

In 1754 Lord Baltimore claimed the part of the island formerly granted to his ancestor, but the Board of Trade reported it as unsubstantiated. About the same time the French claimed the privilege of fishing as far as 'Cape Bay, contending that it was the same as Point Riché, mentioned in the treaty of Utrecht. This unfounded demand was also rejected by the Board of Trade. By the recommendation of the same board, in 1764 a custom-house establishment was also formed on this island, with a comptroller and collector, appointed by the commissioners in England.

The revolutionary war in America occasioned fresh disputes as to the right of fishing on the banks of Newfoundland. The New Englanders had theretofore exercised such a right to a very considerable extent, and on this being resisted, they declined supplying the colony and fisheries with many articles of provision (which they had been in the habit of doing), to the great distress of the inhabitants and those engaged: this power of reciprocal annoyance occasioned the subject to form one of the articles of the treaty of peace, signed at Paris in 1783, by which it was stipulated that the inhabitants of the United States should have liberty to take fish of every kind on such part of the coast of Newfoundland as British fishermen should use, but not to dry or cure their fish on the island. The question of the supplies from America was diversely agitated on subsequent occasions, being always opposed by the western merchants; it has, however, always continued, and was authorized by act of parliament in 1822; limiting these supplies, however, to such as should be made in British bottoms.

The imperfect administration of justice amongst the colonists for years continued a subject of just and constant complaint. A commission was granted to Admiral Milbanke, in 1789, to establish local courts in the colony, on a more satisfactory footing than those previously in existence; but nothing that he was able to accomplish placed the proceedings of the civil courts in any better point of view. In 1791 a new bill on the subject passed the British parliament; and in 1792 another, amending the former, both being considered as mere experiments. In 1824 another act of the Imperial Parliament regulated afresh the administration of justice in Newfoundland, but was limited to the continuance of five

years. This, like all its predecessors, has failed to give satisfaction; a constant opposition of interests and views seems to have existed amongst the inhabitants of that colony, and the merchants of this country trading thither and engaged in the fisheries, a collision which, it is hoped, the advance of intelligence, and the increasing wealth, prosperity, and numerical force of the colony, will soften down into an enlightened and mutual effort to promote interests which are inevitably reciprocal. By this last act, a chief-justice, and two assistant judges, are appointed; the island is divided into three districts, and a court is held annually in each. The expense attending the circuits of the judges occasions a strong feeling of discontent amongst the colonists, even with this last effort of the legislature to bestow on them the boon of a steady, consistent, and constant administration of justice.

For a long series of years the colony existed merely as a fishing settlement, the fisheries being carried on entirely by merchants residing in Great Britain. These considered the small and insignificant number of planters resident in the colony as persons by no means entitled to interfere with their interests or dispute their pleasure, and therefore always resisted any measures for the amelioration of the situation of a body of people whom they treated as subservient to themselves; the increase of the population however, now amounting to not less probably than 75,000 souls, and the advance of agriculture and commercial pursuits amongst the residents, render them entitled to be placed a little above the caprices of the body of traders, however the interests of the last, duly considered, are identified with those of the British empire at large. It is stoutly contended on the behalf of the fisheries, that they are utterly incapable of submitting to any burthen or contributing to any expensive form of government for the colony; and their vast importance as a nursery for British seamen, and a source of employment for British shipping, renders their situation a subject of anxious attention to the British legislature, which must, however, keep on its guard against the representation of that ruthless selfishness which is but too frequently the characteristic of those absorbed in a commercial speculation.

As all the importance attached to this colony has arisen exclusively from its fisheries, little has been done on shore to claim our attention.

The different settlements amount to about sixty or seventy in number, and are scattered on the shores of the eastern and southern sides of the island, but principally the former; there are indeed some inhabitants on the western shore, near its southern extremity, but they do not extend northward of St. George's Bay, though the vicinity of that bay has proved extremely fertile. Both the eastern and southern shores are broken by several deep bays; on the former, the principal are Hare Bay, very near the northern extremity; and proceeding southerly, White Bay, Bay of Notre Dame, Bay of Exploits, Bay of Bonavista, Trinity Bay, and Conception Bay; on the southern shore are Trepassey Bay, Placentia Bay, St. Mary's Bay, and Fortune Bay. It is about the heads of these bays that the settlements are found. On the whole shore of Conception Bay, thence to St. John's, and southward to Cape Race, the settlements are numerous and populous; the principal are, besides St. John's, the Bay of Bulls, Brigus, Cape Broyle Harbour, Ferryland, Fermore, and Renowes; but there is little in any of these settlements to demand particular attention. Ferryland is the first that was ever brought into cultivation and importance, by the early settlement of Lord Baltimore; and even now there is a greater extent of land under tillage there than at any settlement on that coast.

St. John's is the principal settlement, and only town in the island; it is the seat of government, and chief harbour for our vessels. As Lieutenant Chappell's is perhaps the most accurate account of the harbour that can be furnished, we shall insert it here. "The entrance to St. John's Harbour forms a long and extremely narrow strait, but not very difficult of access. There are about twelve fathoms water in the middle of the channel, with tolerable good anchorage ground. The most lofty perpendicular precipices rise to an amazing height upon the north side, and the southern shore appears less striking in its altitude, only from a comparison with the opposite rocks. There is a light shown every night on the left side of the entrance, where there are also a small battery and a signal post. Other batteries of greater strength appear towering above the rocky eminences towards the north. At about two-thirds of the distance between the entrance, and what may properly be termed the harbour itself, there lies a dangerous shelf, called the chain rock, so named

from a chain which extends across the strait at that place, to prevent the admission of any hostile fleet. Mariners on entering the place ought to beware of approaching too near the rocks beneath the light-house point. In addition to the fortifications already noticed, there are several other strong fortresses upon the heights around the town, so as to render the place perfectly secure against any sudden attack. Fort Townshend is situated immediately over the town, and is the usual residence of the governor. Forts Amherst and William are more towards the north, and there is also a small battery perched on the top of a single pyramidal mount, called the crow's nest."

The latitude of St. John is  $47^{\circ} 35'$ , its longitude  $52^{\circ} 48'$ ; it is situated about seventy miles to the north of Cape Race, and about 120 south of Twillingate Island, in the Bay of Exploits, our most northerly settlement on the island. The town forms one long straggling street, extending nearly parallel to the shore on the north side of the port, from which branch out several narrow lines of houses, which will bear no designation superior to lanes. The houses are built chiefly of wood, though diversified by some of brick, and a few of stone, but they are most irregularly placed, in consequence of an act of the British legislature, passed in 1820, after the great fires, and which directs, that where the houses are built of stone, the street shall be forty feet in width, and where of wood fifty, so that all the stone houses project ten feet into the street. The principal feature of the town is its multitude of wharfs and fishing stages, which entirely line the shore. The government wharf is a fine broad quay, open to the accommodation of the public. The number of taverns and public-houses seems very disproportionate to the place. The roadway of the main street is very rugged and irregular, and in wet weather scarcely passable for mud and filth. The general appearance of the town indicates exactly what it is—a mere fishing station.

It is difficult to calculate the population of a town which varies so constantly. At the height of the fishing season it is perfectly crowded, but the greater part of this population returns with the vessels to Europe. The resident population may be fairly rated at about 11,000. This town has suffered frequently and severely by fires: in 1815 a great amount of property was destroyed by a visitation of this sort, which was repeated



in November, 1817, with increased severity, 140 houses and property to the amount of 500,000*l.* being then consumed. Within a few days after another conflagration destroyed nearly all of the town that was left by the former one, and, in the August of the same year, a fourth calamity of the like kind inflicted another loss upon the town. There are places of public worship of various denominations at St. John's, and two school-houses, one established by Lord Gambier, in 1802, for children of both the protestant and Roman creeds, who attend to the number of 300, and another, erected by the efforts of the Benevolent Irish Society, the benefits of which are extended to 700 or 800 children. There are three weekly newspapers published, and a book society has been established.

Since several merchants, deeply engaged in the trade, have settled here, and many industrious inhabitants have by their consistent efforts raised themselves to comparative wealth, and since the administration of justice has been placed on a more permanent and certain footing than formerly, the state of society has continued rapidly advancing in respectability and civilization, and is now better than could be expected from a fishing station, the internal improvement of which has been so uniformly discouraged. The settlements continue almost continuously along the southern shore, as far as Fortune Bay, and at most of the harbours there are places of worship. The settlement at St. George's Bay is perhaps more agricultural than any other on the island. "There are tracts of excellent land, with deep and fertile soils, covered in many places with heavy timber; coal, limestone, and gypsum abound in great plenty in this part of the island. At the heads of the bays and along the rivers there are many tracts of land, formed of deposits washed from the hills; the soil of which tracts is of much the same quality as that of the savannahs in the interior of America. These lands might be converted into excellent meadows, and if drained to carry off the water, which covers them after the snows dissolve, they would yield excellent barley and oats. The rich pasturage, which the island affords, adapts it in an eminent degree to the breeding and raising of cattle and sheep, insomuch as to authorize the belief that it might produce a sufficient quantity of beef to supply its fisheries. Firs of various sorts, poplars, birches, and a

few maple trees are found in Newfoundland, with a variety of shrubs. Most of the English common fruits arrive at perfection, and various grasses grow spontaneously in all the plains. The wild animals are nearly the same as those of Prince Edward Island, and indeed of our other American colonies. The Newfoundland dog is an animal whose peculiarities and virtues are too well known to need any detail in this place; it is, however, generally considered, that the true original breed exists now only on the coast of Labrador.

The climate is severe and the winter long, but it has generally been represented more unfavourably than strict truth will warrant. The excess of humidity and constant visitation of dense fog, which have been commonly ascribed to these coasts, is by no means a continual visitation; the sea winds often bring a considerable quantity of vapour to the southern and eastern coasts, but it is only when the wind blows from the sea that this inconvenience is felt. The range of the thermometer is nearly the same as in Canada, but as the length of the island extends over nearly five degrees of latitude, it will of course vary. The harbours on the Atlantic shore are generally freed from their icy bonds earlier than any other within the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and the western shore is seldom visited by fogs. The heat of the summer is sometimes oppressive in the daytime, but the mornings and evenings, as in almost all insular situations, are temperate and agreeable. The breaking up of the winter, when the vast shoals of ice formed in the northern regions are driven along the coast by the winds, is the most disagreeable time of the year. The inhabitants, however, maintain excellent health, and, notwithstanding the exposure and hardships of a fisherman's life, frequently attain a remarkable longevity.

The population of the island has greatly increased of late years. The census of 1827 gave 36,000 as the gross amount; it has been recently rated as high as 90,000, but truth will perhaps be more strictly consulted in fixing the number at 75,000. There are no good roads in the island but those in the immediate vicinity of St. John's. As has been before remarked, the fisheries are the chief business of the island, agriculture being pursued to an amount far from sufficient to supply the wants of

the inhabitants. The number of vessels employed in the fisheries in the year 1830 was 700, and the amount of imports into the island 640,000%.

The nature of the institutions by which this island is governed has been explained in our slight sketch of its history. Application has been recently made to the British parliament for the institution of an independent colonial legislature. This, like every other attempt to improve the colony, is resisted by those principally engaged in the fisheries; but as neither parties nor jealousies can, at the present day, be expected to influence the inquiries or decisions of the British legislature, there is no doubt that all will be done which the welfare of the colony requires. If the parliament does not go the length of granting an independent legislature, the institution of a corporate body in St. John's might in some measure supply the deficiency, and it seems one to which the advanced wealth, number, and intelligence of its inhabitants entitle them.

