

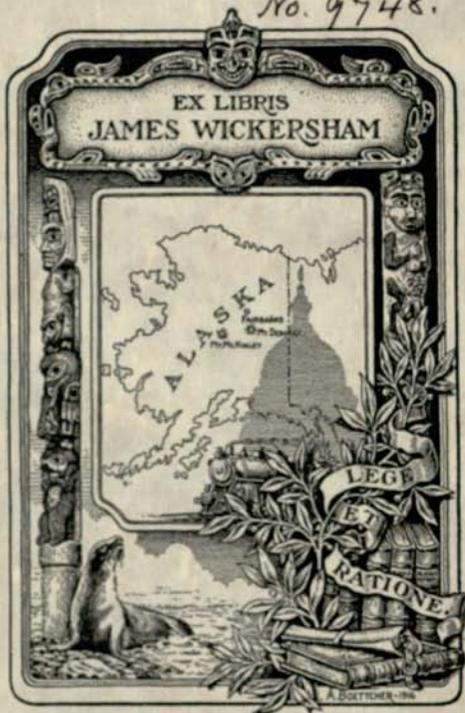
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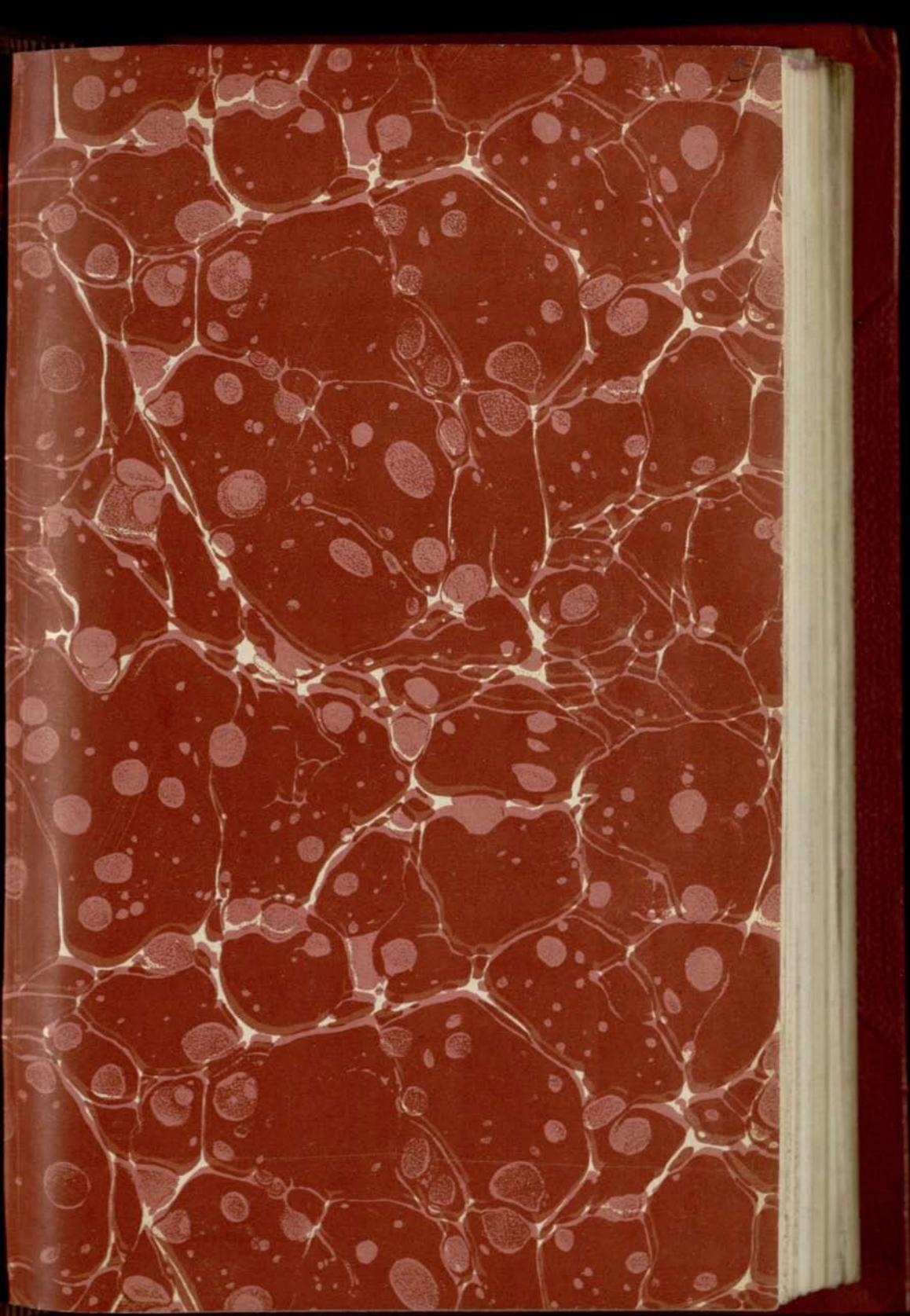
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No. 6833.

No. 4086-9708

No. 9748.





Message from the
President ... to the 2nd House
of Congress Wick # 6833



Memoir, historical and
political, on the NW Coast
of North America Wick # 4086,
9708



Memoir, geographical, political,
and commercial, on the
present state ... Wick # 9748



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25th CONGRESS,
3d Session.

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MESSAGE

FROM

THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES

TO

THE TWO HOUSES OF CONGRESS,

AT

THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE THIRD SESSION

OF

THE TWENTY-FIFTH CONGRESS.

DECEMBER 4, 1838.

Read, and committed to a Committee of the Whole House on the state of the Union.

WASHINGTON;

PRINTED BY THOMAS ALLEN.

1838.

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THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES
OF THE UNITED STATES
IN SENATE

REPORT

OF THE

COMMISSIONERS OF THE GENERAL LAND OFFICE

IN RESPONSE TO A RESOLUTION OF THE SENATE

PASSED MARCH 1, 1854

WASHINGTON

1854

FEB 27 1942

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MESSAGE.

*Fellow-citizens of the Senate
and House of Representatives :*

I congratulate you on the favorable circumstances in the condition of our country, under which you reassemble for the performance of your official duties. Though the anticipations of an abundant harvest have not everywhere been realized, yet, on the whole, the labors of the husbandman are rewarded with a bountiful return; industry prospers in its various channels of business and enterprise; general health again prevails through our vast diversity of climate; nothing threatens, from abroad, the continuance of external peace; nor has any thing at home impaired the strength of those fraternal and domestic ties which constitute the only guaranty to the success and permanency of our happy Union, and which, formed in the hour of peril, have hitherto been honorably sustained through every vicissitude in our national affairs. These blessings, which evince the care and beneficence of Providence, call for our devout and fervent gratitude.

We have not less reason to be grateful for other bounties bestowed by the same munificent hand, and more exclusively our own.

The present year closes the first half century of our federal institutions; and our system—differing from all others in the acknowledged practical and unlimited operation which it has for so long a period given to the sovereignty of the people—has now been fully tested by experience.

The constitution devised by our forefathers as the frame-work and bond of that system, then untried, has become a settled form of government; not only preserving and protecting the great principles upon which it was founded, but wonderfully promoting individual happiness and private interests. Though subject to change and entire revocation, whenever deemed inadequate to all these purposes, yet such is the wisdom of its construction, and so stable has been the public sentiment, that it remains unaltered, except in matters of detail comparatively unimportant. It has proved amply sufficient for the various emergencies incident to our condition as a nation. A formidable foreign war; agitating collisions between domestic, and, in some respects, rival sovereignties; temptations to interfere in the intestine commotions of neighboring countries; the dangerous influences that arise in periods of excessive prosperity; and the anti-republican tendencies of associated wealth—these, with other trials not less formidable, have all been encountered, and thus far successfully resisted.

It was reserved for the American Union to test the advantages of a Government entirely dependent on the continual exercise of the popular will; and our experience has shown that it is as beneficent in practice as it is just in theory. Each successive change made in our local institutions has contributed to extend the right of suffrage, has increased the direct influence of the mass of the community, given greater freedom to individual exertion, and restricted, more and more, the powers of Government;

yet the intelligence, prudence, and patriotism of the people have kept pace with this augmented responsibility. In no country has education been so widely diffused. Domestic peace has nowhere so largely reigned. The close bonds of social intercourse have in no instance prevailed with such harmony over a space so vast. All forms of religion have united, for the first time, to diffuse charity and piety, because, for the first time in the history of nations, all have been totally untrammelled and absolutely free. The deepest recesses of the wilderness have been penetrated, yet, instead of the rudeness in the social condition consequent upon such adventures elsewhere, numerous communities have sprung up, already unrivalled in prosperity, general intelligence, internal tranquillity, and the wisdom of their political institutions. Internal improvement, the fruit of individual enterprise, fostered by the protection of the States, has added new links to the confederation, and fresh rewards to provident industry. Doubtful questions of domestic policy have been quietly settled by mutual forbearance; and agriculture, commerce, and manufactures minister to each other. Taxation and public debt, the burdens which bear so heavily upon all other countries, have pressed with comparative lightness upon us. Without one entangling alliance, our friendship is prized by every nation; and the rights of our citizens are everywhere respected, because they are known to be guarded by a united, sensitive, and watchful people.

To this practical operation of our institutions, so evident and successful, we owe that increased attachment to them which is among the most cheering exhibitions of popular sentiment, and will prove their best security in time to come against foreign or domestic assault.

This review of the results of our institutions, for half a century, without exciting a spirit of vain exultation, should serve to impress upon us the great principles from which they have sprung—constant and direct supervision by the people over every public measure; strict forbearance on the part of the Government from exercising any doubtful or disputed powers; and a cautious abstinence from all interference with concerns which properly belong and are best left to State regulations and individual enterprise.

Full information of the state of our foreign affairs having been recently, on different occasions, submitted to Congress, I deem it necessary now to bring to your notice only such events as have subsequently occurred, or are of such importance as to require particular attention.

The most amicable dispositions continue to be exhibited by all the nations with whom the Government and citizens of the United States have an habitual intercourse. At the date of my last annual message, Mexico was the only nation which could not be included in so gratifying a reference to our foreign relations.

I am happy to be now able to inform you that an advance has been made towards the adjustment of our differences with that republic, and the restoration of the customary good feeling between the two nations. This important change has been effected by conciliatory negotiations, that have resulted in the conclusion of a treaty between the two Governments, which, when ratified, will refer to the arbitrament of a friendly Power all the subjects of controversy between us growing out of injuries to individuals. There is, at present, also, reason to believe that an equitable settlement of all disputed points will be attained without further difficulty or unnecessary delay, and thus authorize the free resumption of diplomatic intercourse with our sister republic.

With respect to the Northeastern boundary of the United States, no official correspondence between this Government and that of Great Britain has passed since that communicated to Congress towards the close of their last session. The offer to negotiate a convention for the appointment of a joint commission of survey and exploration, I am, however, assured will be met by her Majesty's Government in a conciliatory and friendly spirit, and instructions to enable the British minister here to conclude such an arrangement will be transmitted to him without needless delay. It is hoped and expected that these instructions will be of a liberal character, and that this negotiation, if successful, will prove to be an important step towards the satisfactory and final adjustment of the controversy.

