and three boxes of specie, all of which were speedily transferred to the Alabama,

and the Ariel liberated on a ransom bond, all on board praising the courtesy and leniency of Captain Semmes and his officers. They little suspected that at this time they could easily have steamed away from their captor, as a breakage had occurred of part of the machinery of the Alabama, which disabled her for some days.

972. I have not space here to follow her through all her wonderful escapes from the numerous cruisers sent out to intercept her, all of which, by a combination of skill, daring, and judgment, on the part of her Captain, she managed to avoid; suffice it to state, that on the 11th of June, 1864, she entered the port of Cherbourg, where it was intended she should undergo the repairs necessary, after knocking about for two years.

973. She had scarcely got into port, when the Federal steamer, Kearsage, made her appearance outside and challenged the Alabama to combat. Notwithstanding the crippled state of the Alabama, and the superior armament of the Kearsage, Captain Semmes steered boldly out to meet his powerful opponent. After maintaining the unequal contest with unparalleled gallantry, the Alabama sunk riddled through

and through by the guns of the Kearsage, which, being protected by chains suspended outside, extending from her bulwarks to below the water line, was all but impervious to the shot of the Alabama.



CHAPTER LXXII.

974. GRANT made two distinct attacks on Petersburg, each time attempting to carry it by storm:

failing in these, he strove to cut its communication with the South, and seizing a point on the Weldon Railway, he established himself in secure lines, defying and defeating all the desperate assaults of Lee. In August, the Federal fleet, under the gallant Farragut, again ran the gauntlet of the forts at the entrance of Mobile Bay, and defeated the small Confederate fleet, compelling the iron ram "Tennessee" to surrender. The capitulation of the forts followed this success, but Mobile still held out. Sheridan beat the Confederates under Early in Northern Virginia, following up his success with great vigour. Once or twice afterwards Early again assumed the offensive, but when these two generals last met on the field, Early was beaten and his army dispersed.

975. The Confederates were defeated in an attempt to drive Sherman out of Atlanta and compel him to retreat, though all their disposable force was engaged in this object. Sherman eventually left Atlanta and marched into the heart of Georgia, and for some weeks no tidings were received from him, and many conjectures were hazarded as to his whereabouts and intentions. At length it transpired that he was heading for the Atlantic coast, and on the 14th

December he appeared before Savannah, having surmounted all obstacles, and accomplished the most successful march through an enemy's country ever recorded. Savannah surrendered after its principal outwork, Fort M'Alister, had been taken by storm. The Unionists were greatly elated by the entire success of Sherman's expedition and the speedy collapse of the secession movement was confidently predicted. Sherman, however, was not so sanguine, but speedily devised a new campaign for the completion of the work he had begun.

976. Leaving Savannah, he crossed into South Carolina and seized Branchville, where the lines of railway from Augusta, Charleston, and Columbia meet; this led to the fall of Charleston, for the Confederate defenders of that place, being afraid that their communications would be cut, abandoned the city. Sherman, however, without turning to enter Charleston, pushed on to the centre of South Carolina, forced the Confederates to relinquish their hold on Columbia, and reached the frontiers of North Carolina in time to take advantage of the fall of Wilmington, and made that city a base of future operations.

977. My readers will doubtless remember that a

Federal blockade, more or less effectual, of the Confederate ports has been kept up during the war. The non-efficiency of the blockade had tempted merchants and other adventurous persons to send out swift sailing vessels at the risk of capture to endeavour to avoid the blockade, and these ships were known as "Blockade-runners."

1862. The port of Wilmington was one of the places much frequented by these vessels, and, accordingly, the Federal government despatched a large fleet and co-operating land force for the capture of the port. One portion of the arrangements for the attack was that a ship with a large quantity of powder on board should be sent as close in to the batteries as possible, and exploded; this was successful as far as exploding the powder, but it failed to make any impression on the Confederate works. The fleet then poured in a continuous shower of shot and shell, until it is said their ammunition was exhausted without effect. Perhaps the most singular portion of the proceedings was the fact that, immediately before the explosion of the volcano ship, a blockade runner stole past the fleet and ran into port passing close to the powder ship, and thus preserving herself from the fire of the fleet.

979. Of course, in such a hazardous proceeding many blockade-runners were destroyed; some were captured and sent as prizes into a Federal port; others sunk by the guns of the blockade ships, while others again were run on shore and set fire to, to prevent their falling into the hands of the Federals.

980. The following is an account of the chase and destruction of the *Lynx* while attempting to run out of Wilmington, on the night of the 26th of September:—“ Having passed safely over the bar, the pilot acquainted the captain with the fact, when he directed his course due east. The order had no sooner been given and the helm answered, than the night became brilliantly illuminated by rockets and blue lights from all quarters.