### FISHERIES.

THE fisheries are entitled to a few words of separate consideration in concluding our chapter on Newfoundland. They have ever since the discovery of North America been the theme of the particular solicitude, not of Great Britain alone, but of France, Spain, and Portugal, and subsequently of the United States of America, and have evidently been esteemed a subject of the utmost importance in the negotiation of all treaties involving the British, French, or American interests on the western side the Atlantic. It appears that as early as 1517 about fifty French, Spanish, and Portuguese vessels were engaged in the cod-fishery of the Banks, whilst England had but *one ship* employed in that quarter; and although this unit appears to have, in 1578, increased to fifteen, the fishing trade of the other powers had improved in a far greater degree, France having at that period no less than 150 ships engrossed by it, Spain 100, and Portugal 50 \*. The British shipping occupied in the Newfoundland fisheries some years afterwards, however, increased apace, and in 1615 it amounted to 250 vessels, whose aggregate burden was 1,500

tons; the total number of French, Biscayan, and Portuguese ships employed at the same date were 400

Anterior to the Treaty of Utrecht, the extent of the respective rights of those nations who participated in the advantages of the Newfoundland fisheries was never defined, but that treaty placed matters in rather a more distinct light. Newfoundland itself, and the islands adjoining, were thereby exclusively left in the possession of Great Britain, the French retaining, under the thirteenth article, the right of fishing on the banks and using the shores of the islands between particular points, viz. from Point Riche (which the French afterwards pretended to be the same as Cape Ray), round the north extremity of the island, to Cape Bonavista on the eastern coast. By the treaty of peace concluded in 1763, this privilege was confirmed to France, and the right was extended to fishing in the Gulf of St. Lawrence at the distance of three leagues from all coasts belonging to Great Britain, whether continental or insular. Their fisheries out of the gulf were not to be carried on but at the distance of fifteen leagues from the coasts of Cape Breton. By another article of the treaty the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon are ceded to France as a shelter for French fishermen, under an express stipulation against their being fortified, or guarded by more than fifty men for the police.

When the United States, in 1783, took their station in the list of independent nations, they laid claim to a participation in those treasures which the waters of the Newfoundland banks and of the Gulf of St. Lawrence contained. As colonies they had reaped no inconsiderable benefits from those fisheries, and thus knowing their full value, stipulated and obtained particular privileges, which were agreed to by the third article of the treaty. These extensive privileges are expressed in the following distinct language of that part of the treaty:

“Article III. It is agreed that the people of the United States shall continue to enjoy unmolested the right to take fish of every kind on the Grand Bank, and all other banks of Newfoundland, also in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and at all other places in the sea where the inhabitants of

both countries used at any time heretofore to fish; and also that the inhabitants of the United States shall have liberty to take fish of any kind on such part of the coast of Newfoundland as British fishermen shall use (but not to dry and cure the same on that island); and also in the bays and creeks of all other of his Britannic Majesty's dominions in America; and that the American fishermen shall have liberty to dry and cure fish in any of the unsettled bays, harbours, and creeks of Nova Scotia, Magdalen Island, and Labrador, so long as the same shall remain unsettled; but so soon as the same or either of them shall be settled, it shall not be lawful for the said fishermen to dry or cure fish at such settlement without a previous agreement for that purpose with the inhabitants, proprietors, or possessors of that ground."

In negotiating the convention of 1818 the subject was not lost sight of by the United States' plenipotentiary, and the opportunity was seized, not only of confirming but of extending the stipulations of the above article of the treaty of 1783. "Whereas," says the convention, "differences have arisen respecting the liberty claimed by the United States, for the inhabitants thereof, to take, dry, and cure fish on certain coasts, bays, harbours, and creeks of His Britannic Majesty's dominions in America; it is agreed between the single contracting parties, that the inhabitants of the said United States shall have *for ever*, in connexion with the subjects of His Britannic Majesty, the liberty to take fish of every kind on that part of the southern coast of Newfoundland, which extends from Cape Ray to the Ramcau Islands, on the western and northern coast of Newfoundland, from the said Cape Ray to the Quiperon Islands, on the shores of Magdalen Islands, and also on the coasts, bays, harbours, and creeks, from Mount Joly, on the southern coast of Labrador, to and through the Straits of Belleisle, and thence, northwardly, indefinitely along the coast, without prejudice, however, to any of the exclusive rights of the Hudson's Bay Company." But the limitation contained in the former treaty, relative to the settlement of the coasts, is further continued. Besides these express rights, the Americans long enjoyed the advantage of supplying Newfoundland with provisions and stores used in the fisheries; but the jealousy of colonial traders being awakened led to the enactment of the 26 Geo. III. chap. 1, which ex-

cluded American ships from the right of importing into Newfoundland bread stuffs and live stock, the trade being exclusively confined to British shipping. The law was, however, in a great measure evaded; indeed the difficulty of enforcing it must have been apparent, when United States vessels had a right to enter our waters, lie along our fishing coasts, and use our shores; and therefore enjoyed numerous opportunities of eluding discovery in their violation of the statute. A more recent enactment \*, however, offers probably a better guarantee to the British merchant against the competition of American produce in Newfoundland, certain duties being imposed upon all foreign goods and provisions imported into that island, whilst the exports from it, to any foreign state, are to be made in British built ships only.

Thus stand the rights and privileges of the United States with regard to the Newfoundland and Labrador fisheries, and it is evident that with the exception of the mere ownership of the adjacent countries, the Americans are, as fully as Great Britain, participant in the direct and incidental advantages attached to those fisheries, viz. the prosecution of a lucrative trade, and the practical education of mariners. Possessed as England was of the surrounding fishing coasts, it was in her power to secure to herself the exclusive enjoyment of those immense aquatic sources of wealth and power, since the mere privileges of fishing on the banks, which might, without injury to herself, have been tolerated in foreigners, would have been of little avail without the right of using the shores of the adjacent territories and islands; and if it be asserted that, in the nature of things, the one privilege could not be granted without the other, since the one is accessory to the enjoyment of the other, still we may say, that had the restrictions been far more circumscribed than they are, British subjects engaged in the fisheries would not be aggravated to the extent they now are, by the abuse of the privilege by American fishermen, who, relying upon the latitude allowed them, are emboldened to acts of outrage against the more legitimate tenants of the shores, and assert a superiority which should belong to Great Britain alone in that quarter. The exercise of the rights of the

\* 3 Geo. IV. chap. 44.

nations concerned in the Newfoundland fisheries, viz. England, France, and America, calls loudly for ulterior regulations, and we can only say, that such a measure is of vital importance to the preservation and future value of the fisheries.

We shall conclude our remarks by an extract from the voyage of Lieutenant Edward Chappell, R. N. to Newfoundland and Labrador, descriptive of the mode of conducting the *shore fishery*.

“There are a number of boats, fitted with masts and sails, belonging to each fishery, two or four men being stationed to a boat. At the earliest dawn of day the whole of these vessels proceed to that part of the coast where the cod are most plentiful, for they move in shoals, and frequently alter their position, according to the changes of the wind. When the resort of the fish has been ascertained, the boats let fall their anchors, and the men cast over their lines. Each man has two lines to attend, and every line has two hooks affixed to it, which are baited either with caplin or herrings. The men stand upon a flat flooring, and are divided from each other by a sort of bins, like shop-counters, placed athwart the centre of the boat. Having drawn up the line, they lay the cod upon the bin, and strike it upon the back part of the head with a piece of wood in the shape of a rolling-pin; this blow stuns the fish and causes it to yawn its jaws widely asunder, by which means the hook is easily extracted. Then the fish is dropped into the bin, and the line again thrown over; whilst the fisherman, instantly turning round, proceeds to pull up the opposite line, so that one line is running out and the other pulling in at the same instant. Thus the boatmen continue, until their vessel is filled, when they proceed to discharge their cargo at the sort of fishing-stage represented by the vignette to chapter II. The cod are pitched from the boat, upon the stage, with a pike, care being taken to stick this pike into their heads, as a wound in the body might prevent the salt from having its due effect, and thereby spoil the fish. When the boats are emptied, the fishermen procure a fresh quantity of bait, and return again to their employment on the water, whence, in the course of an hour or two, perhaps, they again reach the stage with another cargo.”

“Having thus explained the method of cod-fishing, it remains only to describe the manner of curing. Each salting-house is provided with



one or more tables, around which are placed wooden chairs and leathern aprons for the cut-throats, headers, and splitters. The fish having been thrown from the boats, a boy is generally employed to bring them from the stage, and place them on the table before the cut-throat \*, who rips open the bowels, and, having also nearly severed the head from the body, he passes it along the table to his right-hand neighbour, the header, whose business is to pull off the head, and tear out the entrails: from these he selects the liver, and, in some instances, the sound. The head and entrails being precipitated through a trunk into the sea, the liver is thrown into a cask, where it distils in oil; and the sounds, if intended for preservation, are salted. After having undergone this operation, the cod is next passed across the table to the splitter, who cuts out the backbone as low as the navel, in the twinkling of an eye. From hence the cod are carried in hand-barrows to the salter, by whom they are spread in layers, upon the top of each other, with a proper quantity of salt between each layer. In this state the fish continue for a few days, when they are again taken in barrows to a short wooden box, full of holes, which is suspended from the stage in the sea. The washer stands up to his knees in this box, and scrubs the salt off the cod with a soft mop. The fish are then taken to a convenient spot, and piled up to drain; and the heap, thus formed, is called 'a water-horse.' On the following day the cod are removed to the fish-flakes, where they are spread in the sun to dry; and from thenceforward they are kept constantly turned during the day, and piled up in small heaps, called flackets, at night. The upper fish are always laid with their bellies downward, so that the skins of their backs answer the purposes of thatch, to keep the lower fish dry. By degrees the size of these flackets is increased, until at length, instead of small parcels, they assume the form of large circular stacks; and in this state the cod are left for a few days, as the fishermen say, 'to sweat.' The process of *curing* is now complete, and the fish are afterwards stored up in warehouses, lying ready for exportation.

"With such amazing celerity is the operation of heading, splitting, and salting performed, that it is not an unusual thing to see ten cod-fish

This, we presume, is a technical expression.—*Author.*

decapitated, their entrails thrown into the sea, and their back-bones torn out, in the short space of one minute and a half. The splitter receives the highest wages, and holds a rank next to the master of a fishery; but the salter is also a person of great consideration, upon whose skill the chief preservation of the cod depends.

• “There are three qualities of cured cod-fish in Newfoundland. They are distinguished by the different titles of *merchantable fish*, those of the largest size, best colour, and altogether finest quality. *Madeira fish*, which are nearly as valuable as the former. This sort is chiefly exported to supply the Spanish and Portuguese markets. *West India fish*, the refuse of the whole. These last are invariably sent for sale, to feed the negroes of the Caribbee Islands.”

## CHAPTER XIII.

Land Granting—Plan heretofore pursued—System now adopted.

THE lands in the colonies may be classed under three general heads. 1st, Lands belonging to his majesty's subjects; 2nd, Lands appropriated by government as reservations for particular purposes; and 3d, those that come under the denomination of grantable, or waste lands of the crown. The property of the first class comes not within the limits prescribed to the present chapter, which is intended merely to explain the various means whereby lands have hitherto been, and now are, transferred from the crown to the subject. The reservations constituting the second class will be spoken of in treating of the lands of the third class.

The whole of the ungranted lands in his majesty's colonies are, by the constitution, vested in the crown, and as such are liable to be disposed of, and to be administered in any manner that his majesty may constitutionally think fit. The Imperial Parliament, however, in its political omnipotence, exercises also a control over them, and by its enactments sometimes prescribes broad rules for their administration.