I had hoped that the respect for the laws and regard for the peace and honor of their own country, which has ever characterized the citizens of the United States, would have prevented any portion of them from using any means to promote insurrection in the territory of a Power with which we are at peace, and with which the United States are desirous of maintaining the most friendly relations. I regret deeply, however, to be obliged to inform you that this has not been the case. Information has been given to me, derived from official and other sources, that many citizens of the United States have associated together to make hostile incursions from our territory into Canada, and to aid and abet insurrection there, in violation of the obligations and laws of the United States, and in open disregard of their own duties as citizens. This information has been in part confirmed, by a hostile invasion actually made by citizens of the United States, in conjunction with Canadians and others, and accompanied by a forcible seizure of the property of our citizens, and an application thereof to the prosecution of military operations against the authorities and people of Canada.

The results of these criminal assaults upon the peace and order of a neighboring country have been, as was to be expected, fatally destructive to the misguided or deluded persons engaged in them, and highly injurious to those in whose behalf they are professed to have been undertaken. The authorities in Canada, from intelligence received of such intended movements among our citizens, have felt themselves obliged to take precautionary measures against them; have actually embodied the militia, and assumed an attitude to repel the invasion to which they believed the colonies were exposed from the United States. A state of feeling on both sides of the frontier has thus been produced, which called for prompt and vigorous interference. If an insurrection existed in Canada, the amicable dispositions of the United States towards Great Britain, as well as their duty to themselves, would lead them to maintain a strict neutrality, and to restrain their citizens from all violations of the laws which have been passed for its enforcement. But this Government recognises a still higher obligation to repress all attempts on the part of its citizens to disturb the peace of a country where order prevails, or has been re-established. Depredations by our citizens upon nations at peace with the United States, or combinations for committing them, have at all times been regarded by the American Government and people with the greatest abhorrence. Military incursions by our citizens into countries so situated, and the commission of acts of violence on the members thereof, in order to effect a change in their government, or under any pretext whatever, have, from the commencement of our Government, been held equally criminal on the part of those engaged in them, and as much deserving of punishment as would be the

disturbance of the public peace by the perpetration of similiar acts within our own territory.

By no country or persons have these invaluable principles of international law—principles, the strict observance of which is so indispensable to the preservation of social order in the world—been more earnestly cherished or sacredly respected than by those great and good men who first declared, and finally established, the independence of our own country. They promulgated and maintained them at an early and critical period in our history; they were subsequently imbodied in legislative enactments of a highly penal character, the faithful enforcement of which has hitherto been, and will, I trust, always continue to be, regarded as a duty inseparably associated with the maintenance of our national honor. That the people of the United States should feel an interest in the spread of political institutions as free as they regard their own to be, is natural; nor can a sincere solicitude for the success of all those who are, at any time, in good faith struggling for their acquisition, be imputed to our citizens as a crime. With the entire freedom of opinion, and an undisguised expression thereof, on their part, the Government has neither the right, nor, I trust, the disposition to interfere. But whether the interest or the honor of the United States requires that they should be made a party to any such struggle, and, by inevitable consequence, to the war which is waged in its support, is a question which, by our constitution, is wisely left to Congress alone to decide. It is, by the laws, already made criminal in our citizens to embarrass or anticipate that decision, by unauthorized military operations on their part. Offences of this character, in addition to their criminality as violations of the laws of our country, have a direct tendency to draw down upon our own citizens at large the multiplied evils of a foreign war, and expose to injurious imputations the good faith and honor of the country. As such, they deserve to be put down with promptitude and decision. I cannot be mistaken, I am confident, in counting on the cordial and general concurrence of our fellow-citizens in this sentiment. A copy of the proclamation which I have felt it my duty to issue, is herewith communicated. I cannot but hope that the good sense and patriotism, the regard for the honor and reputation of their country, the respect for the laws which they have themselves enacted for their own government, and the love of order for which the mass of our people have been so long and so justly distinguished, will deter the comparatively few who are engaged in them from a further prosecution of such desperate enterprises. In the mean time, the existing laws have been, and will continue to be, faithfully executed; and every effort will be made to carry them out in their full extent. Whether they are sufficient or not to meet the actual state of things on the Canadian frontier, it is for Congress to decide.

It will appear from the correspondence herewith submitted, that the Government of Russia declines a renewal of the fourth article of the convention of April, 1824, between the United States and his Imperial Majesty, by the third article of which it is agreed that "hereafter there shall not be formed by the citizens of the United States, or under the authority of the said States, any establishment upon the northwest coast of America, nor in any of the islands adjacent, to the north of 54° 40' of north latitude; and that in the same manner there shall be none formed by Russian subjects, or under the authority of Russia, south of the same paral-

lel;" and by the fourth article, "that, during a term of ten years, counting from the signature of the present convention, the ships of both Powers, or which belong to their citizens or subjects, respectively, may reciprocally frequent, without any hindrance whatever, the interior seas, gulfs, harbors, and creeks upon the coast mentioned in the preceding article, for the purpose of fishing and trading with the natives of the country." The reasons assigned for declining to renew the provisions of this article, are, briefly, that the only use made by our citizens of the privileges it secures to them has been to supply the Indians with spirituous liquors, ammunition, and fire-arms; that this traffic has been excluded from the Russian trade; and as the supplies furnished from the United States are injurious to the Russian establishments on the northwest coast, and calculated to produce complaints between the two Governments, his Imperial Majesty thinks it for the interest of both countries not to accede to the proposition made by the American Government for the renewal of the article last referred to.

The correspondence herewith communicated will show the grounds upon which we contend that the citizens of the United States have, independent of the provisions of the convention of 1824, a right to trade with the natives upon the coast in question, at unoccupied places; liable, however, it is admitted, to be at any time extinguished by the creation of Russian establishments at such points. This right is denied by the Russian Government, which asserts that, by the operation of the treaty of 1824, each party agreed to waive the general right to land on the vacant coasts on the respective sides of the degree of latitude referred to, and accepted, in lieu thereof, the mutual privileges mentioned in the fourth article. The capital and tonnage employed by our citizens in their trade with the northwest coast of America, will, perhaps, on adverting to the official statements of the commerce and navigation of the United States for the last few years, be deemed too inconsiderable in amount to attract much attention; yet the subject may, in other respects, deserve the careful consideration of Congress.

I regret to state that the blockade of the principal ports on the eastern coast of Mexico, which, in consequence of differences between that republic and France, was instituted in May last, unfortunately still continues, enforced by a competent French naval armament, and is necessarily embarrassing to our own trade in the gulf, in common with that of other nations. Every disposition, however, is believed to exist, on the part of the French Government, to render this measure as little onerous as practicable to the interests of the citizens of the United States, and to those of neutral commerce; and it is to be hoped that an early settlement of the difficulties between France and Mexico will soon re-establish the harmonious relations formerly subsisting between them, and again open the ports of that republic to the vessels of all friendly nations.

A convention for marking that part of the boundary between the United States and the republic of Texas which extends from the mouth of the Sabine to the Red river, was concluded and signed at this city on the 25th of April last. It has since been ratified by both Governments; and seasonable measures will be taken to carry it into effect on the part of the United States.

The application of that republic for admission into this Union, made in August, 1837, and which was declined for reasons already made known to

you, has been formally withdrawn, as will appear from the accompanying copy of the note of the minister plenipotentiary of Texas, which was presented to the Secretary of State on the occasion of the exchange of the ratifications of the convention above mentioned.

Copies of the convention with Texas, of a commercial treaty concluded with the King of Greece, and of a similar treaty with the Peru-Bolivian Confederation, the ratifications of which have been recently exchanged, accompany this message for the information of Congress, and for such legislative enactments as may be found necessary or expedient, in relation to either of them.

To watch over and foster the interests of a gradually increasing and widely extended commerce; to guard the rights of American citizens, whom business, or pleasure, or other motives may tempt into distant climes; and at the same time to cultivate those sentiments of mutual respect and good-will which experience has proved so beneficial in international intercourse, the Government of the United States has deemed it expedient, from time to time, to establish diplomatic connexions with different foreign states, by the appointment of representatives to reside within their respective territories. I am gratified to be enabled to announce to you that, since the close of your last session, these relations have been opened under the happiest auspices with Austria and the Two Sicilies; that new nominations have been made in the respective missions of Russia, Brazil, Belgium, and Sweden and Norway, in this country; and that a minister extraordinary has been received, accredited to this Government, from the Argentine Confederation.

An exposition of the fiscal affairs of the Government, and of their condition for the past year, will be made to you by the Secretary of the Treasury.

The available balance in the Treasury, on the 1st of January next, is estimated at \$2,765,342. The receipts of the year, from customs and lands, will probably amount to \$20,615,598. These usual sources of revenue have been increased by an issue of Treasury notes; of which less than eight millions of dollars, including interest and principal, will be outstanding at the end of the year, and by the sale of one of the bonds of the Bank of the United States for \$2,254,871. The aggregate of means from these and other sources, with the balance on hand on the 1st of January last, has been applied to the payment of appropriations by Congress. The whole expenditure for the year on their account, including the redemption of more than eight millions of Treasury notes, constitutes an aggregate of about forty millions of dollars, and will still leave in the Treasury the balance before stated.

Nearly eight millions of dollars of Treasury notes are to be paid during the coming year, in addition to the ordinary appropriations for the support of Government. For both these purposes, the resources of the Treasury will undoubtedly be sufficient, if the charges upon it are not increased beyond the annual estimates. No excess, however, is likely to exist; nor can the postponed instalment of the surplus revenue be deposited with the States, nor any considerable appropriations beyond the estimates be made, without causing a deficiency in the Treasury. The great caution, advisable at all times, of limiting appropriations to the wants of the public service, is rendered necessary at present by the prospective and rapid reduction of the tariff; while the vigilant jealousy, evidently excited

among the people by the occurrences of the last few years, assures us that they expect from their representatives, and will sustain them in the exercise of, the most rigid economy. Much can be effected by postponing appropriations not immediately required for the ordinary public service, or for any pressing emergency; and much by reducing the expenditures where the entire and immediate accomplishment of the objects in view is not indispensable.

When we call to mind the recent and extreme embarrassments produced by excessive issues of bank paper, aggravated by the unforeseen withdrawal of much foreign capital, and the inevitable derangement arising from the distribution of the surplus revenue among the States as required by Congress; and consider the heavy expenses incurred by the removal of Indian tribes, by the military operations in Florida, and on account of the unusually large appropriations made at the last two annual sessions of Congress for other objects, we have striking evidence, in the present efficient state of our finances, of the abundant resources of the country to fulfil all its obligations. Nor is it less gratifying to find that the general business of the community, deeply affected as it has been, is reviving with additional vigor, chastened by the lessons of the past, and animated by the hopes of the future. By the curtailment of paper issues; by curbing the sanguine and adventurous spirit of speculation; and by the honorable application of all available means to the fulfilment of obligations, confidence has been restored both at home and abroad, and ease and facility secured to all the operations of trade.

The agency of the Government in producing these results has been as efficient as its powers and means permitted. By withholding from the States the deposit of the fourth instalment, and leaving several millions at long credits with the banks, principally in one section of the country, and more immediately beneficial to it; and, at the same time, aiding the banks and commercial communities in other sections, by postponing the payment of bonds for duties to the amount of between four and five millions of dollars; by an issue of Treasury notes, as a means to enable the Government to meet the consequences of their indulgences, but affording, at the same time, facilities for remittance and exchange; and by steadily declining to employ as general depositories of the public revenues, or receive the notes of, all banks which refused to redeem them with specie; by these measures, aided by the favorable action of some of the banks, and by the support and co-operation of a large portion of the community, we have witnessed an early resumption of specie payments in our great commercial capital, promptly followed in almost every part of the United States. This result has been alike salutary to the true interests of agriculture, commerce, and manufactures; to public morals, respect for the laws, and that confidence between man and man which is so essential in all our social relations.