981. Captain Reed directed his steamer through the narrow passages between the hostile ships. Speed alone could save the ship from the whizzing balls, for the calmness of the sea gave the enemy too great an advantage in firing. The little steamer leaped and trembled through the water, passing successively each of the enemy's ships, which kept banging away. At one time the enemy were so near as to give the order for Captain Reed to heave

to; 'Drive her, Mr. Lake, Drive her!' was the cool response of the captain.

982. A whole broadside renewed the enemy's order, yet the *Lynx*, uninjured in hull, sped rapidly onward, with her immense power. One hundred and twenty shots in all were fired at the ship, besides a volley of musketry, which, whistling through the air, rattled against her sides. Ten of the fleet were thus passed, amid the most rapid and effective fire yet directed against any blockade runner. The steamer, having now passed the blockaders, had her course changed direct, and Mr. Boggs, chief officer, was sent to ascertain the damage.

983. He soon returned, and reported eight shots below the water line, and the steamer sinking. The idea of running out and in the same night was objectionable in the extreme, and no thought of surrender once entered the captain's head. Still, no fear or trepidation was felt by anyone. The *Lynx* was headed for the beach, the cotton cargo buoying her up, and every preparation was made for the safety of the crew and passengers.

984. The steamer at last struck—her steel hull sprung forward with the concussion, and on the

next swell a few more yards were obtained. In the midst of perfect coolness, as if embarking for pleasure, Captain Reed directed the transfer of the coin and bonds himself, and the pilot left the ship with the purser and passengers. No good boat was now left, yet all the crew, in perfect discipline and obedience, promised to stick to the last. The carpenter soon reported the boat repaired. The rest embarked; Captain Reed and Chief Officer Boggs were the last on board. Six barrels of spirits of turpentine, were poured over the equally combustible cotton, and almost with tears in his eyes and with a heavy, heavy heart the captain applied the torch to his ship."

985. The fall of Wilmington, the last great port in the hands of the Confederates, and the success of Sherman, was hailed with unbounded satisfaction by the Federals; and the hopes of the Secessionists were correspondingly lessened. They were now cut off from foreign assistance of every kind, their armies were either cooped up, beaten, or in retreat, and their states, with the exception of the region beyond the Mississippi, from which they were isolated, the northern part of North Carolina, and a portion of the southern part of Virginia, practically in the hands of

the Federals. It is not surprising that they should have been ready, and indeed anxious, to receive proposals for peace from the Federals.

986. These proposals were indeed made, but in such a form that the Confederates felt they could not accept them. President Lincoln refused to treat except on the basis of "re-union," and so another effort had to be made; Johnson was placed in command of the army opposed to Sherman; negroes were enrolled as soldiers to fight for their masters, and a slight check was given to the Federal forces in North Carolina. Lee also again showed some activity, and a daring but indecisive dash was made at Grant, whose army far outnumbered that of the Confederates; but the weakness of the latter was so far practically proved in their last attempt, that Grant at once put his whole army into motion, and for three days the battle was waged, until Lee, finding Richmond untenable in the presence of such an overwhelming force as was assembled before it, determined to abandon it. This he effected after setting fire to the military and other stores. It is calculated that from twenty to thirty million dollars' worth of property was destroyed at this time.

987. After much hard fighting and sacrificing his rear-guard in the attempt, Lee succeeded in cleaving Grant's flank and placing himself on the Lynchburg Road. But here he encountered a new peril, which neither the dictates of humanity nor the promptings of military prudence would permit him to withstand. On the North was Hancock with twenty-five thousand men; Meade and Orde, with the army of the Potomac, were between him and the Carolinas; Thomas and Stoneman, with a numerous force, were pushing on over the Virginia and Tennessee railroad towards Lynchburg; on the east was Grant with an army more than double the number of the devoted band under Lee.

988. These armies were constantly converging on him, and although he might have made another fight and might have inflicted great damage on his adversaries, there is no doubt his own army would have been cut to pieces in the attempt. But his humanity would not permit him to devote his gallant companions, his tried and trusted friends, to useless death. He opened communications with Grant, secured such terms as a brave soldier should be allowed—terms that saved the military pride of his faithful followers—and surrendered to Grant on the 9th of April, 1865; and with his

surrender the hopes of the Southern confederacy were practically at an end.

989. General Grant, with the generosity which a brave man shows to a gallant adversary, accepted Lee's surrender on terms honourable alike to both parties.

990. The thanks of the Government were at once telegraphed to Grant, and orders were promptly given to stop further recruiting or the purchase of munitions of war. President Lincoln addressed the people on the speedy termination of the war, the difficulties of reconstruction, and advised all to join in the acts necessary to restore practical relations between the rebellious states and the union.

991. While all were rejoicing at the termination of the struggle which had cost both combatants so dear, and plunged nearly every family in that vast continent into mourning for the loss of its bravest and best, the stoutest were appalled by the news, which spread rapidly through the land, of the assassination of the President, Abraham Lincoln, who fell by the hands of a madman.