The royal prerogative in this respect was formerly exercised in granting proprietary charters, by which vast sections of territory in the colonies were vested in persons of great influence, rank, capital, and enterprise, to whom extensive privileges were delegated to plant and govern colonies; such were the charters of Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, &c.; such is now the Hudson's Bay charter. The waste lands also afforded a wide field for the exercise of the king's bounty towards such of his loyal subjects as had served him in war, and hence we find that at different times a scale of allotments was prescribed, by which officers retired from service, and disbanded soldiers became entitled to

a stated quantum of land. This scale, in the king's famous proclamation of 7th October, 1763, stands as follows :

To every person having the rank of a field officer	5,000 acres.
To every captain	3,000
To every subaltern or staff officer	2,000
To every non-commissioned officer	200
To every private man	50

These proportions, however, subsequently underwent considerable modifications, and as the value of the lands advanced by the progress of colonization, the liberality of the crown became less lavish, and the following scale was substituted in lieu of the former, viz. :

Field officers	1,200 acres.
Majors	1,000
Captains	800
Subalterns	500
Non-commissioned officers	200
Privates	100

In conformity with this scale, lands were located to the military up to 1828, when the plan of *granting* waste lands was superseded by the existing system of *selling* them, in the manner to be hereafter explained ; but militia locations still continue to be issued under the former system in Lower Canada.

The waste lands in the colonies were likewise granted in extensive tracts, either as rewards for civil services or with a view purely to the settlement of the country. In furtherance of the former of these objects, a quarter, a half, or even a whole township, was, in several instances, patented to a single individual ; and although the titles derived from the crown for this purpose contained specific conditions of settlement, the lands thus granted have generally been left in their pristine state of wilderness, and have, owing to that circumstance, proved extremely prejudicial to the improvement of the province in which they were situated.

The tracts granted with a view purely to the encouragement of settlements were also very extensive. These grants were made by the

governor of the provinces, under the sanction of instruction from his majesty's ministers, to individuals who were supposed to club together for the purpose of colonizing a given tract to them allotted by the said letters patent, in which, however, a specific quantity (1,200 acres) was assigned to each individual\*. One of the parties, in general the only capitalist of the association, was called the *leader*, the others were styled *associates*; but these were often persons of little interest, ambition, or substance, and were even sometimes fictitious, the leader being the ostensible party looked up to, and, in fact, the only individual largely interested in the grant, inasmuch as the *associates* universally made over to the leader 1,000 acres at least, and in some cases even 1,100 of the 1,200 acres to which they were respectively entitled under the letters patent.

The consideration given by the leader for this transfer from the associates of almost the whole of their lands, was the trouble he was deemed to be at in forwarding the applications with the executive government, and the expenses he usually incurred in obtaining surveys and plans of the tract which was to be patented to him and to themselves in equal shares. These expenses, if for the survey of a whole township, amounted to about 330*l.*,—which sum was in most cases first disbursed by government,—and the patent fees on the grantable lands therein to about 150*l.* more; thus the leader became possessed of about 40,800 acres for the sum of 450*l.*, equal to about two-pence per acre. The expenses for a quarter or a half township were in a proportionate ratio.

The ostensible object of this mode of granting the waste lands, a mode, as we before stated, avowedly meant to encourage the settlements of the country, entirely failed; the leaders of townships, in nine cases out of ten, once secured in the legal possession of the lands, wholly neglected the improvement of them, and thus, instead of tending to accelerate the opening of the country, this system operated most seriously in impeding the progress of agriculture, and especially so in Lower Canada, where the vast tracts granted upon the principle we have just exposed have and must, until brought under cultivation, stand, with their sturdy forests, insuperable obstacles to the growth and continuity of settle-

This at least was the practice which obtained in Lower Canada.

ments. Had the association been a serious, and not a mere simulated, association, in which each associate would have possessed the means and the desire of converting his wilds into corn-fields, much good to the province might have resulted from the adoption of such a plan; but, on the contrary, it has thrown in the way of new settlements considerable embarrassments, for the removal of which a court of escheats has, only recently, been created in the colony.

In process of time it was discovered that the plan of immediately issuing letters patent to the grantee, and thus giving him at once his title to the land, as in the case of leaders and associates, led to pernicious consequences, of much importance as affecting the clearing and opening of the country, and it was therefore devised, that in all minor grants a preliminary title should be given to the party, whereby the settlement of his land was declared a condition precedent to his obtaining the patents for the same. This preliminary title was styled a location, or ticket of location\*, the conditions of which were somewhat different in the various colonies, though their general tendency was the same, that is, the actual settlement of the land within a prescribed time. In Nova Scotia, and we presume in New Brunswick up to 1784, the conditions of the grant were, "within three years from the passing of the grant, to clear three acres for every fifty of plantable land, and erect a dwelling-house of twenty by sixteen feet, and keep upon every fifty acres accounted barren three neat cattle, and in any quarry to keep one hand in digging and working said quarry." These conditions, however, never were strictly adhered to. In Upper Canada the period was two years, at the expiration of which, upon due proof of having cleared and cropped five acres, and cleared half the road in front of his land, of having erected and inhabited a house thereon for one year, the settler became entitled to a grant upon paying the patent fee, 5*l.* 14*s.* 1*d.* sterling. In Lower Canada the term was extended one year longer, but if the party sooner complied with the conditions of the location, he was entitled, upon due proof of the fact, to receive his letters patent for the lot assigned to him†. Under these regulations were made all military grants (though with

\* A statement of the fees upon land-granting in the Canadas is contained in the Appendix.

† See the form of the location tickets, in the Appendix.

some modifications in particular instances), and also the locations to emigrants; and the settlement of the waste lands, to any extent in the Canadas at least, can be fairly considered to have commenced with the introduction of this mode of location.

In the outset, nevertheless, it was liable to some objections, arising from the difficulty which the locatee, and especially the emigrant locatee, was left to encounter in tracing his lot in the wilderness, where the boundaries and lines of demarcation, though sufficiently obvious originally, became defaced, and sometimes entirely obliterated, by years elapsed since the field survey. To obviate this embarrassment in Lower Canada, a judicious system was devised and applied to the surveys in Lower Canada, by which not only great facilities were offered to the party in this respect, but considerable efficacy was given thereby to the whole system of location. This consisted in the appointment of resident agents, whose duty it was to point out, to the emigrant, the lot assigned to him, to direct him in the commencement of his operations, and to advise him in all matters connected with his settlement. Thus the emigrant, upon landing, received first the advice of the resident government agent at Quebec, with whom he consulted, and who directed his course to the agent of a given township in any part of the province in which he, the emigrant, felt disposed to settle; and the resident agent, in the township, was there, in person, to assist him with his counsel, and assign to him, on the spot, any vacant lot that he might select. The results of this plan were, practically, very beneficial; and a comparison of the progress of the settlements of townships *under* agency with those of townships *not* under agency, incontestably prove its advantages. For instance, the mass of the lands in the townships of Godmanchester, Hinchinbrook, and Hemmingford had, in 1820, when an agent was appointed, been granted at various periods, twenty-five, thirty, or even thirty-five years, but yet the whole population of those townships did not then amount to 850 souls, and the extent of cultivation did not cover more than 3,500 acres. Nine years afterwards, under the operation of the agency system, the population had increased to 3,313 souls, and the lands in tillage exceeded 11,000 acres.

The efficiency of the plan stands also strongly confirmed by the new settlements on the Ottawa River, all of which, excepting those of Hull,



have been formed under it, in townships, the most eligible lands whereof were granted thirty years ago, notwithstanding which they still remain covered with forests, whilst the tracts remote from the river have been brought under cultivation. Indeed, so encouraging has proved this means of providing lands for the settler, that Clarendon, a township on the Lac des Chats, at the remotest extremity of the surveyed lands on the Ottawa, has been colonized under the superintendence of an active agent; and it is not too much to say, from a personal knowledge of the difficulties that must have been surmounted in effecting a settlement at so great a distance, without the advantage of roads, and with dangerous and terrific rapids to ascend, that it required all the facilities and inducements, held out by the system under consideration, to realize an undertaking of that nature.

There were, in 1829, about twenty-five of these township agents in Lower Canada, residing within the districts assigned to their respective superintendence. Their duties were distinctly prescribed by the instructions to be found in the Appendix, and their reward, for the discharge of the trust to them confided, consisted in a per-centage of five acres upon the locations by them made to actual settlers; but they were not entitled to letters-patent from the crown, until the settlers themselves, by the *bona fide* improvement of their lands, became also entitled to their patents. The agents were latterly allowed, besides this per-centage, 2s. 6d. upon each location as a compensation for stationery and postage. Thus the maintenance of an agent was but little onerous to his majesty's government, and of the greatest possible service to the settler; and there can be little doubt that, with such modifications as may comport with the scheme of selling the waste crown lands, the general principle of the system might be very advantageously followed up. Instead of township agents, land-boards were established in the different districts of Upper Canada, with a view to facilitate the location of settlers in that province, and the system was found to answer, remarkably well, the ends of its adoption.

In tracing the history and progress of the township settlements under the different administrations in Lower Canada, we find that at no preceding period were these settlements so marked for their frequency

and the rapidity of their growth as between 1820 and 1828, during his Excellency the Earl of Dalhousie's administration of the government of that province; and it is impossible not to ascribe the fact to the peculiar zeal and ability with which his lordship devoted himself to that important branch of the local administration, and the judicious measures he adopted in furthering it; amongst which must be ranked, as a leading measure, the system of township agency.

The creation of a new commission in 1827, operated a considerable change in the administration of the crown lands in the colonies, and in Lower Canada it did, away with the agency system, at the same time that it substituted the *sale*, in place of the *grant*, of his majesty's unappropriated lands. There is nothing, however, in the principle of *selling* the lands repugnant to the existence of township agents, inasmuch as these might be continued for the benefit of the emigrant, in connexion with a general and organized plan of emigration.

The regulations under which the crown lands now pass from the sovereign to the subject are to be found, at length, in the Appendix, to which we would refer the reader. These regulations contain in substance, that, after having submitted to the governor a report of the total quantity of land proposed to be sold the ensuing year, with the upset prices at which the same may be valued, the commissioner will proceed to the sale of such lands by public auction. That public notice in the gazette and otherwise be given of the time and place of sale, and the upset price of the lands. That no lot contain more than 1,200 acres: that the purchase money be paid by four instalments, the 1st at the time of sale, and the 2d, 3rd, and fourth at intervals of a year: that if instalments be not regularly paid, the deposit money will be forfeited and the land again referred to sale: that purchasers, under 200 acres, unable to pay the purchase money by instalments, may be put in possession under a quit-rent, equal to five per cent. upon the whole amount of the purchase money, to be paid annually in advance; upon failure, the lands to be again referred to auction: that the quit-rent be subject to redemption: that the party who shall have paid an instalment towards redeeming his quit-rent, and shall afterwards neglect to pay the accruing quit-rent, be liable to have his land resold so soon as the arrears of quit-rent shall have covered the

amount of the instalment: that the names of purchasers, failing in the regular payment of their purchases or quit-rents, be made public, and their lands the first to be put up to auction the following year: that no lands be granted but at the current sales in each district, except to poor settlers who may not have been in the colony more than six months preceeding the last annual sale, in which case such poor settlers are entitled to purchase the lands at the upset prices fixed for the same at the previous year's sale: that settlers may, at any period within seven years from the date of those regulations, obtain lots of 200 acres, but no more, in unsurveyed districts upon a quit-rent, equal to five per cent. on the estimated value of the land at the time of occupancy, and that such quit-rent may be redeemed before the expiration of that term, upon "payment of twenty years' purchase of the amount, and afterwards upon payment of any arrear of quit-rent which may be then due, and twenty years' purchase of the annual amount of the rent." No patent or transfer to be granted until the purchase money, or arrears of instalments or quit-rent, shall have been paid: that the purchase money and quit-rents be paid to the commissioner, or his delegate, at the time and place named in the condition of sale.