The contrast between the suspension of 1814 and that of 1837 is most striking. The short duration of the latter; the prompt restoration of business; the evident benefits resulting from an adherence by the Government to the constitutional standard of value, instead of sanctioning the suspension by the receipt of irredeemable paper; and the advantages derived from the large amount of specie introduced into the country previous to 1837, afford a valuable illustration of the true policy of the Government in such a crisis. Nor can the comparison fail to remove the impres-

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sion that a national bank is necessary in such emergencies. Not only were specie payments resumed without its aid, but exchanges have also been more rapidly restored than when it existed; thereby showing that private capital, enterprise, and prudence are fully adequate to these ends. On all these points experience seems to have confirmed the views heretofore submitted to Congress. We have been saved the mortification of seeing the distresses of the community for the third time seized on to fasten upon the country so dangerous an institution; and we may also hope that the business of individuals will hereafter be relieved from the injurious effects of a continued agitation of that disturbing subject. The limited influence of a national bank in averting derangement in the exchanges of the country, or in compelling the resumption of specie payments, is now not less apparent than its tendency to increase inordinate speculation by sudden expansions and contractions; its disposition to create panic and embarrassment for the promotion of its own designs; its interference with politics; and its far greater power for evil than for good, either in regard to the local institutions or the operations of Government itself. What was in these respects but apprehension or opinion when a national bank was first established, now stands confirmed by humiliating experience. The scenes through which we have passed conclusively prove how little our commerce, agriculture, manufactures, or finances, require such an institution, and what dangers are attendant on its power—a power, I trust, never to be conferred by the American people upon their Government, and still less upon individuals not responsible to them for its unavoidable abuses.

My conviction of the necessity of further legislative provisions for the safe-keeping and disbursement of the public moneys, and my opinion in regard to the measures best adapted to the accomplishment of those objects, have been already submitted to you. These have been strengthened by recent events; and, in the full conviction that time and experience must still further demonstrate their propriety, I feel it my duty, with respectful deference to the conflicting views of others, again to invite your attention to them.

With the exception of limited sums deposited in the few banks still employed under the act of 1836, the amounts received for duties, and, with very inconsiderable exceptions, those accruing from lands also, have, since the general suspension of specie payments by the deposit banks, been kept and disbursed by the Treasurer, under his general legal powers, subject to the superintendence of the Secretary of the Treasury. The propriety of defining more specifically, and of regulating by law the exercise of this wide scope of Executive discretion, has been already submitted to Congress.

A change in the office of collector at one of our principal ports has brought to light a defalcation of the gravest character, the particulars of which will be laid before you in a special report from the Secretary of the Treasury. By his report and the accompanying documents, it will be seen that the weekly returns of the defaulting officer apparently exhibited, throughout, a faithful administration of the affairs intrusted to his management. It, however, now appears that he commenced abstracting the public moneys shortly after his appointment, and continued to do so, progressively increasing the amount, for the term of more than seven years, embracing a portion of the period during which the public moneys were deposited in the Bank of the United States, the whole of that of the State bank deposit system, and concluding only on his retirement from office,

after that system had substantially failed, in consequence of the suspension of specie payments.

The way in which this defalcation was so long concealed, and the steps taken to indemnify the United States, as far as practicable, against loss, will also be presented to you. The case is one which imperatively claims the attention of Congress, and furnishes the strongest motive for the establishment of a more severe and secure system for the safe-keeping and disbursement of the public moneys than any that has heretofore existed.

It seems proper, at all events, that, by an early enactment, similar to that of other countries, the application of public money by an officer of Government to private uses should be made a felony, and visited with severe and ignominious punishment. This is already, in effect, the law in respect to the Mint, and has been productive of the most salutary results. Whatever system is adopted, such an enactment would be wise as an independent measure, since much of the public moneys must, in their collection and ultimate disbursement, pass twice through the hands of public officers, in whatever manner they are intermediately kept. The Government, it must be admitted, has been from its commencement comparatively fortunate in this respect. But the appointing power cannot always be well advised in its selections, and the experience of every country has shown that public officers are not at all times proof against temptation. It is a duty, therefore, which the Government owes, as well to the interests committed to its care as to the officers themselves, to provide every guard against transgressions of this character that is consistent with reason and humanity. Congress cannot be too jealous of the conduct of those who are intrusted with the public money, and I shall at all times be disposed to encourage a watchful discharge of this duty. If a more direct co-operation on the part of Congress, in the supervision of the conduct of the officers intrusted with the custody and application of the public money is deemed desirable, it will give me pleasure to assist in the establishment of any judicious and constitutional plan by which that object may be accomplished. You will, in your wisdom, determine upon the propriety of adopting such a plan, and upon the measures necessary to its effectual execution. When the late Bank of the United States was incorporated, and made the depository of the public moneys, a right was reserved to Congress to inspect, at its pleasure, by a committee of that body, the books and the proceedings of the bank. In one of the States, whose banking institutions are supposed to rank amongst the first in point of stability, they are subjected to constant examination by commissioners appointed for that purpose, and much of the success of its banking system is attributed to this watchful supervision.

The same course has also, in view of its beneficial operation, been adopted by an adjoining State, favorably known for the care it has always bestowed upon whatever relates to its financial concerns. I submit to your consideration whether a committee of Congress might not be profitably employed in inspecting, at such intervals as might be deemed proper, the affairs and accounts of officers intrusted with the custody of the public moneys. The frequent performance of this duty might be made obligatory on the committee in respect to those officers who have large sums in their possession, and left discretionary in respect to others. They might report to the Executive such defalcations as were found to exist, with a view to a prompt removal from office, unless the default was satisfactorily accounted for; and report, also, to Congress, at the commencement of

each session, the result of their examinations and proceedings. It does appear to me that, with a subjection of this class of public officers to the general supervision of the Executive, to examinations by a committee of Congress at periods of which they should have no previous notice, and to prosecution and punishment as for felony for every breach of trust, the safe-keeping of the public moneys might, under the system proposed, be placed on a surer foundation than it has ever occupied since the establishment of the Government.

The Secretary of the Treasury will lay before you additional information containing new details on this interesting subject. To these I ask your early attention. That it should have given rise to great diversity of opinion, cannot be a subject of surprise. After the collection and custody of the public moneys had been for so many years connected with, and made subsidiary to, the advancement of private interests, a return to the simple self-denying ordinances of the constitution could not but be difficult. But time and free discussion, eliciting the sentiments of the people, and aided by that conciliatory spirit which has ever characterized their course on great emergencies, were relied upon for a satisfactory settlement of the question. Already has this anticipation on one important point at least—the impropriety of diverting public money to private purposes—been fully realized. There is no reason to suppose that legislation upon that branch of the subject would now be embarrassed by a difference of opinion, or fail to receive the cordial support of a large majority of our constituents. The connexion which formerly existed between the Government and banks was in reality injurious to both, as well as to the general interests of the community at large. It aggravated the disasters of trade and the derangements of commercial intercourse, and administered new excitements and additional means to wild and reckless speculations, the disappointment of which threw the country into convulsions of panic, and all but produced violence and bloodshed. The imprudent expansion of bank credits, which was the natural result of the command of the revenues of the state, furnished the resources for unbounded license in every species of adventure, seduced industry from its regular and salutary occupations by the hope of abundance without labor, and deranged the social state by tempting all trades and professions into the vortex of speculation on remote contingencies.

The same wide-spreading influence impeded also the resources of the Government, curtailed its useful operations, embarrassed the fulfilment of its obligations, and seriously interfered with the execution of the laws. Large appropriations and oppressive taxes are the natural consequences of such a connexion, since they increase the profits of those who are allowed to use the public funds, and make it their interest that money should be accumulated and expenditures multiplied. It is thus that a concentrated money-power is tempted to become an active agent in political affairs, and all past experience has shown on which side that influence will be arrayed. We deceive ourselves if we suppose that it will ever be found asserting and supporting the rights of the community at large, in opposition to the claims of the few.

In a Government whose distinguishing characteristic should be a diffusion and equalization of its benefits and burdens, the advantage of individuals will be augmented at the expense of the community at large. Nor

is it the nature of combinations for the acquisition of legislative influence to confine their interference to the single object for which they were originally formed. The temptation to extend it to other matters is, on the contrary, not unfrequently too strong to be resisted. The rightful influence, in the direction of public affairs, of the mass of the people is, therefore, in no slight danger of being sensibly and injuriously affected by giving to a comparatively small, but very efficient class, a direct and exclusive personal interest in so important a portion of the legislation of Congress as that which relates to the custody of the public moneys. If laws acting upon private interests cannot always be avoided, they should be confined within the narrowest limits, and left, wherever possible, to the Legislatures of the States. When not thus restricted, they lead to combinations of powerful associations, foster an influence necessarily selfish, and turn the fair course of legislation to sinister ends, rather than to objects that advance public liberty and promote the general good.

The whole subject now rests with you; and I cannot but express a hope that some definite measure will be adopted at the present session.

It will not, I am sure, be deemed out of place for me here to remark, that the declaration of my views in opposition to the policy of employing banks as depositories of the Government funds cannot justly be construed as indicative of hostility, official or personal, to those institutions; or to repeat, in this form, and in connexion with this subject, opinions which I have uniformly entertained, and on all proper occasions expressed. Though always opposed to their creation in the form of exclusive privileges, and, as a state magistrate, aiming by appropriate legislation to secure the community against the consequences of their occasional mismanagement, I have yet ever wished to see them protected in the exercise of rights conferred by law, and have never doubted their utility, when properly managed, in promoting the interests of trade, and, through that channel, the other interests of the community. To the General Government they present themselves merely as State institutions, having no necessary connexion with its legislation or its administration. Like other State establishments, they may be used, or not, in conducting the affairs of the Government, as public policy and the general interests of the Union may seem to require. The only safe or proper principle upon which their intercourse with the Government can be regulated, is that which regulates their intercourse with the private citizen—the conferring of mutual benefits. When the Government can accomplish a financial operation better with the aid of the banks than without it, it should be at liberty to seek that aid as it would the services of a private banker, or other capitalist, or agent, giving the preference to those who will serve it on the best terms. Nor can there ever exist an interest in the officers of the General Government, as such, inducing them to embarrass or annoy the State banks, any more than to incur the hostility of any other class of State institutions, or of private citizens. It is not in the nature of things that hostility to these institutions can spring from this source, or any opposition to their course of business, except when they themselves depart from the objects of their creation, and attempt to usurp powers not conferred upon them, or to subvert the standard of value established by the constitution. While opposition to their regular operations cannot exist in this quarter, resistance to any attempt to make the Government dependent upon them for the successful administration of public affairs, is a matter of duty, as I trust it ever will

be of inclination, no matter from what motive or consideration the attempt may originate.

It is no more than just to the banks to say, that, in the late emergency, most of them firmly resisted the strongest temptations to extend their paper issues, when apparently sustained in a suspension of specie payments by public opinion, even though in some cases invited by legislative enactments. To this honorable course, aided by the resistance of the General Government, acting in obedience to the constitution and laws of the United States, to the introduction of an irredeemable paper medium, may be attributed, in a great degree, the speedy restoration of our currency to a sound state, and the business of the country to its wonted prosperity. The banks have but to continue in the same safe course, and be content in their appropriate sphere, to avoid all interference from the General Government, and to derive from it all the protection and benefits which it bestows on other State establishments, on the people of the States, and on the States themselves. In this, their true position, they cannot but secure the confidence and good-will of the people and the Government, which they can only lose when, leaping from their legitimate sphere, they attempt to control the legislation of the country, and pervert the operations of the Government to their own purposes.