992. The President accompanied Mrs. Lincoln to Ford's theatre, in the city of Washington, on the

evening of the 14th of April, another lady and gentleman being with them in their box. About half-past ten, during a pause in the performance, the assassin entered the box, the door of which was unguarded, hastily approached the President from behind, and discharged a pistol at his head. The bullet entered the back of his head, and penetrated nearly through. The assassin then leaped from the box on to the stage, brandishing a large knife or dagger, and, exclaiming "*sic semper tyrannis*," escaped through the back of the theatre, and mounting a horse, fled from the murderous scene.

993. The theatre was densely crowded at the time, and everybody seemed to be enjoying the scene. The report of the pistol merely attracted passing attention, until the screams of Mrs. Lincoln disclosed the act to the audience. The excitement was frightful to witness. One of the actresses made her way to the President's box, and supported the head of the wounded man on her lap, until he was removed to a private house opposite the theatre; but he was never conscious after receiving the wound, and died at twenty minutes past seven on the following morning.

994. The assassin left behind him, in the box, a

hat and spur, and these were easily identified as belonging to an actor of some celebrity, named John Wilkes Booth, who had more than once performed on the stage of Ford's theatre, and was thus aided in his escape by his knowledge of the various modes of exit therefrom. Thus was President Lincoln struck down in the hour of victory—when almost his last words breathed of peace and good-will for the fallen Confederacy. About ten o'clock the same night, a man, forced his way into the bedroom of Secretary Seward, who was slowly recovering from a severe illness, under the pretence that he had some particular instructions to give relative to his medicine, struck down the two sons of Mr. Seward, a gentleman, and two male nurses who were in the room, disabling them all. The assassin then rushed upon Mr. Seward and stabbed him three times in the neck, as he lay prostrate in bed—fortunately severing no arteries, though he bled profusely. The villain then ran down stairs, mounted his horse at the door, and rode away. So suddenly did the whole sanguinary attack take place, that no alarm was raised until he had made good his escape. Providentially, though all those attacked, were very seriously injured, none of the wounds were mortal; and though great fears were entertained that

the Secretary's weakened state would preclude his recovery, he was able to transact business in a few weeks.

995. The simultaneous attack on the President and Secretary Seward showed a preconcerted plan, and every exertion was made throughout the entire country to bring the assassins to justice ; a cry was raised that it was a Southern plot, and attempts were made to lay the charge at the door of the President, and some of the principal officers, of the Confederate states, "but more reasonable men saw in it the act of an excited imagination, and the desire for notoriety, always a predominant feeling with the man Booth.

996. It was ascertained that the assassin had broken his leg, by his horse falling upon him, in his attempt to escape. The pursuit was hotly followed up, and eventually he was traced, in company with an accomplice named Harold, to a barn on the borders of Virginia. The barn was rounded by cavalry, and there Harold gave himself up, when he found escape impossible, but Booth refusing to do so, even though the barn was set on fire, was eventually shot by a soldier, and died in a few hours. Several persons were

accused of complicity in his crime, were tried before a military tribunal, and four were hanged.

In conformity with the provisions of the constitutional law, the Vice-President, Andrew Johnson, became President, and at once assumed office.

997. The assassination of President Lincoln struck a thrill of horror throughout the civilized world.

Addresses of condolence and sympathy, expressing abhorrence of the crime, flowed into America from all parts, nearly every public body in Great Britain assembling for the purpose, and the widowed Queen writing to the widow of President Lincoln a very touching letter.

998. Meantime, though occasional fighting went on, the Confederate Generals, finding their cause hopeless, one after another obtained similar terms to those accorded by Grant to Lee, and surrendered, Kirby Smith being among the last to do so.

Strenuous efforts were made to capture Jefferson Davis, President of the Confederate states, who, with a few followers and intimate associates, had made his escape, after the abandonment of Richmond; for some time he eluded pursuit, but was eventually captured, at Irwinsville, seventy-five miles southeast of Macon, May, 1865.

999. Again the Americans have to undertake the task of reconstruction, but how different the aspect now to that presented after the peace with Great Britain! Then they were all united, and all joined heartily in carrying out their intentions, unburdened by debt, their feelings, faculties, and energies, united for one common good; now four years of blood-shed have placed a gulf between the North and the South which will not be bridged until great suffering has been endured. Yet the strong common-sense which the Americans possess, combined with a talent for organization, will, we hope, enable them to work out the great question before them satisfactorily.

1000. One result of the war is, that *slavery is abolished*. The time and circumstances in which this change in the condition of the negro was effected precluded the act being gradual; and hence the sudden change from irresponsible slavery to responsible liberty does not seem to be understood by the race it was intended to benefit.