Such are the regulations that govern the disposal of the crown lands throughout the British North American Colonies; the principle upon which they are predicated, *i. e.* the sale of lands, was probably suggested by the formation of companies of large capital and considerable influence, one of which, the Canada Company, has been mentioned at some length in Chapter 5th of Vol. I. This company being exclusively confined in their speculations to the province of Upper Canada, associations of a similar nature are on foot that have contemplated the lands in the sister provinces, and it appears indeed desirable to encourage such associations, since they, on the one hand, offer a convenient and advantageous means to his majesty's government of disposing of its waste lands in the colonies, and on the other, are conducive to the settlement of the country and the furtherance of emigration, upon both of which subjects the government has manifested the greatest solicitude, from their intimate connexion as well with the interests of the mother country as with the prosperity of its vast and flourishing colonies.

The reservations, that is, certain proportionate tracts reserved in Lower and Upper Canada, under the provision of 31st Geo. III. chap. 31, and amounting to 2-7ths of the lands granted in each township, were formerly laid out in the field in so injudicious a manner as to break the continuity and check the progress of settlements. Those townships, in which the reservations are continued in their original collocation, present the aspect of chess-boards, every second and third lot, alternately, in each range being a reserve, one of which is for the maintenance and support of a protestant clergy within each province, the other for the future disposition of the crown \*. This mode of distribution was found so inconvenient in practice, that, in Lower Canada, the far better plan was adopted in 1821, of forming the reserves into compact blocks, by which means, not only was the embarrassment removed, which their interloping amidst grantable lands generated, but their value, and utility hereafter, were considerably enhanced. The crown reserves continue to be appropriated in the proportions prescribed by law, under the new system of land granting, but they are afterwards disposed of in the same way as the grantable lands at stated upset prices. The clergy reserves, when appropriated, are generally leased by the corporation, to which their administration is confided. The terms of these leases, until lately, were as follows, viz.: For the first seven years, twenty-five shillings, or eight bushels of wheat per annum; the second seven years, fifty shillings, or sixteen bushels of wheat; and for the remainder of the period, seventy-five shillings, or twenty-four bushels of wheat per lot, the lessors having the option of requiring payment to be made in either of the modes stipulated. So early, as 1812 the number of lots thus leased, in Lower Canada, amounted to 363, but this number has much increased since, and the terms of the lease have likewise been extended, in duration, to thirty-three years, and otherwise modified. The crown reserves, which were also leased under similar conditions to those first above stated, will no longer, we presume, be occupied under so temporary a title when they can be obtained under the more substantial tenure of letters-patent, by sale.

\* The dimensions, divisions, and subdivisions of the townships in Lower Canada are stated with precision in the note, vol. i. p. 183. The principle is the same in the upper province.

## CHAPTER XIV.

EMIGRATION—Capabilities and Attractions of the North American Colonies—Systematic Emigrations, 1815, 1818, 1820, 1823, 1825—Perth, Lanark, and Richmond—Reports on Emigration of Select Committee of the House of Commons—Lord Howick's Bill—Employment of Emigrants—Proposed Plan of laying out the Lands for them.

HAVING endeavoured in these volumes to convey to the reader as accurate and comprehensive a view of the British colonies in North America, with regard to their vast extent, their geography, topography and statistics, as the scope of our information would allow; and having in the last chapter given a sketch of the various modes by which the crown lands in those colonies are granted, disposed of, and appropriated, we find ourselves naturally led to the consideration of a subject of paramount importance, which at the present moment peculiarly claims public attention. The political economist, the philanthropist, and the statesman, are alike involved in the investigation of the momentous question of emigration; and inasmuch as that interesting section of the British empire which has furnished the subject-matter of the present work is pre-eminently put forward as the theatre of that emigration, it may not be irrelevant to the matter in hand, to take a cursory view of the history of the recent emigration to the colonies, the various schemes suggested for its protection or promotion, and, finally, the most effectual means that, in our opinion, could be adopted to provide for emigrants after their landing on the other side the Atlantic. In thus taking up the subject, we are far from presuming that our humble lights will, in any great degree, contribute to elucidate the difficulties and perplexities with which, judging from the contrarieties of opinion which it has elicited, the question seems fraught; but our task will be accomplished if, from our intimate knowledge of the provinces to which the tide of emigration is directed, and our long experience and observation, we can point out the most feasible and advantageous manner of disposing of the British and Irish emigrants that land on the Nova Scotian or Canadian shores; touching

but slightly, or perhaps leaving altogether to the province of political economy, the consideration of the policy of emigration from home, the extent to which it should be tolerated or encouraged, the source whence the provision is to be derived, and the regulations by which it ought to be governed.

Of the capabilities of the British North American colonies to provide for a large accession of population no doubt appears to be entertained, since their immense extent and exhaustless natural resources have become tolerably well known. The provinces alone, which form comparatively but a small section of the aggregate of the British possessions in the western hemisphere, occupy nearly 400,000 square statute miles of land, of which superficies scarcely 9,800 square miles have been as yet brought under cultivation, leaving 390,200 square miles still open to the progressive extension of population. Allowing that of these 390,200 square miles one-third will be found covered by barrens, and otherwise unsusceptible of tillage, a surface will still remain, i. e. more than 260,000 square miles, sufficient to sustain and nourish a population exceeding 30,000,000 of souls, admitting that its density should be in the same proportion in which the population of the provinces now stands, that is, about 122 inhabitants to each square mile of cultivation.

Of the attractions held out by the British North American colonies as a field for the pursuits of agriculture, the prosecution of commercial enterprise, and the formation of flourishing settlements, enough will probably have been collected, from the previous pages of this work, to render it unnecessary to dwell upon them incidentally here. If a soil rich and productive in all its varieties, abounding when in a state of nature with trees of the greatest utility and value, and watered by innumerable rivers and streams—a climate salubrious in the extreme, and congenial to the growth of the luxuries, as well as the necessities, of life—skies that are bright and cheerful—can, as far as natural advantages are concerned, be esteemed attractive, they are indeed attractions that eminently belong to these colonies; but if, superadded to these advantages, the freedom of the institutions and government of the provinces, modelled in their principles upon their prototypes in the mother country, be taken into consideration, and that we also reflect upon the great commercial

avenues which present themselves, connecting the extremities of the colonies, and throwing alike all parts of them open to a participation in the benefits of extensive trade; it becomes not a matter of surprise that a numerous class of his majesty's subjects at home should have directed their views to that side of the western ocean, and cast their lots in so favoured, flourishing, and happy a section of the empire.

Soon after the peace of 1815, the return of the gallant army which had achieved the long and sanguinary, but glorious campaign which terminated in the memorable Battle of Waterloo, produced a strong impression upon the almost exhausted resources of Great Britain; and, as a cessation of the war, and a consequent reduction of the army, threw considerable numbers out of employ, the attention of many was directed to the colonies, where his majesty's waste lands were granted, in due proportions, to officers and soldiers, as rewards for military services; these military emigrants were soon followed by other individuals, whose fortunes or circumstances had mediately or immediately been impaired by the political state of affairs in Europe; and thus may be said to have commenced to flow that tide of emigration which has since increased to a degree that has rendered its direction and its control great questions of state policy, intimately connected with the interest and the well-being as well of the mother country as of the colonies. Partial emigrations had, indeed, for years before, occasionally taken place, but their limited sphere, and the circumstances by which they were influenced, seem to distinguish them from those of a more modern date, whose urgency and extent mark them with peculiar features. It was not until 1817 or 1818 that the flood of emigration burst forth upon the British North American provinces with such force as to fix public attention, and attract the notice of his majesty's government; but since that period up to the present time, say thirteen years, no less than 200,000 persons, from all parts of the United Kingdom, have been landed at the seaports of the different colonies. It is true that from the commencement of this general emigration, down to the early part of the administration of Lord Dalhousie as governor-in-chief in Lower Canada, it was a subject of concern to witness thousands who crossed the Atlantic, with a view to settle on the vacant crown lands in the Canadas, pass through those fine provinces, and become, more



through necessity than choice, the subjects of a foreign government. The tedious and long-protracted formalities that were then necessary, in order to obtain grants of lands, are well-known to have been the cause of this secondary migration; but the salutary measures mentioned in the previous chapter having been adopted to facilitate the location of emigrants with despatch, the mass of the people who landed in that character at Quebec or Montreal have, since, been provided for in one or the other of the Canadas, and were thus retained as members of the empire instead of being thrown in the opposite scale of national strength and power.

The first systematic emigration which we have to record took place in 1815. It consisted of about 700 of the natives of Scotland, for whom transports were provided by government, and in the month of June of that year they sailed from Greenock for Canada, where they were located to lands in the district of Johnston, in the Upper Province, and commenced, in 1816, the now flourishing settlement of Perth, which afterwards received a considerable increase of population from the accession of soldiers of the regiments disbanded in the colony after the war. The encouragement under which this emigration proceeded consisted in a free passage across the Atlantic, the grant of one hundred acres of land to each head of a family, and to each son having attained the age of twenty-one years, together with implements of husbandry, besides rations for one year. As a security to government against the abuse of this encouragement, a deposit of 16*l.* was exacted of the grantee for himself, and two guineas for his wife; but two years after the *bond fide* settlement of the lands, this deposit-money was to be returned to the party. Three townships had been surveyed for their reception, and in the spring of 1816 the settlers repaired to the lands allotted to them. In the following year the population of the settlement stood thus:

	<i>Men.</i>	<i>Women.</i>	<i>Children.</i>	
Emigrants	239	111	366	
Discharged soldiers	708	179	287	
	<u>947</u>	<u>290</u>	<u>653</u>	= 1890

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\* "Hints to Emigrants; in a Series of Letters from Upper Canada. By the Rev. William Bell, Minister, Pres. Church, Perth, U. C."

No settlement in the province can be considered to have more fully succeeded than this one, inasmuch as we find from a long series of testimonials collected by Colonel Cockburn, in a report to which we already have often appealed, that most of the settlers in Perth and the townships circumjacent have completely surmounted the vicissitudes incident to their original situation as emigrants, and are now in circumstances of ease and comfort, which would put it amply in their power to refund to his majesty's government, the sums advanced to aid and assist them in their emigration, were such a condition attached to the disbursements.

In 1818 another emigration was effected from Perthshire, in Scotland, under the direction of Mr. Robertson. Their passage out they themselves provided for, but the government paid the expense of their removal from Quebec to the township of Beckwith, in Upper Canada, where lands were allotted to them. They are represented as having proved active and industrious, and as now enjoying "independence and plenty\*."

The settlements of Lanark, near Perth, were formed out of a subsequent emigration from Scotland. Nearly 1,100 persons from Glasgow, Lanark, and other places, embarked in 1820 for Canada, and arrived in safety at Quebec, whence they were immediately forwarded to Perth, and afterwards located to the lands they now occupy in the townships of Lanark and Dalhousie. The boon granted them by government consisted in the location of one hundred acres of land to each head of a family, and in the sum of 10*l.* sterling to each individual emigrating; but this, though sufficient to enable the mass of the 1,100 above-mentioned to remove to Canada, proved inadequate means to some of them, and it was not until 500*l.* were collected by subscription in London, in addition to a minor sum raised in Glasgow, that the remainder, amounting to nearly two hundred individuals, were able to follow their countrymen to America. In the course of the following year, upwards of 1880 persons took the same course, and under similar encouragement from the government, sailed from Greenock in the spring of 1821, on board of transports prepared for their accommodation; but they were, nevertheless, expected, and did in fact pay their own passages, and defray all

Hints to Emigrants.

other expenses incident to their removal. These new settlements, viz. those of 1820 and 1821, were placed under the superintendence of Captain Marshall, to whose zeal and ability much of their subsequent prosperity is ascribed; and it is worthy of remark here, that few instances, if any, are known in which settlements, under the direction of immediate superintendents, have failed; whereas we find that emigrants, left to themselves, are generally very languid in their progress, and not unfrequently desert their lands in disgust, having nobody to prop their energies, and point out the advantages of perseverance.