Our experience under the act passed at the last session, to grant pre-emption rights to settlers on the public lands, has as yet been too limited to enable us to pronounce with safety upon the efficacy of its provisions to carry out the wise and liberal policy of the Government in that respect. There is, however, the best reason to anticipate favorable results from its operation. The recommendations formerly submitted to you, in respect to a graduation of the price of the public lands, remain to be finally acted upon. Having found no reason to change the views then expressed, your attention to them is again respectfully requested.

Every proper exertion has been made, and will be continued, to carry out the wishes of Congress in relation to the tobacco trade, as indicated in the several resolutions of the House of Representatives and the legislation of the two branches. A favorable impression has, I trust, been made in the different foreign countries to which particular attention has been directed; and although we cannot hope for an early change in their policy, as in many of them a convenient and large revenue is derived from monopolies in the fabrication and sale of this article, yet, as these monopolies are really injurious to the people where they are established, and the revenue derived from them may be less injuriously and with equal facility obtained from another and a liberal system of administration, we cannot doubt that our efforts will be eventually crowned with success, if persisted in with temperate firmness, and sustained by prudent legislation.

In recommending to Congress the adoption of the necessary provisions at this session for taking the next census, or enumeration of the inhabitants of the United States, the suggestion presents itself whether the scope of the measure might not be usefully extended by causing it to embrace authentic statistical returns of the great interests specially intrusted to, or necessarily affected by, the legislation of Congress.

The accompanying report of the Secretary of War presents a satisfactory account of the state of the army and of the several branches of the public service confided to the superintendence of that officer.

The law increasing and organizing the military establishment of the

United States has been nearly carried into effect, and the army has been extensively and usefully employed during the past season.

I would again call to your notice the subjects connected with and essential to the military defences of the country, which were submitted to you at the last session, but which were not acted upon, as is supposed, for want of time. The most important of them is the organization of the militia on the maritime and inland frontiers. This measure is deemed important, as it is believed that it will furnish an effective volunteer force in aid of the regular army, and may form the basis of a general system of organization for the entire militia of the United States. The erection of a national foundry and gunpowder manufactory, and one for making small-arms—the latter to be situated at some point west of the Alleghany mountains—all appear to be of sufficient importance to be again urged upon your attention.

The plan proposed by the Secretary of War, for the distribution of the forces of the United States in time of peace, is well calculated to promote regularity and economy in the fiscal administration of the service, to preserve the discipline of the troops, and to render them available for the maintenance of the peace and tranquillity of the country. With this view, likewise, I recommend the adoption of the plan presented by that officer for the defence of the Western frontier. The preservation of the lives and property of our fellow-citizens who are settled upon that border country, as well as the existence of the Indian population, which might be tempted, by our want of preparation, to rush on their own destruction and attack the white settlements, all seem to require that this subject should be acted upon without delay, and the War Department authorized to place that country in a state of complete defence against any assault from the numerous and warlike tribes which are congregated on that border.

It affords me sincere pleasure to be able to apprise you of the entire removal of the Cherokee nation of Indians to their new homes west of the Mississippi. The measures authorized by Congress at its last session, with a view to the long-standing controversy with them, have had the happiest effects. By an agreement concluded with them by the commanding general in that country, who has performed the duties assigned to him on the occasion with commendable energy and humanity, their removal has been principally under the conduct of their own chiefs, and they have emigrated without any apparent reluctance.

The successful accomplishment of this important object; the removal, also, of the entire Creek nation, with the exception of a small number of fugitives amongst the Seminoles in Florida; the progress already made towards a speedy completion of the removal of the Chickasaws, the Choctaws, the Pottawatamies, the Ottawas, and the Chippewas, with the extensive purchases of Indian lands during the present year, have rendered the speedy and successful result of the long-established policy of the Government upon the subject of Indian affairs entirely certain. The occasion is, therefore, deemed a proper one to place this policy in such a point of view as will exonerate the Government of the United States from the undeserved reproach which has been cast upon it through several successive administrations. That a mixed occupancy of the same territory, by the white and red man, is incompatible with the safety or happiness of either, is a position in respect to which there has long since ceased to be room for a difference of opinion. Reason and experience have alike demon-

strated its impracticability. The bitter fruits of every attempt heretofore to overcome the barriers interposed by nature, have only been destruction, both physical and moral, to the Indian; dangerous conflicts of authority between the Federal and State Governments; and detriment to the individual prosperity of the citizen, as well as to the general improvement of the country. The remedial policy, the principles of which were settled by more than thirty years ago, under the administration of Mr. Jefferson, consists in an extinction, for a fair consideration, of the title to all the lands still occupied by the Indians within the States and Territories of the United States; their removal to a country west of the Mississippi, much more extensive, and better adapted to their condition than that on which they then resided; the guaranty to them, by the United States, of their exclusive possession of that country forever, exempt from all intrusions by white men, with ample provisions for their security against external violence and internal dissensions, and the extension to them of suitable facilities for their advancement in civilization. This has not been the policy of particular administrations only, but of each in succession, since the first attempt to carry it out under that of Mr. Monroe. All have labored for its accomplishment, only with different degrees of success. The manner of its execution has, it is true, from time to time given rise to conflicts of opinion and unjust imputations; but, in respect to the wisdom and necessity of the policy itself, there has not, from the beginning, existed a doubt in the mind of any calm, judicious, disinterested friend of the Indian race, accustomed to reflection and enlightened by experience.

Occupying the double character of contractor on its own account, and guardian for the parties contracted with, it was hardly to be expected that the dealings of the Federal Government with the Indian tribes would escape misrepresentation. That there occurred in the early settlement of this country, as in all others where the civilized race has succeeded to the possessions of the savage, instances of oppression and fraud on the part of the former, there is too much reason to believe. No such offences can, however, be justly charged upon this Government since it became free to pursue its own course. Its dealings with the Indian tribes have been just and friendly throughout; its efforts for their civilization constant, and directed by the best feelings of humanity; its watchfulness in protecting them from individual frauds unremitting; its forbearance under the keenest provocations, the deepest injuries, and the most flagrant outrages, may challenge at least a comparison with any nation, ancient or modern, in similar circumstances; and if in future times a powerful, civilized, and happy nation of Indians shall be found to exist within the limits of this northern continent, it will be owing to the consummation of that policy which has been so unjustly assailed. Only a very brief reference to facts in confirmation of this assertion can in this form be given, and you are, therefore, necessarily referred to the report of the Secretary of War for further details. To the Cherokees, whose case has perhaps excited the greatest share of attention and sympathy, the United States have granted in fee, with a perpetual guaranty of exclusive and peaceable possession, 13,554,135 acres of land, on the west side of the Mississippi, eligibly situated, in a healthy climate, and in all respects better suited to their condition than the country they have left, in exchange for only 9,492,160 acres on the east side of the same river. The United States have, in addition, stipulated to pay them five million six hundred thousand dollars for their

interests in and improvements on the lands thus relinquished, and one million one hundred and sixty thousand dollars for subsistence and other beneficial purposes; thereby putting it in their power to become one of the most wealthy and independent separate communities, of the same extent, in the world.

By the treaties made and ratified with the Miamies, the Chippewas, the Sioux, the Sacs and Foxes, and the Winnebagoes, during the last year, the Indian title to eighteen million four hundred and fifty-eight thousand acres has been extinguished. These purchases have been much more extensive than those of any previous year, and have, with other Indian expenses, borne very heavily upon the treasury. They leave, however, but a small quantity of unbought Indian lands within the States and Territories; and the Legislature and Executive were equally sensible of the propriety of a final and more speedy extinction of Indian titles within those limits. The treaties which were, with a single exception, made in pursuance of previous appropriations for defraying the expenses, have subsequently been ratified by the Senate, and received the sanction of Congress by the appropriations necessary to carry them into effect. Of the terms upon which these important negotiations were concluded, I can speak from direct knowledge; and I feel no difficulty in affirming that the interest of the Indians in the extensive territory embraced by them is to be paid for at its fair value, and that no more favorable terms have been granted to the United States than would have been reasonably expected in a negotiation with civilized men, fully capable of appreciating and protecting their own rights. For the Indian title to 116,349,897 acres, acquired since the 4th of March, 1829, the United States have paid \$72,560,056 in permanent annuities, lands, reservations for Indians, expenses of removal and subsistence, merchandise, mechanical and agricultural establishments and implements. When the heavy expenses incurred by the United States, and the circumstance that so large a portion of the entire territory will be forever unsaleable, are considered, and this price is compared with that for which the United States sell their own lands, no one can doubt that justice has been done to the Indians in these purchases also. Certain it is, that the transactions of the Federal Government with the Indians have been uniformly characterized by a sincere and paramount desire to promote their welfare; and it must be a source of the highest gratification to every friend to justice and humanity to learn that, notwithstanding the obstructions from time to time thrown in its way, and the difficulties which have arisen from the peculiar and impracticable nature of the Indian character, the wise, humane, and undeviating policy of the Government in this, the most difficult of all our relations, foreign or domestic, has at length been justified to the world in its near approach to a happy and certain consummation.

The condition of the tribes which occupy the country set apart for them in the West, is highly prosperous, and encourages the hope of their early civilization. They have, for the most part, abandoned the hunter state, and turned their attention to agricultural pursuits. All those who have been established for any length of time in that fertile region, maintain themselves by their own industry. There are among them traders of no inconsiderable capital, and planters exporting cotton to some extent; but the greater number are small agriculturists, living in comfort upon the produce of their farms. The recent emigrants, although they have in some

instances removed reluctantly, have readily acquiesced in their unavoidable destiny. They have found at once a recompense for past sufferings, and an incentive to industrious habits, in the abundance and comforts around them. There is reason to believe that all these tribes are friendly in their feelings towards the United States; and it is to be hoped that the acquisition of individual wealth, the pursuits of agriculture, and habits of industry, will gradually subdue their warlike propensities, and incline them to maintain peace among themselves. To effect this desirable object, the attention of Congress is solicited to the measures recommended by the Secretary of War, for their future government and protection, as well from each other as from the hostility of the warlike tribes around them, and the intrusions of the whites. The policy of the Government has given them a permanent home, and guaranteed to them its peaceful and undisturbed possession. It only remains to give them a government and laws which will encourage industry, and secure to them the rewards of their exertions. The importance of some form of government cannot be too much insisted upon. The earliest effects will be to diminish the causes and occasions for hostilities among the tribes, to inspire an interest in the observance of laws to which they will have themselves assented, and to multiply the securities of property, and the motives for self-improvement. Intimately connected with this subject, is the establishment of the military defences recommended by the Secretary of War, which have been already referred to. Without them, the Government will be powerless to redeem its pledge of protection to the emigrating Indians against the numerous warlike tribes that surround them, and to provide for the safety of the frontier settlers of the bordering States.

The case of the Seminoles constitutes at present the only exception to the successful efforts of the Government to remove the Indians to the homes assigned them west of the Mississippi. Four hundred of this tribe emigrated in 1836, and fifteen hundred in 1837 and 1838, leaving in the country, it is supposed, about two thousand Indians. The continued treacherous conduct of these people; the savage and unprovoked murders they have lately committed, butchering whole families of the settlers of the Territory, without distinction of age or sex, and making their way into the very centre and heart of the country, so that no part of it is free from their ravages; their frequent attacks on the light-houses along that dangerous coast; and the barbarity with which they have murdered the passengers and crews of such vessels as have been wrecked upon the reefs and keys which border the Gulf, leave the Government no alternative but to continue the military operations against them until they are totally expelled from Florida.