The complete success of these several Scottish emigrations is thus portrayed by the Rev. Mr. Bell, in one of his letters from Perth in 1824: "Although it is only seven years since the settlement at this place was commenced, astonishing improvements have been made. Many of our settlers, it is true, have gone away to other places, but they were generally those who could be most easily spared, and their places were speedily supplied by persons of a more substantial and industrious character. The woods are gradually disappearing, and luxuriant crops are rising in their stead. The roads are improving, and the means of communication between different parts of the country becoming every day more easy. The habitations first erected by the settlers were of a very humble kind, but these are gradually giving place to more comfortable and substantial dwellings. The military superintendence\* of the settlement was removed on the 24th December, 1822, and we have now all the civil privileges enjoyed by the rest of the province."

The following description of Perth, from the pen of the same writer, will not perhaps appear out of its place here, as connected with the emigrations under consideration, and as offering a very fair instance of the consequence which new settlements may acquire in a comparatively few years, under judicious encouragement and active superintendence.

"Perth is the capital of the district, and the courts of law and justice are held in the town. It contains a jail and court-house, four churches, seven merchants' stores, five taverns, besides between 50 and

\* Perth, Lanark, and Richmond were called military settlements, and from their being in a great measure composed of discharged soldiers, were placed under the control of the quartermaster-general's department until 1822, the period above stated.

100 private houses. The houses are all built of wood except the jail and court-house, and one merchant's store, which are built of brick. There is also a stone house erecting this summer by one of our merchants. The villages of Richmond and Lanark are not making great progress, but this is not to be wondered at in a country where all are living by agriculture. Unless manufactories be established, the population of our villages will always be small. When strangers arrive at Perth and compare the number of churches with the population of the village, they conclude that we either are a very religious people, or, in building them, have taken care to provide accommodation for our country friends as well as for ourselves. There are in the county one episcopal clergyman, four presbyterian ministers, one American methodist preacher, two Roman catholic priests, besides a great variety of lay preachers in the remote parts of the settlement."

The causes which led to these emigrations, meanwhile, were gaining ground; the increase of the operative population in Great Britain and Ireland rapidly outstripped the demand for their labour, and the application of new agents in manufactories, and the more general use of machinery, increased the evil to a degree that arrested the attention of parliament, and measures were adopted to alleviate the distress of the country by encouraging emigration. The idea, however, of a grand national scheme of emigration was novel, and most minds were unprepared to point out any decisive plan for carrying it into effect on a large scale without some previous experiment. Consistently with these views, his majesty's government, in 1823, provided for the removal of 568\* individuals, from Ireland, to the North American colonies, whither they were desirous of emigrating. The expense actually incurred in their passage to, and location in, Canada, amounted to an aggregate sum of 12,593*l.* 3*s.* sterling, or 22*l.* 1*s.* 6*d.* per head, and the direction and superintendence of the emigration were confided to Mr. Peter Robinson, a gentleman whose zeal and exertions in the discharge of his arduous task have secured to him, not only much deserved popularity in the new

182 men, 143 women, 57 boys between fourteen and eighteen years, 186 children under fourteen.

settlements of Upper Canada, but the commendation of the select committee of the House of Commons on emigration. The estimate laid before parliament was calculated upon the following data, viz.: a man 35*l.*, a woman 25*l.*, and two children 14*l.* each, forming a total of 88*l.*, from which a deduction had been made of a little more than nine per cent., it being presumed, "that a combined emigration would be less expensive than an individual case;" but the total absence of all previous preparations, and a high rate of passage, carried the actual expense beyond the estimate\*.

Although the emigrants of 1823 suffered some hardships in the outset, the result of the experiment appears to have been, on the whole, quite satisfactory, as may be seen by the following statistical exhibit of the state of the settlement in 1826, only three years after the first tree had been cut down upon the lands assigned to them.

*Summary of the Emigration of 1823.*

1826.

Townships.	Number of souls.	Births.	Deaths.	Number of acres cleared.	Grain raised since arrival.	Potatoes.	Turnips.	Cattle.	Horses.	Hogs.
Ramsay - -	251	31	11	430½	3,318	13,130	7,950	161	..	138
Huntley - -	79	15	7	116½	469	3,832	1,430	43	2	17
Goulbourn -	59	2	..	96	492	2,307	829	39	..	27
Pakenham -	56	10	2	91	195	1,100	486	36	..	5
Beckwith -	18	1	..	26	192	600	150	7	..	2
Lanark - -	6	2	..	10	60	100	200	5	..	6
Bathurst -	8	2	..	8	100	400	100	7	..	6
Totals	477	63	20	778	4,826	21,469	11,145	298	2	201

In 1825 a further experiment was tried by parliament, upon a much larger scale, the number of emigrants included in that year's plan, exceeding 2,000, among whom were 415 heads of families. They, like the emigrants of 1823, were taken from one of the distressed parts of Ireland, and the men were particularly chosen with a regard to their capability of labouring. Mr. Robinson was, in this instance also, appointed to su-

\* Report of the Select Committee on Emigration from the United Kingdom, p. 6, anno 1827.

perintend their emigration to Upper Canada, and, in the autumn of that year, he saw them located to their lands in several of the townships situated on the Trent, in the district of Newcastle. \* The expense of this emigration amounted, in the aggregate, to 43,145*l.*, including the location and sustenance of the emigrants up to the period at which their first crops enabled them to provide for themselves \*. This sum, if divided by the number of individuals removed, will give 21*l.* 6*s.* 4*d.*, or something less than the estimate of 1823, but if viewed, with relation to the actual heads of families, it will be found to have exceeded that estimate by upwards of 20*l.* per family.

The success of this emigration as an experiment appears to have fully succeeded in corroborating what the first had in some measure served to prove, namely, that emigrants, fostered and encouraged in the outset, would soon be placed in a situation to be able to refund the monies advanced for their removal, whether by government, by individuals, or particular societies. The following general summary, taken from the Appendix to the 3rd Report of the select committee (1827) of the House of Commons on this subject, will show, in the clearest manner, the progress made by that new settlement in the course of *one year*.

*General Summary of the Emigration of 1825.*

1826.

No.	Townships.	Number of locations.	Number of acres cleared.	Produce raised this year.			Bushels of wheat sown this fall.	lbs. of maple sugar made this spring.	Purchased by themselves.		
				Potatoes. Bushels.	Turnips. Bushels.	Indian corn. Bushels.			Oxen.	Cows.	Hogs.
1	Douro - - -	60	245½	8,251	4,175	1,777	80¾	1,159	11	18	22
2	Smith - - -	34	113¼	4,800	1,550	637	40¼	889	6	7	21
3	Otonabee - - -	51	186	10,500	4,250	1,395	38	1,419	4	13	11
4	Emily - - -	142	351½	22,200	7,700	3,442	44½	2,880	6	10	47
5	Ennismore - -	67	195	8,900	3,000	1,042½	44½	1,330	4	9	10
6	Asphodel - - -	36	173	9,150	2,850	1,733	86	1,345	2	8	32
7	Marmora - - -	6	35	1,198	548	207	2	45	5	4	7
8	Ramsey - - -	5	39	800	750	120	16	..	2	4	8
9	Ops - - -	7	12	800	100	..	2	..	..	..	2
10	Goulbourn - -	4	18	600	500	10	2	..	..	3	1
11	Huntley - - -	3	18½	600	200	75	7	..	..	4	5
Totals		415	1,386¾	67,799	25,623	10,438½	363½	9,067	40	80	166

Third Report of the Commons' Select Committee.

Whilst these organized emigrations were going on, numerous families, unconnected with them, left the United Kingdom to resort to the 'North American' colonies, where they were located to lands, and settled themselves without any further aid from government than that of a grant of land, upon the payment of official fees only, which, in Lower Canada, amounted to a trifling sum, 1*l.* 7*s.* 8*d.* per 100 acres; in Upper Canada the fees on 100 acres were much higher, viz. 12*l.*, payable by instalments, but there were no fees whatever upon grants of 50 acre lots. This desultory emigration was by far the largest, and inasmuch as the greatest number of the individuals of this class found the means, out of their own resources generally, of establishing themselves in the townships, it furnishes an argument in favour of leaving emigration to take its own course, abstaining from promoting it by any pecuniary aid, yet affording the new settler all the assistance that can be derived from the direction and superintendence of government agents.

In 1826 the subject was solemnly brought before the British parliament by R. J. Wilmot Horton, Esquire, and a select committee of the house of commons was appointed "to inquire into the expediency of encouraging emigration from the United Kingdom," &c. The indefatigable labours and researches of this committee were presented to the House in a series of important reports, containing the most invaluable information upon all points connected with that momentous question; and they constitute, we believe, the first public documents extant, of any consequence or authority, that have fully investigated and discussed emigration as a great national measure.

In their first Report the committee begin by establishing three general positions: Firstly, The redundancy of the population, that is, the excess of the demand beyond the supply of labour in certain districts of England, Scotland, and Ireland, and the distressing effects of this redundancy. Secondly, The capabilities of the British colonies to subsist and provide for this surplus population; and, lastly, The beneficial tendency of emigration upon the colonies themselves, and upon the national wealth, considering the colonies "as integral parts of the nation at large." Upon these grounds the expediency of emigration is recommended; but the committee, in perfect accordance with those free principles for which



the institutions of Great Britain are so justly renowned, repel the idea of coercive emigration, and advise none that is not "*essentially voluntary*."

These Reports naturally apply much more to that branch of the subject which involves the consideration of the effects such a removal of the surplus population of the United Kingdom would have at home, than the investigation of its tendency, as relates to the colonies; and we are therefore precluded, consistently with our plan, from entering more fully into their contents, except insomuch as may serve to elucidate the various means proposed of providing funds, and the amount of those funds, necessary to defray the expenses attendant upon a pauper emigration.

The committee, in their third and final Report in 1827, recommend a pecuniary advance, in the nature of a loan, for the purpose of facilitating emigration, grounding their recommendation upon the success of the experiments made in 1823 and 1825, by which the ability of the emigrant eventually to refund, with interest, the monies advanced him, is abundantly established. That the settler would be able to meet such a claim stands also corroborated by the testimony of the Perth emigrants, who almost uniformly admit their capacity to do so, in kind generally, and even in some cases in currency, had such been the stipulations entered into\*. Up to the period of this Report, the monies applied in the removal of emigrants, and their location in the colonies, whether out of individual or national funds, had been disbursed, without contemplating the probability of their being refunded. The return for the capital thus expended was supposed to arise from the benefit accruing to the community by the abstraction of unprofitable inhabitants, who consumed a portion of the aggregate stock, without contributing any thing, by their labour, to the national wealth. This return, however, was probably found more theoretical than substantial; and when the encouragement of emigration upon a large scale, by votes from the national funds, was taken into consideration, the expediency of exacting a direct return either in money or in produce suggested itself as not only feasible, but just: the committee, in consequence, proposed a plan for doing so, and by a series of tabular

calculations and schedules, framed upon an hypothetical case, exhibits a mode in which competent interest for the capital laid out might be fairly expected. The case assumed involves the emigration of 19,000 families in the course of three years, at an expense of 60*l.* each. This sum would, it is stated, begin to be refunded after the expiration of the first three years (which are left perfectly free), upon the following principle:—each family would pay ten shillings in money or in produce the fourth year of their location, one pound the fifth year, and so on, increasing regularly by ten shillings every successive year, until the sum amounted to five pounds, when it should remain stationary until a period of thirty years, computing from the date of their emigration, would have expired, when the annuity would totally cease, the capital advanced finding itself, by that time, refunded with interest. The ingenuity and the simplicity, at once, of the plan, entitle it to a more particular consideration than we can devote to it here; but the tables explanatory of the scheme are thrown into the Appendix.