There are other motives which would urge the Government to pursue this course towards the Seminoles. The United States have fulfilled in good faith all their treaty stipulations with the Indian tribes, and have, in every other instance, insisted upon a like performance of their obligations. To relax from this salutary rule because the Seminoles have maintained themselves so long in the Territory they had relinquished, and, in defiance of their frequent and solemn engagements, still continue to wage a ruthless war against the United States, would not only evince a want of constancy on our part, but be of evil example in our intercourse with other tribes. Experience has shown that but little is to be gained by the march of armies through a country so intersected with in-

accessible swamps and marshes, and which, from the fatal character of the climate, must be abandoned at the end of the winter. I recommend, therefore, to your attention the plan submitted by the Secretary of War in the accompanying report, for the permanent occupation of the portion of the Territory freed from the Indians, and the more efficient protection of the people of Florida from their inhuman warfare.

From the report of the Secretary of the Navy, herewith transmitted, it will appear that a large portion of the disposable naval force is either actively employed, or in a state of preparation for the purposes of experience and discipline, and the protection of our commerce. So effectual has been this protection, that, so far as the information of Government extends, not a single outrage has been attempted on a vessel carrying the flag of the United States, within the present year, in any quarter, however distant or exposed.

The exploring expedition sailed from Norfolk on the 19th of August last; and information has been received of its safe arrival at the island of Madeira. The best spirit animates the officers and crews, and there is every reason to anticipate, from its efforts, results beneficial to commerce and honorable to the nation.

It will also be seen that no reduction of the force now in commission is contemplated. The unsettled state of a portion of South America renders it indispensable that our commerce should receive protection in that quarter; the vast and increasing interests embarked in the trade of the Indian and China seas, in the whale-fisheries of the Pacific ocean, and in the Gulf of Mexico, require equal attention to their safety; and a small squadron may be employed to great advantage on our Atlantic coast, in meeting sudden demands for the reinforcement of other stations, in aiding merchant vessels in distress, in affording active service to an additional number of officers, and in visiting the different ports of the United States, an accurate knowledge of which is obviously of the highest importance.

The attention of Congress is respectfully called to that portion of the report recommending an increase in the number of smaller vessels, and to other suggestions contained in that document. The rapid increase and wide expansion of our commerce, which is every day seeking new avenues of profitable adventure; the absolute necessity of a naval force for its protection, precisely in the degree of its extension; a due regard to the national rights and honor; the recollection of its former exploits, and the anticipation of its future triumphs whenever opportunity presents itself, which we may rightfully indulge from the experience of the past; all seem to point to the navy as a most efficient arm of our national defence, and a proper object of legislative encouragement.

The progress and condition of the Post Office Department will be seen by reference to the report of the Postmaster General. The extent of post roads covered by mail contracts is stated to be 134,818 miles, and the annual transportation upon them 34,580,202 miles. The number of post offices in the United States is 12,553, and rapidly increasing. The gross revenue for the year ending on the 30th day of June last was \$4,262,145; the accruing expenditures, \$4,680,068; excess of expenditures, \$417,923. This has been made up out of the surplus previously on hand. The cash on hand on the 1st instant was \$314,068. The revenue for the year ending June 30, 1838, was \$161,540 more than that for the year ending June 30, 1837. The expenditures of the Department had

been graduated upon the anticipation of a largely increased revenue. A moderate curtailment of mail service consequently became necessary, and has been effected, to shield the Department against the danger of embarrassment. Its revenue is now improving, and it will soon resume its onward course in the march of improvement.

Your particular attention is requested to so much of the Postmaster General's report as relates to the transportation of the mails upon railroads. The laws on that subject do not seem adequate to secure that service, now become almost essential to the public interests, and, at the same time, protect the Department from combinations and unreasonable demands.

Nor can I too earnestly request your attention to the necessity of providing a more secure building for this Department. The danger of destruction to which its important books and papers are continually exposed, as well from the highly combustible character of the building occupied, as from that of others in the vicinity, calls loudly for prompt action.

Your attention is again earnestly invited to the suggestions and recommendations submitted at the last session in respect to the District of Columbia.

I feel it my duty, also, to bring to your notice certain proceedings at law which have recently been prosecuted in this District, in the name of the United States, on the relation of Messrs. Stockton & Stokes, of the State of Maryland, against the Postmaster General, and which have resulted in the payment of money out of the national treasury, for the first time since the establishment of the Government, by judicial compulsion exercised by the common-law writ of mandamus issued by the circuit court of this District.

The facts of the case, and the grounds of the proceedings, will be found fully stated in the report of the decision; and any additional information which you may desire will be supplied by the proper department. No interference in the particular case is contemplated. The money has been paid; the claims of the prosecutors have been satisfied; and the whole subject, so far as they are concerned, is finally disposed of: but it is on the supposition that the case may be regarded as an authoritative exposition of the law as it now stands, that I have thought it necessary to present it to your consideration.

The object of the application to the circuit court was to compel the Postmaster General to carry into effect an award made by the Solicitor of the Treasury, under a special act of Congress for the settlement of certain claims of the relators on the Post Office Department; which award the Postmaster General declined to execute in full, until he should receive further legislative direction on the subject. If the duty imposed on the Postmaster General, by that law, was to be regarded as one of an official nature, belonging to his office as a branch of the Executive, then it is obvious that the constitutional competency of the Judiciary to direct and control him in its discharge was necessarily drawn in question. And if the duty so imposed on the Postmaster General was to be considered as merely ministerial, and not executive, it yet remained to be shown that the circuit court of this District had authority to interfere by mandamus—such a power having never before been asserted or claimed by that court. With a view to the settlement of these important questions, the judgment

of the circuit court was carried, by a writ of error, to the Supreme Court of the United States. In the opinion of that tribunal, the duty imposed on the Postmaster General was not an official executive duty, but one of a merely ministerial nature. The grave constitutional questions which had been discussed were, therefore, excluded from the decision of the case; the court, indeed, expressly admitting that, with powers and duties properly belonging to the Executive, no other department can interfere by the writ of mandamus; and the question, therefore, resolved itself into this: Has Congress conferred upon the circuit court of this District the power to issue such a writ to an officer of the General Government, commanding him to perform a ministerial act? A majority of the court have decided that it has, but have founded their decision upon a process of reasoning which, in my judgment, renders further legislative provision indispensable to the public interests and the equal administration of justice.

It has long since been decided by the Supreme Court, that neither that tribunal, nor the circuit courts of the United States held within the respective States, possess the power in question; but it is now held that this power, denied to both of these high tribunals, (to the former by the constitution, and to the latter by Congress,) has been, by its legislation, vested in the circuit court of this District. No such direct grant of power to the circuit court of this District is claimed; but it has been held to result, by necessary implication, from several sections of the law establishing the court. One of these sections declares that the laws of Maryland, as they existed at the time of the cession, should be in force in that part of the District ceded by that State; and, by this provision, the common law, in civil and criminal cases, as it prevailed in Maryland in 1801, was established in that part of the District.

In England, the Court of King's Bench—because the sovereign, who, according to the theory of the constitution, is the fountain of justice, originally sat there in person, and is still deemed to be present, in construction of law—alone possesses the high power of issuing the writ of mandamus, not only to inferior jurisdictions and corporations, but also to magistrates and others, commanding them, in the King's name, to do what their duty requires, in cases where there is a vested right, and no other specific remedy. It has been held, in the case referred to, that as the Supreme Court of the United States is, by the constitution, rendered incompetent to exercise this power, and as the circuit court of this District is a court of general jurisdiction in cases at common law, and the highest court of original jurisdiction in the District, the right to issue the writ of mandamus is incident to its common-law powers. Another ground relied upon to maintain the power in question, is, that it was included, by fair construction, in the powers granted to the circuit courts of the United States, by the act "to provide for the more convenient organization of the courts of the United States," passed 13th February, 1801; that the act establishing the circuit court of this District, passed the 27th day of February, 1801, conferred upon that court and the judges thereof the same powers as were by law vested in the circuit courts of the United States and in the judges of the said courts; that the repeal of the first-mentioned act, which took place in the next year, did not divest the circuit court of this District of the authority in dispute, but left it still clothed with the powers over the subject, which, it is conceded, were taken away from the circuit courts of the United States by the repeal of the act of 13th February, 1801.

Admitting that the adoption of the laws of Maryland for a portion of this District confers on the circuit court thereof, in that portion, the transcendent extra-judicial prerogative powers of the Court of King's Bench in England, or that either of the acts of Congress, by necessary implication, authorizes the former court to issue a writ of mandamus to an officer of the United States, to compel him to perform a ministerial duty, the consequences are, in one respect, the same. The result in either case is, that the officers of the United States, stationed in different parts of the United States, are, in respect to the performance of their official duties, subject to different laws and a different supervision; those in the States to one rule, and those in the District of Columbia to another and a very different one. In the District their official conduct is subject to a judicial control, from which in the States they are exempt.

Whatever difference of opinion may exist as to the expediency of vesting such a power in the Judiciary, in a system of government constituted like that of the United States, all must agree that these disparaging discrepancies in the law and in the administration of justice ought not to be permitted to continue; and, as Congress alone can provide the remedy, the subject is unavoidably presented to your consideration.

M. VAN BUREN.

WASHINGTON, *December 3, 1838.*

DOCUMENTS

ACCOMPANYING THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE AT THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE THIRD SESSION OF
THE TWENTY-FIFTH CONGRESS.

*General Convention of peace, friendship, commerce, and navigation,
between the United States of America and the Peru-Bolivian Con-
federation: concluded November 30, 1836; ratifications exchanged
May 28, 1838.*

BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

A PROCLAMATION:

Whereas a general convention of peace, friendship, commerce, and navigation, between the United States of America and the Peru-Bolivian Confederation, was concluded and signed at Lima on the thirtieth day of November, one thousand eight hundred and thirty-six: which convention is word for word as follows:

*General Convention of peace, friendship, commerce, and navigation,
between the United States of America and the Peru-Bolivian Con-
federation.*

The United States of America and the Peru-Bolivian Confederation, desiring to make firm and permanent the peace and friendship which happily subsist between them, have resolved to fix in a clear, distinct, and positive manner, the rules which shall, in future, be religiously observed between the one and the other, by means of a treaty, or general convention of peace, friendship, commerce, and navigation.

For this desirable purpose, the President of the United States of America has conferred full powers on Samuel Larned, chargé d'affaires of the said States, near the Government of Peru; and the Supreme Protector of the north and south Peruvian States, President of the republic of Bolivia, entrusted with the direction of the foreign relations of the Peru-Bolivian Confederation, has conferred like powers on John Garcia del Rio, minister of state in the department of finance of the north Peruvian State, who, after having exhibited to each other their respective full powers, found to be in due and proper form, and exchanged certified copies thereof, have agreed to the following articles, to wit:

ARTICLE 1. There shall be a perfect, firm, and inviolable peace, and sincere friendship between the United States of America and the Peru-Bolivian Confederation, in all the extent of their respective territories and possessions, and between their people and citizens, respectively, without distinction of persons or places.

Doc. No. 2.

ART. 2. The United States of America and the Peru-Bolivian Confederation, desiring to live in peace and harmony, as well with each other as with all the nations of the earth, by means of a policy frank, and equally friendly with all, engage, mutually, not to concede any particular favor to other nations, in respect of commerce and navigation, which shall not immediately become common to the other party to this treaty; who shall enjoy the same freely, if the concession was freely made, or on allowing the same compensation if the concession was conditional.