Looking now, retrospectively, at the various means of encouragement that have been hitherto adopted, and the extent to which, at different times, that encouragement was held out, we find that the British and Irish emigrant was, at one period, allowed—a free passage—a grant of land,—implements of husbandry—and rations for one year. As a check against the abuse of these advantages, each head of a family was bound to deposit eighteen pounds, which were restored to him when he had become a *bonâ fide* settler. The Perth settlement in 1815 was formed under these circumstances.

At another period, we find the emigrant left to provide for his own passage and that of his family, but government paid—the expense of his removal to his land after arrival,—and *granted* him the lands. The emigration from Perthshire in 1818 proceeded upon these terms.

Subsequently, the regulations were again altered, and the Lanark emigrants in 1820 received—the usual grant of land—and the sum of ten pounds per head. These various changes and modifications led to the same general result, inasmuch as the greater number at least, if not all the individuals who availed themselves of some one or the other of the above conditions, have derived material benefits from their emigration:

they serve to show that encouragement, in almost any shape, is likely to realize extensive emigrant settlements in the North American colonies, where the efforts of industry are so peculiarly seconded by the circumstances of the country. We shall not dwell upon the plan suggested by the select committee on emigration, whereby they rely upon the expediency of allowing a sum of sixty pounds for the removal, to the colonies, of each family desirous of emigrating. If the scheme proposed had been carried into effect, we fully concur in believing, that the allowance made would have been quite sufficient to locate the parties to lands in the Canadas or the other provinces, and secure to them the means of becoming independent farmers, capable as such of eventually meeting the claims of his majesty's government to the reimbursement of the monies expended on their behalf. But the apparent abandonment of this plan, and the adoption of a system different in principle, yet tending, we believe, to the same beneficial ends, render the consideration of the select committee's proposition too speculative for our purpose; but we refer to the Report itself, as highly interesting and important.

Whether emigration should be fostered and encouraged by funds drawn from the British treasury, or be left to take its own course, is a question that has not escaped the notice of the Select Committee of the House of Commons, whose enlightened reports we have so often adverted to; and it is the opinion of the committee, that the latter principle is entirely sound, and that with some modifications, it might be beneficially acted upon; "but they conceive that it is utterly erroneous to suppose that a redundant population of absolute paupers can be removed by casual and unassisted emigration\*." In giving their farther consideration to this branch of the subject, the committee go on to give as their decided opinion, "that if the principle of casual and independent emigration were to be preferred to that of a regulated and located emigration,—if it were to be laid down as a principle that there could be no limitation to the absorption of labourers either in the United States or in our own colonies, and that we have only to build a bridge as it were over the Atlantic to carry over the starving poor of the mother country to secure

their advantage and prosperity, it will be found that the evils which would be thereby inflicted upon our pauper population would be hardly less than those from which they had escaped. If an attempt were made to pour them indiscriminately into the United States, without reference to the demand for labour that may exist there, the laws of that country, already hostile to such an introduction, would probably be made still more effectual to prevent it; or if it be proposed that our colonies should receive them in unlimited numbers when transmitted without selection, without reference to the real demand for their services as labourers, and unaided by capital, upon the principle of repayment, there will be no bounds to the complaints which the colonies will raise against the injustice and short-sightedness of our policy\*."

In these views of the policy of a well-regulated emigration we most fully concur, experience having already abundantly proved the distress and mischief consequent upon the absence of a regular system. The deluded pauper may gather a trifling pittance to transfer him to the colonies, and may by such a removal relieve the mother country of the burden of maintaining him and his family; but arriving in a state of absolute destitution, he finds his condition still worse in the colonies than at home, no laws existing there for the relief of the poor, indeed no such laws having been thought of in the country, from the absence of such a degree of pauperism as rendered them necessary.

It may be said, that in a country where the supply of cultivable land is exhaustless, as is the case in the British North American colonies, pauperism cannot long exist if the lands themselves be distributed to the needy upon easy conditions, and that therefore the accession of population, whether composed of indigent or wealthy individuals, provided it consist of able-bodied men, is such an accession as must be desirable in a country where the soil is so abundant and the inhabitants comparatively few. The truth of this position must be readily admitted, but the benefits to arise, from such an emigration, would essentially depend upon the facilities with which the new comers might obtain the soil which was to convert them from paupers into farmers; and if, for the sake of argument, it be

\* Third Report, page 36.

assumed that the colonies had the direct control and administration of their lands, we have no doubt that the policy would be to let no man be idle whilst a farm remained to be cultivated; and thus, whilst on the one hand it would be for the interest of Great Britain to relieve herself of an unproductive labouring population, as regards their situation at home, it would, on the other, be no less an advantage to the colonies to receive it, having the means of providing for them immediately, even at the expense of an outlay of provincial capital, for which adequate returns might afterwards be received.

But it is no less the policy of the mother country than of the colonies to improve the condition of the pauper emigrant, and the solicitude of his majesty's government on the subject is manifested by the attention which has been devoted to it, as well in, as out, of parliament. The large sums of money already voted by the British legislature, in aid of emigration, are evidence of a desire not to burthen the colonies with the surplus and unprovided population of the United Kingdom, and if a further proof could be required of the existence of such a feeling, it is to be found in the reports of the emigration committee, and in the tenor of the bill introduced in the House of Commons by Lord Howick, "to facilitate voluntary emigration to his majesty's possessions abroad," an epitome of which bill is given in the Appendix.

The views of government upon this subject appear manifest again, from the plan more recently contemplated of providing needy emigrants with employment in the colonies. The application of their labour in the construction of works of public utility, such as opening roads and canals in various parts of the country, cannot but essentially benefit the provinces to which the system would extend, not only from the local ameliorations that would naturally arise from such works, but from the capital that would immediately be put afloat. The source, whence government calculate a return for the capital thus expended, is to be found in the system of selling the crown lands, in the manner stated in the foregoing chapter, and we have no doubt that, under judicious regulations, and with the co-operation of the local legislatures, this mode of providing for emigrants in the colonies would be attended with complete success.

Before entering more fully into the subject of the employment and the location of the emigrants in the manner contemplated, it may not be amiss to give some account of Lord Howick's bill, that we may know what class of individuals is held in view, and under what circumstances they are to emigrate, and be landed upon the British trans-atlantic shores.

The bill in question provides for the appointment of commissioners, styled commissioners of emigration, who are to act under the instructions of the colonial secretary of state, to whom they are to report to his majesty twice a year. It leaves the parishes to determine, themselves, upon the expediency or non-expediency of the emigration of their pauper parishioners; and, after the affirmative determination of the vestry, the commissioners are authorised to enter into contracts with the overseers of the poor for the removal to the colonies of such parties as are disposed, voluntarily, to emigrate, and who become likewise parties to the contract, the commissioners undertaking to provide for their passage, "their maintenance and support during the voyage, and from the time of their disembarkation until the period of their arrival at their ultimate destination, and also to provide them, in the first instance, with the means of obtaining their own subsistence;" the overseers obliging themselves, on the other hand, on behalf of their respective parishes, to the payment, out of the parish rates, into the treasury, of a certain sum in the contract stated, by equal half-yearly instalments. The commissioners are, moreover, authorised to enter into similar obligations with private individuals for like purposes, provided sufficient securities be tendered by the parties with whom they may be entered into. This clause, we presume, is intended to meet the circumstances of Ireland, where there are no poor rates out of which the parishes could derive the requisite funds, to meet such engagements, for the removal of pauper emigrants.

It is foreign to our plan to investigate into the probable operation of this bill in the metropolitan country; how it will affect the colonies is a question which comes more within our province, and giving to it, under that aspect, the most attentive consideration, we have been led to infer most favourably of its tendency to promote the settlements of British North American provinces. It ensures, in some degree, the respectability of the emigration; it restricts it, at least as far as the aid is concerned,

to able-bodied labourers and their families; it guarantees the provinces against the pauperism of the individuals who emigrate under its provisions, by providing them with the means of subsistence for a time, and, by its contemplating the scheme of their employment upon public works, promises also to contribute vastly to the improvement of that part of his majesty's dominions abroad. But there are considerations of great weight, which it is necessary to bear in mind, in the application of such a system to the North American possessions. These considerations relate chiefly to the climate, which is generally so rigorous as to interrupt field labour during nearly half the year, except, however, lumbering, which is, for the most part, carried on in the woods in winter. But the opening of roads, the excavation of canals, the erection of mills, are all the labours of milder seasons, and cannot be prosecuted amidst deep snows and intense frosts, especially by people little inured to the severity of almost Siberian cold.

By a cessation of labour for nearly six months, admitting employment to have been constant during the other six months, it is scarcely possible to presume that the emigrant, at the year's end, would be more competent to purchase his land of the crown than he was at the beginning, nor could he even be considered better capable of setting himself, with his family, down, upon even a free location, to commence a settlement for himself.

Instances, indeed, are known, and they are not rare, of emigrant labourers having saved, out of two years' earnings, a competent sum to commence the improvement and settlement of lands of their own; but these labourers were, for the most part, peculiarly situated, and they are found to belong to that class who have generally been employed in the towns, and obtained lands by grant, sale, or copyhold in the neighbourhood. The case would be somewhat different if the scene of the emigrant's labour were a wilderness, remote, as it probably would be, from towns and settlements, and to which he could not take his wife and children. Their resources would thus necessarily have to be divided and their expenses increased.

Notwithstanding these objections, the principle of providing employment, in the colony, for the pauper emigrant, and thus enabling him