ART. 3. The two high contracting parties being likewise desirous of placing the commerce and navigation of their respective countries on the liberal basis of perfect equality with the most favored nation, mutually agree that the citizens of each may frequent with their vessels all the coasts and countries of the other, and may reside and trade there in all kinds of produce, manufactures, and merchandise, not prohibited to all; and shall pay no other or higher duties, charges, or fees whatsoever, either on their vessels or cargoes, than the citizens or subjects of the most favored nation are, or shall be obliged to pay on their vessels or cargoes; and they shall enjoy, respectively, all the rights, privileges, and exemptions, in navigation and commerce, which the citizens or subjects of the most favored nation do or shall enjoy; they submitting themselves to the laws, decrees, and usages there established, to which such citizens or subjects are, of right, subjected.

But it is understood that the stipulations contained in this article do not include the coasting trade of either of the two countries; the regulation of this trade being reserved by the parties, respectively, according to their own separate laws.

ART. 4. It is likewise agreed, that it shall be wholly free for all merchants, commanders of ships, and other citizens of both countries, to manage, themselves, their own business, in all the ports and places subject to the jurisdiction of each other, as well with respect to the consignment and sale of their goods and merchandise as to the purchase of their returns, unloading, loading, and sending off of their vessels. The citizens of neither of the contracting parties shall be liable to any embargo, nor to be detained with their vessels, cargoes, merchandise, and effects, for any military expedition, nor for any public or private purpose whatever, without being allowed therefor a sufficient indemnification; neither shall they be called upon for any forced loan, or occasional contributions, nor be subject to military service by land or sea.

ART. 5. Whenever the citizens of either of the contracting parties shall be forced to seek refuge, shelter, or relief, in the rivers, bays, ports, and dominions of the other, with their vessels, whether of war, (public or private,) of trade, or employed in the fisheries, through stress of weather, want of water or provisions, pursuit of pirates or enemies, they shall be received and treated with humanity; and all favor and protection shall be given to them, in the repairing of their vessels, procuring of supplies, and placing of themselves in a condition to pursue their voyage, without obstacle or hindrance.

ART. 6. All ships, merchandise, and effects, belonging to citizens of one of the contracting parties, which may be captured by pirates, whether on the high seas, or within the limits of its jurisdiction, and may be carried or found in the rivers, roads, bays, ports, or dominions of the other, shall be delivered up to the owners, they proving, in due and proper form,

their rights before the competent tribunals; it being understood that the claim should be made within the term of two years by the parties themselves, their attorneys, or the agents of their respective Governments.

ART. 7. Whenever any vessel belonging to the citizens of either of the contracting parties shall be wrecked, founder, or suffer damage on the coasts, or within the dominions of the other, all assistance and protection shall be given to the said vessel, her crew, and the merchandise on board, in the same manner as is usual and customary with vessels of the nation where the accident happens, in like cases; and it shall be permitted to her, if necessary, to unload the merchandise and effects on board, with the proper precautions to prevent their illicit introduction, without exacting, in this case, any duty, impost, or contribution whatever, provided the same be exported.

ART. 8. The citizens of each of the contracting parties shall have power to dispose of their personal effects within the jurisdiction of the other, by sale, donation, testament, or otherwise; and their representatives, being citizens of the other party, shall succeed to their said personal effects, whether by testament or *ab intestato*, and may take possession thereof, either themselves or by others acting for them, and dispose of the same at their will, paying such dues only as the inhabitants of the country wherein said effects are, shall be subject to pay in like cases. And if, in the case of real estate, the said heirs should be prevented from entering into possession of the inheritance on account of their character as aliens, there shall be granted to them the term of three years in which to dispose of the same as they may think proper, and to withdraw the proceeds, which they may do without obstacle, and exempt from all charges, save those which are imposed by the laws of the country.

ART. 9. Both the contracting parties solemnly promise and engage to give their special protection to the persons and property of the citizens of each other, of all classes and occupations, who may be in the territories subject to the jurisdiction of the one or the other, transient or dwelling therein, leaving open and free to them the tribunals of justice, for their judicial recourse, on the same terms as are usual and customary with the natives or citizens of the country in which they may be; for which purpose they may employ, in defence of their rights, such advocates, solicitors, notaries, agents, and factors, as they may judge proper, in all their trials at law; and such citizens or agents shall have free opportunity to be present at the decisions and sentences of the tribunals in all cases that may concern them; and, likewise, at the taking of all evidence and examinations that may be exhibited in the said trials.

And, to render more explicit and make more effectual the solemn promise and engagement hereinbefore mentioned, under circumstances to which one of the parties thereto has heretofore been exposed, it is hereby further stipulated and declared, that all the rights and privileges which are now enjoyed by, or may hereafter be conferred on the citizens of one of the contracting parties, by or in virtue of the constitution and laws of the other, respectively, shall be deemed and held to belong to and adhere in them, until such rights and privileges shall have been abrogated or withdrawn by an authority constitutionally or lawfully competent thereto.

ART. 10. It is likewise agreed, that perfect and entire liberty of conscience shall be enjoyed by the citizens of both the contracting parties, in the countries subject to the jurisdiction of the one and the other, without

their being liable to be disturbed or molested on account of their religious belief, so long as they respect the laws and established usages of the country.

Moreover, the bodies of the citizens of one of the contracting parties, who may die in the territories of the other, shall be buried in the usual burying grounds, or in other decent and suitable places, and shall be protected from violation or disturbance.

ART. 11. It shall be lawful for the citizens of the United States of America and of the Peru-Bolivian Confederation to sail with their ships with all manner of liberty and security; no distinction being to be made who are the proprietors of the merchandise laden therein, from any port or places whatever, to the ports and places of those who are now or hereafter shall be at enmity with either of the contracting parties. It shall likewise be lawful for the citizens aforesaid to sail with the ships and merchandise before mentioned, and to trade with the same liberty and security from the places, ports, and havens of those who are enemies of both or of either party, without any opposition or disturbance whatsoever, not only directly from the places of the enemy before mentioned to neutral places, but also from one place belonging to an enemy to another place belonging to an enemy, whether they be under the jurisdiction of one Power or under that of several. And it is hereby stipulated that free ships shall give freedom to goods, and that every thing shall be deemed to be free and exempt which shall be found on board of the ships belonging to the citizens of either of the contracting parties, although the whole lading, or any part thereof, should appertain to the enemies of either; goods contraband of war being always excepted. It is also agreed, in like manner, that the same liberty shall be extended to persons who are on board of a free ship, with this effect, that, although they be enemies to both or either of the parties, they shall not be taken out of that free ship unless they are officers or soldiers, and in the actual service of the enemy: *Provided, however*, and it is hereby further agreed, that the stipulations in this article contained, declaring that the flag shall cover the property, shall be understood as applying to those Powers only who recognise this principle; but if either of the contracting parties shall be at war with a third, and the other be neutral, the flag of the neutral shall cover the property of those enemies whose Governments acknowledge this principle, and not that of others.

ART. 12. It is likewise agreed, that in cases where the neutral flag of one of the contracting parties shall protect the property of the enemies of the other, in virtue of the above stipulation, it shall always be understood that the neutral property found on board of such enemy's vessel shall be held and considered as enemy's property, and, as such, shall be liable to detention and confiscation, except such property as was put on board such vessels before the declaration of war, or even afterwards, if it were done without the knowledge of such declaration: but the contracting parties agree, that six months having elapsed after the declaration, their citizens shall not be allowed to plead ignorance thereof. On the contrary, if the flag of the neutral does not protect the enemy's property on board, in this case, the goods and merchandise of the neutral, embarked in such enemy's ship, shall be free.

ART. 13. This liberty of navigation and commerce shall extend to all kinds of merchandise, excepting only those which are distinguished by

the name contraband, or prohibited goods; under which name shall be comprehended, 1st, cannons, mortars, howitzers, swivels, blunderbusses, muskets, fusees, rifles, carbines, pistols pikes, swords, sabres, lances, spears, halberds, grenades, and bombs; powder, matches, balls, and all other things belonging to the use of these arms; 2dly, bucklers, helmets, breastplates, coats of mail, infantry belts, and clothes made up in a military form and for a military use; 3dly, cavalry belts, and horses with their furniture; 4thly, and generally, all kinds of arms and instruments of iron, steel, brass, and copper, or of any other materials manufactured, prepared, and formed expressly for the purposes of war, either by sea or land.

ART. 14. All other merchandise and things not comprehended in the articles of contraband, explicitly enumerated and classified as above, shall be held and considered as free, and subjects of free and lawful commerce; so that they may be carried and transported in the freest manner by both the contracting parties, even to places belonging to an enemy, excepting only those places which are, at that time, besieged or blockaded; and to avoid all doubt in this particular, it is declared that those places only are besieged or blockaded which are actually attacked by a force capable of preventing the entry of the neutral.

ART. 15. The articles of contraband, or those before enumerated and classified, which may be found in a vessel bound for an enemy's port, shall be subject to detention and confiscation; but the rest of the cargo and the ship shall be left free, that the owners may dispose of them as they see proper. No vessel of either of the contracting parties shall be detained on the high seas, on account of having on board articles of contraband, whenever the master, captain, or supercargo of said vessel will deliver up the articles of contraband to the captor, unless, indeed, the quantity of such articles be so great, and of so large a bulk, that they cannot be received on board the capturing vessel without great inconvenience; but in this, and all other cases of just detention, the vessel detained shall be sent to the nearest convenient and safe port, for trial and judgment according to law.

ART. 16. And whereas it frequently happens that vessels sail for a port or place belonging to an enemy, without knowing that the same is besieged, blockaded, or invested, it is agreed that every vessel so circumstanced may be turned away from such port or place, but shall not be detained; nor shall any part of her cargo, if not contraband, be confiscated, unless, after being warned of such blockade or investment, by the commanding officer of a vessel forming part of the blockading forces, she shall again attempt to enter; but she shall be permitted to go to any other port or place the master or supercargo shall think proper. Nor shall any vessel of either party, that may have entered into such port or place before the same was actually besieged, blockaded, or invested by the other, be restrained from quitting it, with her cargo; nor, if found therein before or after the reduction and surrender, shall such vessel, or her cargo, be liable to seizure, confiscation, or any demand on the score of redemption or restitution; but the owners thereof shall be allowed to remain in the undisturbed possession of their property. And if any vessel, having thus entered the port before the blockade took place, shall take on board a cargo after the blockade be established, and attempt to depart, she shall be subject to being warned by the blockading forces to return to the port blockaded, and discharge the said cargo; and if, after receiving said warning,

the vessel shall persist in going out with the cargo, she shall be liable to the same consequences to which a vessel attempting to enter a blockaded port, after being warned off by the blockading forces, would be liable.

ART. 17. To prevent all kinds of disorder and irregularity in the visiting and examining of the ships and cargoes of both the contracting parties on the high seas, they have agreed, mutually, that whenever a vessel of war, public or private, shall meet with a neutral of the other contracting party, the first shall remain at the greatest distance compatible with the possibility and safety of making the visit, under the circumstances of wind and sea, and the degree of suspicion attending the vessel to be visited, and shall send one of her small boats, with no more men than those necessary to man it, for the purpose of executing the said examination of the papers concerning the ownership and cargo of the vessel, without causing the least extortion, violence, or ill-treatment; in respect of which, the commanders of said armed vessels shall be responsible, with their persons and property; for which purpose, the commanders of said private armed vessels shall, before receiving their commissions, give sufficient security to answer for all the injuries and damages they may commit. And it is expressly agreed, that the neutral party shall in no case be required to go on board of the examining vessel, for the purpose of exhibiting the ship's papers, nor for any other purpose whatever.

ART. 18. To avoid all vexation and abuses in the examination of the papers relating to the ownership of the vessels belonging to the citizens of the contracting parties, they have agreed, and do agree, that, in case one of them should be engaged in war, the ships and vessels of the other must be furnished with sea-letters, or passports, expressing the name, property, and burden of the ship, as also the name and place of residence of the master or commander thereof, in order that it may thereby appear that the said ship really and truly belongs to the citizens of one of the parties. They have likewise agreed, that such ships, being laden, besides the said sea-letters or passports, shall be provided with certificates, containing the several particulars of the cargo, and the place whence the ship sailed; so that it may be known whether any contraband or prohibited goods are on board of the same: which certificates shall be made out by the officers of the place whence the ship sailed, in the accustomed form: without which requisites the said vessel may be detained, to be adjudged by the competent tribunals, and may be declared legal prize, unless the said defect shall be proved to be owing to accident, or be satisfied or supplied by testimony entirely equivalent, in the opinion of said tribunals; to which ends, there shall be allowed a sufficient term of time for its procurement.

ART. 19. And it is further agreed, that the stipulations above expressed, relative to the visiting and examining of vessels, shall apply to those only which sail without convoy; and when said vessels shall be under convoy, the verbal declaration of the commander of the convoy, on his word of honor, that the vessels under his protection belong to the nation whose flag he carries, and, when they are bound to an enemy's port, that they have no contraband goods on board, shall be sufficient.

ART. 20. It is moreover agreed, that, in all cases, the established courts for prize causes, in the country to which the prize may be conducted, shall alone take cognizance of them. And whenever such tribunal or court, of either party, shall pronounce judgment against any vessel, goods, or property, claimed by citizens of the other party, the sentence or decree

shall mention the reasons or motives in which the same shall have been founded; and an authenticated copy of the sentence or decree, and of all the proceedings in the case, shall, if demanded, be delivered to the commander or agent of said vessel or property, without any excuse or delay, he paying the legal fees for the same.

ART. 21. Whenever one of the contracting parties shall be engaged in war with another state, no citizen of the other contracting party shall accept a commission or letter of marque, for the purpose of assisting or cooperating hostilely with the said enemy against the said party so at war, under pain of being treated as a pirate.

ART. 22. If, at any time, a rupture should take place between the two contracting nations, and (which God forbid) they should become engaged in war with each other, they have agreed, and do agree now, for then, that the merchants, traders, and other citizens of all occupations, of each of the two parties residing in the cities, ports, and dominions of the other, shall have the privilege of remaining and continuing their trade and business therein; and shall be respected and maintained in the full and undisturbed enjoyment of their personal liberty and property, so long as they behave peaceably and properly, and commit no offence against the laws. And in case their conduct should render them suspected of malpractices, and, having thus forfeited this privilege, the respective governments should think proper to order them to depart, the term of twelve months, from the publication or intimation of this order therefor, shall be allowed them, in which to arrange and settle their affairs, and remove with their families, effects, and property; to which end, the necessary safe-conduct shall be given to them, and which shall serve as a sufficient protection until they arrive at the designated port, and there embark. But this favor shall not be extended to those who shall act contrary to the established laws. It is, nevertheless, to be understood, that the persons so suspected may be ordered, by the respective governments, to remove forthwith into the interior, to such places as they shall think fit to designate.

ART. 23. Neither the debts due from individuals of the one nation to the individuals of the other, nor shares, nor money, which they may have in public funds, nor in public or private banks, shall ever, in any event of war or national difference, be sequestered or confiscated.

ART. 24. Both the contracting parties being desirous of avoiding all inequality in relation to their public communications and official intercourse, they have agreed, and do agree, to grant to their envoys, ministers, and other public agents, the same favors, immunities, and exemptions, as those of the most favored nation do or shall enjoy; it being understood, that whatever favors, immunities, or privileges the United States of America or the Peru-Bolivian Confederation may find it proper to grant to the envoys, ministers, and public agents of any other Power, shall, by the same act, be granted and extended to those of the contracting parties, respectively.

ART. 25. To make more effectual the protection which the United States of America and the Peru-Bolivian Confederation shall afford in future to the navigation and commerce of the citizens of each other, they agree to receive and admit consuls and vice-consuls in all the ports open to foreign commerce; who shall enjoy, within their respective consular districts, all the rights, prerogatives, and immunities of the consuls and vice-consuls of the most favored nation; each contracting party, however, remaining at

liberty to except those ports and places in which the admission and residence of such functionaries may not seem convenient.

ART. 26. In order that the consuls and vice-consuls of the two contracting parties may enjoy the rights, prerogatives, and immunities which belong to them by their public character, they shall, before entering on the exercise of their functions, exhibit their commission or patent, in due form, to the government to which they are accredited; and, having received their *exequatur*, they shall be held and considered as such consuls or vice-consuls by all the authorities, magistrates, and inhabitants in the consular district in which they reside.

ART. 27. It is likewise agreed, that the consuls, vice-consuls, their secretaries, officers, and persons attached to their service, (they not being citizens of the country in which the consul or vice-consul resides,) shall be exempt from all public service, and also from all kinds of taxes, imposts, and contributions, except those which they shall be obliged to pay on account of commerce, or their property, and from which the citizens of their respective countries, resident in the other, are not exempt, in virtue of the stipulations contained in this treaty; they being, in every thing besides, subject to the laws of the respective states. The archives and papers of the consulates shall be respected inviolably, and, under no pretext whatever, shall any magistrate, or other person, seize, or in any way interfere with them.

ART. 28. The said consuls and vice-consuls shall have power to require the assistance of the authorities of the country for the arrest, detention, and custody of deserters from the public and private vessels of their country; and for this purpose they shall address themselves to the courts, judges, or officers competent, and shall demand the said deserters in writing, proving, by an exhibition of the ship's roll, or other public document, that the men so demanded are part of the crew of the vessel from which it is alleged they have deserted; and on this demand, so proved, (saving, however, where the contrary is more conclusively proved,) the delivery shall not be refused. Such deserter, when arrested, shall be put at the disposal of said consuls or vice-consuls, and may be put in the public prisons, at the request and expense of those who reclaim them, to be sent to the ships to which they belong, or to others of the same nation; but if they should not be so sent within two months, to be counted from the day of their arrest, they shall be set at liberty, and shall be no more arrested for the same cause.

ART. 29. For the purpose of more effectually protecting their commerce and navigation, the two contracting parties do hereby agree to form, as soon hereafter as may be mutually convenient, a consular convention, which shall declare, specially, the powers and immunities of the consuls and vice-consuls of the respective parties.

ART. 30. The United States of America, and the Peru Bolivian Confederation, desiring to make as durable as circumstances will permit the relations which are established between the two parties in virtue of this treaty, or general convention of peace, friendship, commerce, and navigation, have declared solemnly, and do agree, as follows:

1st. The present treaty shall be in force for twelve years from the day of the exchange of the ratifications thereof; and, further, until the end of one year after either of the contracting parties shall have given notice to the other of its intention to terminate the same; each of them reserving

to itself the right of giving such notice to the other, at the end of said term of twelve years. And it is hereby agreed between the parties, that on the expiration of one year after such notice shall have been received by either of them from the other, as above mentioned, this treaty shall, in all the points relating to commerce and navigation, altogether cease and determine; and in all those parts which relate to peace and friendship, it shall be permanently and perpetually binding on both Powers.

2dly. If any one or more of the citizens of either party shall infringe any of the articles of this treaty, such citizen or citizens shall be held personally responsible therefor, and the harmony and good correspondence between the two nations shall not be interrupted thereby; each party engaging, in no way, to protect the offender or offenders, or to sanction such violence, under pain of rendering itself liable for the consequences thereof.

3dly. If, (which, indeed, cannot be expected,) unfortunately, any of the stipulations contained in the present treaty shall be violated or infringed in any other way whatever, it is expressly covenanted and agreed, that neither of the contracting parties will order, or authorize, any act of reprisals, nor declare or make war against the other, on complaint of injuries or damages resulting therefrom, until the party considering itself aggrieved shall first have presented to the other a statement or representation of such injuries or damages, verified by competent proofs, and have demanded redress and satisfaction, and the same shall have been either refused or unreasonably delayed.

4thly. Nothing in this treaty contained shall, however, be construed to operate contrary to former and existing public treaties with other states or sovereigns.

The present treaty of peace, friendship, commerce, and navigation, shall be approved and ratified by the President of the United States of America, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate thereof, and by the Supreme Protector of the north and south Peruvian States, President of the republic of Bolivia, encharged with the direction of the foreign relations of the Peru-Bolivian Confederation; and the ratifications shall be exchanged within eighteen months from the date of the signature hereof, or sooner, if possible.

In faith whereof, we, the plenipotentiaries of the United States of America, and the Peru-Bolivian Confederation, have signed and sealed these presents.

Done in the city of Lima, on the thirtieth day of November, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and thirty-six.

SAMUEL LARNED, [SEAL.]
J. GARCIA DEL RIO, [SEAL.]

And whereas the said convention has been duly ratified on both parts, and the respective ratifications of the same were exchanged at Lima on the twenty-eighth day of May, one thousand eight hundred and thirty-eight, by Edwin Bartlett, consul of the United States in that city, and Juan Garcia del Rio, Minister of Finance of the State of North Peru, on the part of their respective Governments:

Now, therefore, be it known, that I, Martin Van Buren, President of the United States of America, have caused the said convention to be made

public, to the end that the same, and every clause and article thereof, may be observed and fulfilled with good faith by the United States and the citizens thereof.

In witness whereof, I have hereunto set my hand, and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

Done at the city of Washington, this third day of October, in the year
[L. s.] of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and thirty-eight, and of
the independence of the United States the sixty-third.

M. VAN BUREN.

By the President : JOHN FORSYTH,
Secretary of State.

Convention between the United States of America and the republic of Texas, for marking the boundary between them : concluded April 25, 1838 ; ratifications exchanged October 13, 1838.

Whereas the treaty of limits made and concluded on the twelfth day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and twenty-eight, between the United States of America on the one part and the United Mexican States on the other, is binding upon the republic of Texas, the same having been entered into at a time when Texas formed a part of the said United Mexican States :

And whereas it is deemed proper and expedient, in order to prevent future disputes and collisions between the United States and Texas in regard to the boundary between the two countries as designated by the said treaty, that a portion of the same should be run and marked without unnecessary delay :

The President of the United States has appointed John Forsyth, their plenipotentiary, and the President of the republic of Texas has appointed Memucan Hunt its plenipotentiary :

And the said plenipotentiaries having exchanged their full powers, have agreed upon and concluded the following articles :

ARTICLE 1. Each of the contracting parties shall appoint a commissioner and surveyor, who shall meet before the termination of twelve months from the exchange of the ratifications of this convention, at New Orleans, and proceed to run and mark that portion of the said boundary which extends from the mouth of the Sabine, where that river enters the Gulf of Mexico, to the Red river. They shall make out plans and keep journals of their proceedings, and the result agreed upon by them shall be considered as part of this convention, and shall have the same force as if it were inserted therein. The two Governments will amicably agree respecting the necessary articles to be furnished to those persons, and also as to their respective escorts, should such be deemed necessary.