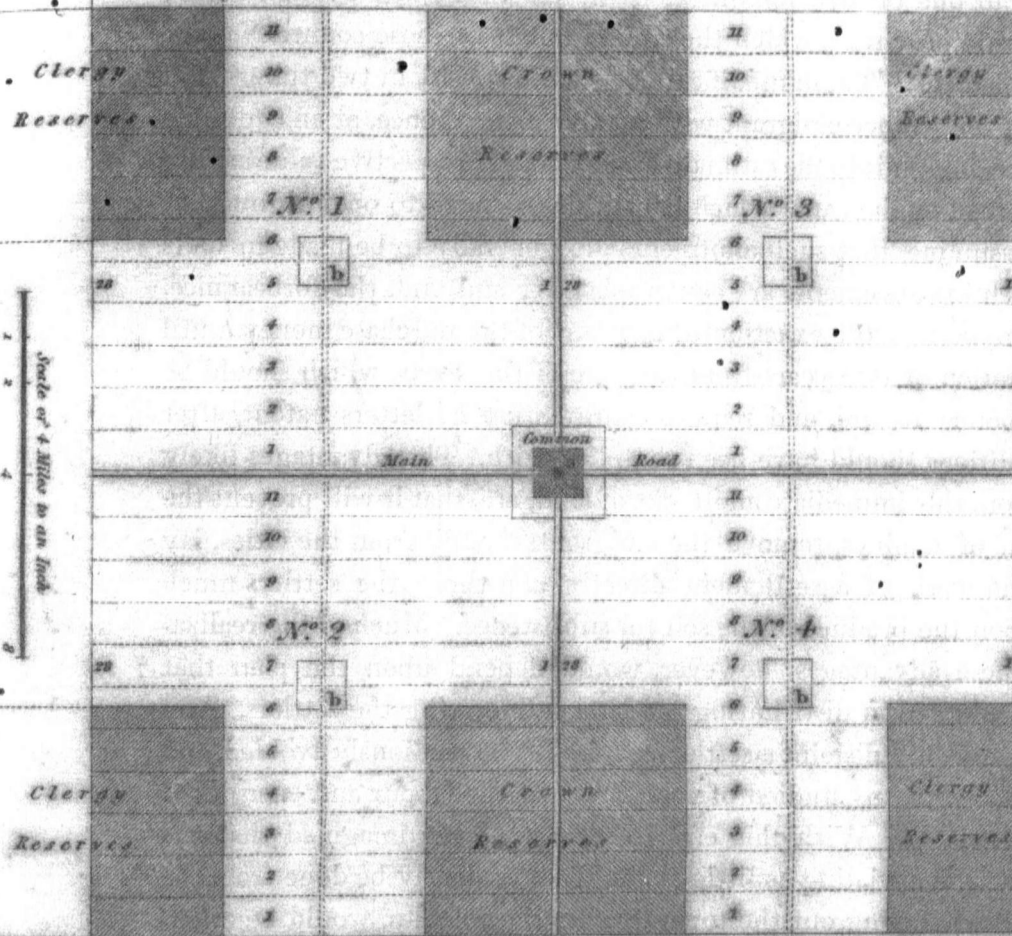


eventually to purchase his allotment, remains incontestably correct; it requires but one or two modifications in practice, when applied to the trans-atlantic provinces, which the circumstances of those countries point out as expedient. These modifications should consist in two things, 1st, providing the pauper emigrant with an allotment at once, at an equitable upset price, taking into the estimate its additional prospective value arising from the road or the canal which it may be intended to open through or near it (assuming that such allotments are generally to be made in spots where such improvements are contemplated); and 2nd, the forbearance, by government, of the exaction of any part of the purchase money, until the expiration of two years from the date of the deeds, which should be of a temporary nature, and require confirmation by letters patent, after their conditions should have been complied with. The advantages likely to flow from this immediate allotment of land, are, that it will prevent the separation of families, remove the emigrants bodily from the cities, lay the ground-work of a settlement directly, and throw the settlers much sooner upon the produce of the soil for subsistence. Much of the realization of these advantages, however, would depend upon the plan that might be adopted in distributing the land and locating the settlers. Any system that would disjoint a settlement should be studiously avoided, and every possible means studied of concentrating the labour and energies of an infant colony. With this end in view we have imagined that the following plan, deviating as little as could conveniently be done from the usual mode of laying out the townships in the colonies, would be calculated to facilitate the object intended. The economy of the survey is simple in itself, and it will at once be understood upon an inspection of the illustrative graphical delineation annexed.

The plan represents a compact square of four complete townships, equal to 246,400 acres. The blocks lightly shaded exhibit the reserves for the crown, the darker shades those for the clergy, and they are all so placed in the angles of each township, as not in the least to interfere with the roads or the settlements.

The reservations, in the four townships, amount together to 35,200 acres, leaving 211,200 acres to be disposed of to emigrants, and capable, therefore, admitting all the lands to be cultivable, of providing for

# Projected Plan of Four Townships FOR EMIGRANT SETTLEMENTS in the British Colonies of North America.



## Reference

N° 1234. Four Townships averaging 10 Miles Square, divided into 11 Ranges or Roads & each Range containing 28 Lots of 20 Acres, including the allowance of 5 p<sup>c</sup> Cent for highways. Lots 28 Chains 75 Links in breadth & 75 Ch. 5 Lks in depth.

Aa. Village Plots One Mile Square.

Common round the Village half a mile in breadth.

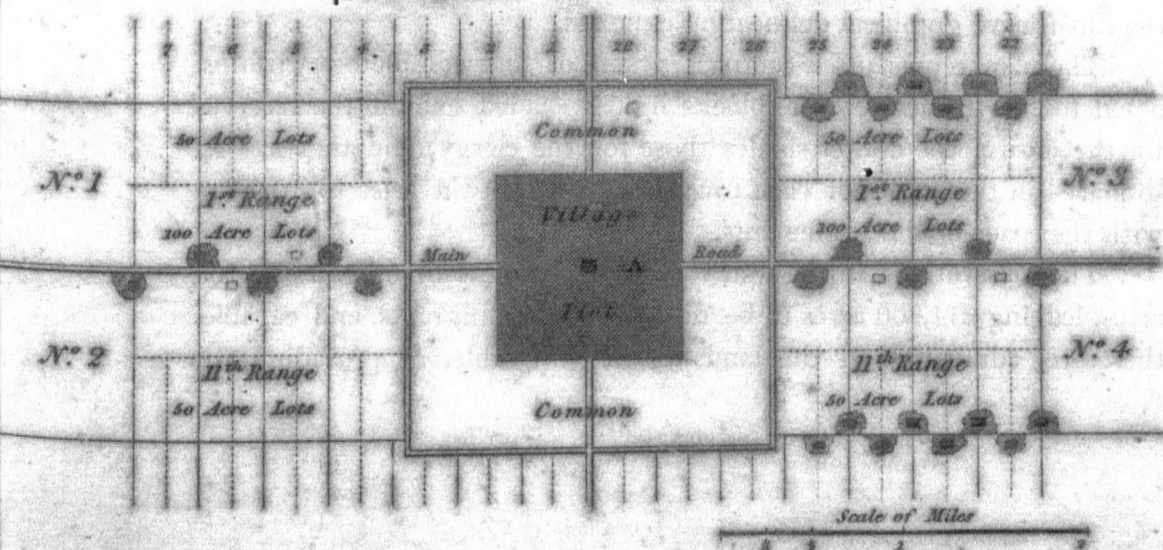
b. Site of Village Plots if required in each Township.

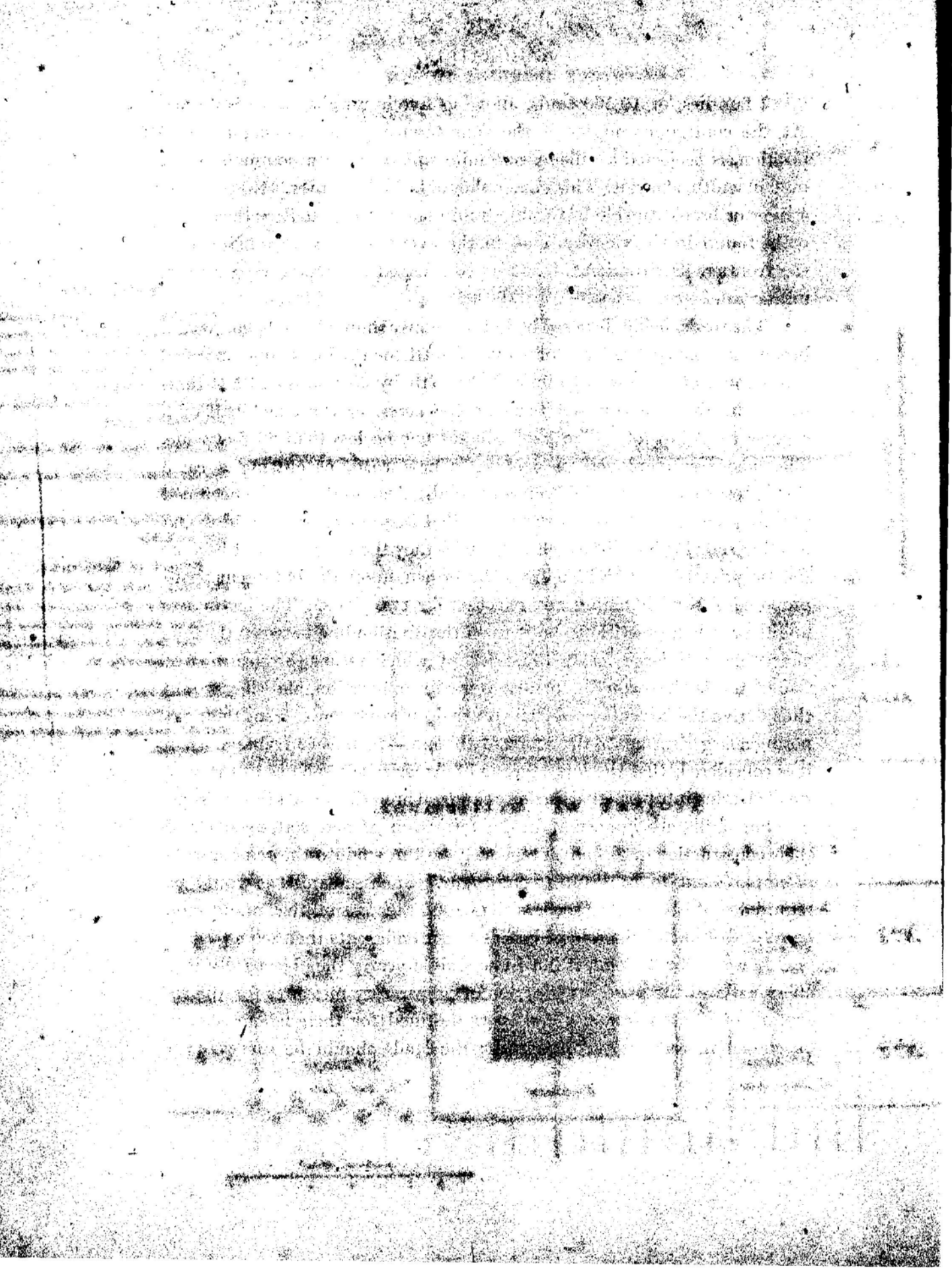
## Project of Settlement.

The Village to be laid out in Acre & half Acre Lots, Reserving proper Sites for Public Buildings, Market Place &c. the Main Streets to be 66 feet wide, and the others generally 40.

Temporary Log Huts sufficiently large to contain 2 families, so placed that the clearing of each settler may be connected.

## Project of Settlement.





2,112 families, or 10,560 souls, allowing five in number to each family. At the contiguous angles of the four townships, as a general central position, is projected a village, one mile square, with a common, half a mile in width, about it. This village should be laid out to suit the ground; a river or brook capable of turning a mill ought either to flow through it or be found in the vicinity, and, in the event of the village being near the frontier, its situation might also be selected with some regard to its military defence.

The roads, being disposed of in the manner shown by the plan, would become, severally, the front of a line of settlements, lots being surveyed along them of 28 chains 75 links in breadth by 86 chains and  $52\frac{1}{2}$  links in depth, giving a compact farm of 105 acres, or the exact half of a regular township lot. The roads should not be less than 66 feet wide. The labourers employed in opening a new road, or cutting a canal through townships, thus laid out and subdivided, might also be occupied as they proceed, in making *betterments*, that is, preparatory clearings, and erecting rude log huts, of which *betterments* they themselves might become the proprietors, by purchase from the crown upon the indulgent terms proposed, *i. e.* withholding any exaction for two years. The log-houses might be, when practicable, built upon the division line between the lots, and sufficiently large for two families, by which means the clearings of two of the settlers would generally come in conjunction, and they would thus derive the advantage of their mutual improvements, from their exposing a larger surface to the action of the sun,—no mean advantage when it is considered, that the lofty forests of America are such as to throw a small clearing into perpetual shade, to the great prejudice of all kinds of crops.

Saw-mills are important in the formation of new settlements, and their construction might advantageously be thrown into the general scale of employment to be given to emigrants. Such saw-mills as would be required could be erected for less than 150*l.* each, a sum that might soon be refunded out of the sale of boards to the emigrants themselves.

It would be difficult, if not impossible, to carry the object fully into effect without the previous adoption of preparatory measures for the reception of the emigrants. The spots destined for their labour should be chosen in each of the provinces; the lands should be surveyed; a



government store-house, under the management of the commissariat department of the colony, should be established in some central position of the tract which is to be made the scene of action. This store should be provided with provisions, blankets, tents, and implements of husbandry. With these preparatives nothing can prevent the emigrant's removing with his family at once to the theatre of his labours, inasmuch as he would arrive there at a mild season, where he could easily provide sufficient temporary shelter, until, in the progress of his work through the season, he would, if industrious, be able to erect a more solid habitation for his reception in winter, or probably become the occupant of one of the betterments previously mentioned. This, in fact, is the mode in which the Perth and Peterborough settlements in Upper Canada were effected, and the plan of opening roads, and settling emigrants simultaneously, is instanced in the Talbot settlement of the same province, where the labour of the settlers was judiciously divided in the opening and amelioration of roads, and the clearing of their own lands.

We have already hinted at the advantage of removing the mass of the emigration bodily from the towns as soon as possible—this advantage would become still greater if they were not allowed to enter them at all, but were immediately, upon their landing, conveyed to the place of their destination.

An individual case of emigration would then stand thus:—An emigrant's family is taken up by government under the provisions of Lord Howick's bill, and shipped on board a transport, say for Lower Canada. The vessel arrives at Quebec, and the resident government agent for emigrants takes charge of them. They land at Point Levi, opposite the city, and are immediately forwarded, by means previously prepared, to the Kempt Road, the Ottawa, or any where else where lands have been surveyed for them, and the other preparations formerly mentioned await their arrival. Arrived there (we suppose at the end of May or the beginning of June) the overseer of the works intended to be done, or perhaps a township agent, points out how they are to house themselves immediately; the father, and such of his sons as can labour, are forthwith set to work, and they have on the spot a store where they can purchase their food. A hundred acre lot, or perhaps only fifty acres,

are assigned to the head of each family, at a fair valuation, under the conditions either of a quit-rent or payments by instalments, with a forbearance of the exaction, for two years, of any monies or produce whatever. He is employed in the public works from eight in the morning till six in the evening, and has therefore two hours before he begins his day's labour, and nearly as much after he has finished it, (from the length of summer days,) which he may, if industrious, devote to the erection of a log-house for himself, and in clearing his lands. The following year he would, probably, be able, with very little assistance, to support his family out of his first crops.

Emigration, carried on to any extent in this way, could not be directed to one spot only, in any one of the colonies, but would necessarily be divided, and placed in various eligible situations in different parts of each province; but the settlements in each colony could, nevertheless, be ranged under one general superintendence, as it is well known that the complete efficiency of any extensive system much depends upon uniformity of principle and action, which establishes order and economy in the arrangements, and infuses additional vigour in the prosecution of any great undertaking.

In laying open our view of this momentous subject, we are aware that there are a variety of topics, involved in the consideration of the question, which deserve to be investigated, but which we have merely hinted, or passed entirely, *sub silentio*. We have before given our reasons for doing so. Of the topics alluded to, perhaps none is more susceptible of discussion than that which relates to the policy or the necessity of encouraging emigration at all, or the wisdom of leaving it to itself; and we confess, that with the following statement before us, we should be disposed to espouse the latter opinion, especially when viewing emigration as a relief to the mother country. But looking at the subject, not only under that aspect, but also as it affects the condition of the emigrants themselves, and operates upon the colonies, we do think that an organized system is attended with the more extensive advantages, both national and individual, since the reduction of pauperism in any part of the empire must tend to improve the wealth, strength, and independence of the nation as a whole. The scenes of human misery that are exhibited

on the wharfs in the colonies, by the swarms of emigrants that arrive from Ireland and other parts of the United Kingdom, are too appalling to allow us to argue in favour of an unprotected and unregulated emigration. His majesty's government has ever been too paternal to consign those of the king's subjects, whose circumstances give them no alternative between emigration and famine, to such wretchedness; and it is in that spirit which has ever distinguished the British government, that the subject was taken up as one of a national nature, and measures proposed and adopted to alleviate the miseries of emigration, and ensure to those, whose destiny removed them from their birthplace, a comfortable asylum, under the protecting ægis of the same constitution, in a remote part of his majesty's dominions.

*Emigration from the United Kingdom to the Colonies*

Years,	North American Colonies.	West Indies.	Cape of Good Hope.	New South Wales, Swan River, &c.	Total.
1825	8,741	1,082	114	485	10,422
1826	12,818	1,913	116	903	15,750
1827	12,648	1,156	114	715	14,633
1828	12,084	1,211	135	1,056	14,486
1829	13,907†	1,251	197	2,016	17,371

That the views of the imperial government, as regard emigration, would be essentially promoted by the interference of the local legislatures of the different colonies, and their adoption of measures calculated to facilitate the carrying into effect the objects contemplated, cannot be doubted, and indeed their co-operation was, by the emigration committee, esteemed material to the success of a general system of emigration. The language of the committee is so distinct upon this point, that although it is applied to a different system which was then contemplated, it is by no means inapposite to the more recent plan of *employment*, inasmuch as the funds out of which the labour of emigrants is to be paid might be greatly aided by colonial votes, to be applied towards the local improvement of their respective provinces.

\* Year Book, 1831.

† By official returns in Quebec papers of 3rd August, 1831, this year's emigration appears to be 15,945. In 1830, it was 28,075, and on the 23rd August, 1831, 40,300, at Quebec alone.



"Your committee beg most distinctly to be understood, that they rest their case entirely upon the presumed co-operation and assistance of the colonial legislatures. Unless this can be obtained, they feel that repayment would be impracticable; if it be obtained, they entertain confident hopes that it may be reduced to a regular and effective system; and though they could not go so far as to require a guarantee upon the part of the colonial legislatures, they should expect them to make such provisions as should tend to enforce and secure the validity of the engagements made. Nor upon a very mature examination of the subject can your committee be induced to conceive that the local legislatures can have any disinclination to enter into such arrangements. The intelligent inhabitants of those colonies cannot fail to be aware, that when those emigrants repay the loan which is proposed to be lent to each head of a family, they will only repay a very small part of the wealth which they possess, and which has been created by their emigration. They will be aware also that the projected emigration will consist exclusively of able-bodied, healthy persons, selected upon system in the mother country, and introduced upon system into the colony, and that it is not to be a casual, desultory, and unprovided-for emigration. Under such circumstances your committee cannot doubt the disposition of the local legislatures of the colonies to encourage the measure and to facilitate the process of repayment, an opinion which is expressed unanimously by the colonial witnesses examined before your committee\*."

As far as our own conviction goes, founded upon the approved liberality of the colonial legislatures of the British North American provinces, towards the amelioration of internal communications and the prosecution of public works, we have no hesitation in believing, that those legislatures will co-operate most cordially with government at home, in any measure calculated at the same time to forward the settlements, to improve thereby the wealth of the colonies, and to provide for a numerous class of fellow-subjects from the bosom of the mother country, who throw themselves upon the agricultural resources of those parts of the empire for support.

\* Third Report.

## CHAPTER XV

General Considerations on the British North American Colonies—Their Importance, as arising from Territory, Trade, and Shipping, and their political Weight as Appendages to the Empire.

THE geography and statistics of the British North American provinces have now been fully laid, in topographical detail, before the reader; and, although in the multitude of objects presenting themselves to our observation, in the course of a work of so comprehensive a nature, some facts of more or less moment may possibly have escaped us, abundance has yet, we believe, been shown to demonstrate the intrinsic worth of those vast and flourishing regions of the British empire. Indeed, if the absolute value of those colonies, as demonstrated from their territorial extent, their situation, fertility, and populousness, were the only question involved in the consideration of their importance, that question might be answered by a reference to the work itself; but, viewed as integral parts of a great empire, though physically separated from the metropolitan country by intervening oceans, they become a topic of still deeper interest, and unfold, under that aspect, a variety of points of inquiry, as bearing upon national policy, that have led to some discussion; one set of opinions putting those colonies down as burthens to the parent state, whilst another, by far the most numerous and weighty, maintain with sound argument, their incalculable value and importance to the national resources and maritime power of Great Britain. Espousing as we do, without qualification, the latter opinion, we shall endeavour to state distinctly and briefly our grounds for so doing, prefacing our reasons by a few general remarks on colonies.

The term colony, in its restricted sense, is defined to be “a company of people transplanted into some remote province (or region) in order to

cultivate and inhabit it\*:" in its more general acceptation, it applies not only to plantations, but to distant dependencies, acquired as well by conquest as first occupancy! If we look at the antiquity of colonies, we shall find it coeval with the earliest ages of history; so much so, indeed, that many of the numerous migrations mentioned in Holy Writ are in the nature of colonial plantations, and originated, in some respects, from similar causes to those that led to the formation, in later times, of new settlements in distant countries, viz. redundancy of population, the desire of escaping from religious or civil persecution, and conquest.\* The modern class of colonies, coming under the denomination of *colonies of commerce*, are more recent in their origin, but they are probably to be traced as far back as the time of the Phœnicians, the Grecians, and the Romans. Of the former may be mentioned the emigration of Esau from the land of Canaan† to dwell in Mount Seir, and the possession of the land of Canaan by Moses.

The overwhelming populousness of the north is ascribed as the cause which urged the flood of emigration that eventually subdued the south of Europe, and made the Roman empire, in the height of its greatness, a prey to gothic hordes, who, in their devastating progress, came in collision with the Huns from central Asia, and thus hastened the ruin of their more civilized contemporaries. But these barbarian‡ emigrations,

\* Encyclopedia Britannica.

† The reason assigned is, "For their riches were more than that they might dwell together: and the land in which they were strangers could not bear them, because of their cattle." Genesis, chap. xxxvi.

‡ This term is applied, by all Roman writers, as a genuine demonstration of all the tribes of the north of Europe and the centre of Asia. The Goth and the Roman are thus contrasted by the author of "Teutonic Antiquities," (C. Chatfield, Esquire):—"Far from finding grounds to sustain that weight of prejudice, which affixes an opprobrium to the term of Goth as distinguished from the Roman of this era, the two races were, in fact, singularly marked by the reverse of the character usually affixed to their names; for the Roman citizen had sunk into the corrupting snares of sloth and slavery, while the barbarian breathed that tone of independency and of equality, which constructed the ground-work of the feudal constitutions of Europe, and which elevation of principle, modified by circumstance and climate, led to every advantage which is enjoyed by her respective states at the present day. Had Europe sustained the yoke of Rome in its state of debasement, the world had remained in the same moral degradation and slavery; but the unconquerable spirit of the northern warriors elevated them to an equality with the proudest of their rulers, and this inequality among the nobles established the fixed rights of

though they laid the foundation of new settlements and new provinces, bear no striking analogy to modern colonization. The Greeks, the Romans, the Carthaginians appear to have been, in ancient times, those who best understood the systematic establishment of colonies. Carthage is considered by Aristotle \* to have derived her long stability and greatness from that cause, and Rome is probably no less indebted to the extent of her colonial possessions for the herculean power she attained over the destinies of the world. We have, therefore, the experience of ages past, and of nations the most puissant on the face of the earth, to show that colonies are an accession of strength, and not a diminution of power, to a parent state; and if, indeed, we had not the examples of Rome and Carthage before us, the advantages of colonies, properly regulated and governed, are of too ostensible and extensive a nature to need such foreign corroborative testimony.

Narrowing down our view of the subject to the consideration of the colonies of Great Britain in North America, it will not, we apprehend, be a task of much difficulty to establish their importance to the mother country, the advantage of the mother country to them, and consequently the mutual benefits conferred, upon both parts of the empire, by their union, under a liberal and enlightened system of colonial policy.

After all that has been said and written on this branch of the subject, few arguments of any weight can, probably, now be urged that will be novel; but we shall endeavour to place our canvass in such a light as may, we hope, serve to bring out more forcibly those points upon which the merits of our view principally rest. To this end we shall consider four points: viz. 1st, The territorial extent of the British dominions in North America, and its consequences; 2d, The trade of the North American colonies; 3d, Their shipping; 4th, Their political weight as appendages to the British crown.

their feudatory system. It is thus that history invariably records them as bearing forth from central Asia a restless unconquered spirit, a religion simple and martial as themselves, and institutions containing germs of liberty destined, in a future day, to ripen into principles decisive of the pre-eminence and happiness of Europe, thereby making a large amends to mankind for the calamities attendant on the overthrow of the Roman Empire."

\* Politics, C. xii. lib. ii.