ART. 2. And it is agreed that until this line shall be marked out, as is provided for in the foregoing article, each of the contracting parties shall continue to exercise jurisdiction in all territory over which its jurisdiction has hitherto been exercised, and that the remaining portion of the said boundary-line shall be run and marked at such time hereafter as may suit the convenience of both the contracting parties ; until which time each of

the said parties shall exercise, without the interference of the other, within the territory of which the boundary shall not have been so marked and run, jurisdiction to the same extent to which it has been heretofore usually exercised.

ART. 3. The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at Washington, within the term of six months from the date hereof, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof, we, the respective plenipotentiaries, have signed the same, and have hereunto affixed our respective seals.

Done at Washington, this twenty-fifth day of April, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and thirty-eight, in the sixty-second year of the independence of the United States of America, and in the third of that of the republic of Texas.

JOHN FORSYTH, [L. s.]
MEMUCAN HUNT, [L. s.]

Mr. Jones to Mr. Vail.

TEXIAN LEGATION,

Washington, October 12, 1838.

SIR: Since the date of Mr. Forsyth's correspondence with General Hunt on the subject of the proposition to annex Texas to the United States, although that proposition was then considered by this Government as finally disposed of, Texas has, nevertheless, continued to be generally regarded by the people of both countries as in the attitude of an applicant for admission into this Union.

In order to prevent future misunderstanding upon this subject, and believing that an explicit avowal of its present policy, in reference to this measure, would conduce mutually to the interest of both countries, the Government of Texas has directed the undersigned respectfully, but unconditionally, to withdraw the proposition above mentioned.

The undersigned, minister plenipotentiary of the republic of Texas, therefore, in accordance with his instructions, has the honor to announce to the Secretary of State of the United States the formal and absolute withdrawal of the proposition for the annexation of Texas to the United States.

The undersigned embraces this occasion to tender to Mr. Vail renewed assurances of his distinguished consideration.

ANSON JONES.

A. VAIL, Esq., *Acting Secretary of State
of the United States.*

Mr. Vail to Mr. Jones.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,

Washington, October 13, 1838.

The undersigned, acting Secretary of State of the United States, has the honor to acknowledge the receipt of the note addressed to him yes-

terday by Mr. Anson Jones, minister plenipotentiary of the republic of Texas, announcing, under instructions from the Texian Government, the formal and absolute withdrawal of its proposition for the annexation of Texas to the United States, and to state that Mr. Jones's note has been laid before the President.

The undersigned takes this opportunity to offer to Mr. Jones the assurance of his distinguished consideration.

A. VAIL.

ANSON JONES, Esq.,
Min. Plen. of the Republic of Texas.

BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

A PROCLAMATION.

Whereas there is too much reason to believe that citizens of the United States, in disregard of the solemn warning heretofore given to them by the proclamations issued by the Executive of the General Government and by some of the Governors of the States, have combined to disturb the peace of the dominions of a neighboring and friendly nation: and whereas information has been given to me, derived from official and other sources, that many citizens, in different parts of the United States, are associated or associating for the same purpose: and whereas disturbances have actually broken out anew in different parts of the two Canadas: and whereas a hostile invasion has been made by citizens of the United States in conjunction with Canadians and others, who, after forcibly seizing upon the property of their peaceful neighbors, for the purpose of effecting their unlawful designs, are now in arms against the authorities of Canada, in perfect disregard of their own obligations as American citizens and of the obligations of the Government of their country to foreign nations:

Now, therefore, I have thought it necessary and proper to issue this proclamation, calling upon every citizen of the United States neither to give countenance nor encouragement of any kind to those who have thus forfeited their claim to the protection of their country; upon those misguided or deluded persons who are engaged in them to abandon projects dangerous to their own country, fatal to those whom they profess a desire to relieve, impracticable of execution without foreign aid, which they cannot rationally expect to obtain, and giving rise to imputations (however unfounded) upon the honor and good faith of their own Government; upon every officer, civil and military, and upon every citizen, by the veneration due by all freemen to the laws which they have assisted to enact for their own government, by his regard for the honor and reputation of his country, by his love of order and respect for that sacred code of laws by which national intercourse is regulated, to use every effort in his power to arrest, for trial and punishment, every offender against the laws providing for the performance of our obligations to the other Powers of the world: and I hereby warn all those who have engaged in these criminal enterprises, if persisted in, that, whatever may be the condition to which they may be reduced, they must not expect the interference of this Gov-

ernment in any form on their behalf, but will be left, reproached by every virtuous fellow-citizen, to be dealt with according to the policy and justice of that Government whose dominions they have, in defiance of the known wishes and efforts of their own Government, and without the shadow of justification or excuse, nefariously invaded.

Given under my hand, at the city of Washington, the twenty-first day of November, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and thirty-eight, and the sixty-third of the independence of the United States.

M. VAN BUREN.

By the President:

JOHN FORSYTH, *Secretary of State.*

Treaty of commerce and navigation between the United States of America and his Majesty the King of Greece: concluded December 22, 1837; ratifications exchanged June 25, 1838.

BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

A PROCLAMATION.

Whereas a treaty of commerce and navigation between the United States of America and his Majesty the King of Greece was concluded and signed at London, on the tenth [twenty-second] day of December, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and thirty-seven; which treaty is word for word as follows:

Treaty of commerce and navigation between the United States of America and his Majesty the King of Greece.

The United States of America and his Majesty the King of Greece, equally animated with the sincere desire of maintaining the relations of good understanding which have hitherto so happily subsisted between their respective states; of extending, also, and consolidating the commercial intercourse between them; and convinced that this object cannot better be accomplished than by adopting the system of an entire freedom of navigation, and a perfect reciprocity, based upon principles of equity, equally beneficial to both countries; have, in consequence, agreed to enter into negotiations for the conclusion of a treaty of commerce and navigation, and

Traité de commerce et de navigation entre les Etats Unis d'Amérique et sa Majesté le Roi de la Grèce.

Les Etats Unis d'Amérique et sa Majesté le Roi de la Grèce, également animés du désir sincère de maintenir les rapports de bonne intelligence qui ont si heureusement subsisté jusqu'ici entre leurs états respectifs, et d'en étendre et consolider les relations commerciales; et convaincus que cet objet ne saurait être mieux rempli qu'en adoptant le système d'une entière liberté de navigation et d'une parfaite réciprocité, basé sur des principes d'équité également avantageux aux deux pays; sont en conséquence convenus d'entrer en négociation pour conclure un traité de commerce et de navigation, et ont nommé à cet effet des plénipotentiaires: Le Président

for that purpose have appointed plenipotentiaries: The President of the United States of America, Andrew Stevenson, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of the United States near the court of her Britannic Majesty; and his Majesty the King of Greece, Spiridion Tricoupi, Counsellor of State on special service, his envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary near the same court, grand commander of the royal order of the Saviour, grand cross of the American order of Isabella the Catholic; who, after having exchanged their full powers, found in good and due form, have agreed upon the following articles:

ARTICLE 1. The citizens and subjects of each of the two high contracting parties may, with all security for their persons, vessels, and cargoes, freely enter the ports, places, and rivers of the territories of the other, wherever foreign commerce is permitted. They shall be at liberty to sojourn and reside in all parts whatsoever of said territories; to rent and occupy houses and warehouses for their commerce; and they shall enjoy, generally, the most entire security and protection in their mercantile transactions, on condition of their submitting to the laws and ordinances of the respective countries.

ART. 2. Greek vessels arriving, either laden or in ballast, into the ports of the United States of America, from whatever place they may come, shall be treated, on their entrance, during their stay, and at their departure, upon the same footing as national vessels coming from the same place, with respect to the duties of tonnage, light-houses, pilotage, and port charges, as well as to the perquisites of public officers, and all other duties or charges, of whatever kind or denomination,

des Etats Unis d'Amérique, Andrew Stevenson, envoyé extraordinaire et ministre plénipotentiaire des Etats Unis près la cour de sa Majesté Britannique; et sa Majesté le Roi de la Grèce, le Sieur Spiridion Tricoupi, son Conseiller d'Etat en service extraordinaire, son envoyé extraordinaire et ministre plénipotentiaire près la même cour, grand commandeur de l'ordre royal du Sauveur, grand croix de l'ordre Américain d'Isabelle la Catholique; lesquels, après avoir échangé leurs pleins pouvoirs, trouvés en bonne et due forme, ont arrêté les articles suivants:

ARTICLE 1. Les citoyens et sujets de chacune des deux hautes parties contractantes pourront, avec toute sûreté pour leurs personnes, vaisseaux, et cargaisons, aborder librement dans les ports, places, et rivières des territoires de l'autre, partout où le commerce étranger est permis; ils pourront s'y arrêter et résider dans quelque partie que ce soit des dits territoires, y louer et occuper des maisons et des magasins pour leur commerce; et jouiront généralement de la plus entière sécurité et protection pour les affaires de leur négoce, à charge de se soumettre aux lois et ordonnances des pays respectifs.

ART. 2. Les bâtimens Grecs qui arriveront sur leur lest ou charges dans les ports des Etats Unis d'Amérique, de quelque lieu qu'ils viennent, seront traités à leur entrée, pendant leur séjour, et à leur sortie, sur le même pied que les bâtimens nationaux venant de même lieu, par rapport aux droits de tonnage, de fanaux, de pilotage, et de port, ainsi qu'aux vacations des officiers publics, et à tout autre droit ou charge, de quelque espèce ou dénomination que se soit, perçus au nom ou au

levied in the name or to the profit of the Government, the local authorities, or any private establishment whatsoever; and, reciprocally, the vessels of the United States of America arriving, either laden or in ballast, into the ports of the kingdom of Greece, from whatever place they may come, shall be treated, on their entrance, during their stay, and at their departure, upon the same footing as national vessels coming from the same place, with respect to the duties of tonnage, light-houses, pilotage, and port charges, as well as to the perquisites of public officers, and all other duties or charges of whatever kind or denomination, levied in the name or to the profit of the Government, the local authorities, or of any private establishments whatsoever.

ART. 3. All that may be lawfully imported into the kingdom of Greece, in Greek vessels, may also be thereinto imported in vessels of the United States of America, from whatever place they may come, without paying other or higher duties or charges, of whatever kind or denomination, levied in the name or to the profit of the Government, the local authorities, or of any private establishments whatever, than if imported in national vessels.

And, reciprocally, all that may be lawfully imported into the United States of America, in vessels of the said States, may also be thereinto imported in Greek vessels, from whatever place they may come, without paying other or higher duties or charges, of whatever kind or denomination, levied in the name or to the profit of the Government, the local authorities, or of any private establishments whatsoever, than if imported in national vessels.

ART. 4. All that may be lawfully

profit du Gouvernement, des administrations locales, ou d'établissmens particuliers quelconques.

Et, réciproquement, les bâtimens des Etats Unis d'Amérique qui arriveront sur leur lest ou charges dans les ports du royaume de la Grèce, de quelque lieu qu'ils viennent, seront traités à leur entrée, pendant leur séjour, et à leur sortie, sur le même pied que les bâtimens nationaux venant du même lieu, par rapport aux droits de tonnage, de fanaux, de pilotage, et de port, ainsi qu'aux vacations des officiers publics, et à tout autre droit ou charge de quelque espèce ou dénomination que ce soit, perçus au nom ou au profit du Gouvernement, des administrations locales, ou d'établissmens particuliers quelconques.

ART. 3. Tout ce qui pourra légalement être importé dans les Etats Unis d'Amérique par bâtimens des dits Etats, pourra également y être importé par bâtimens Grecs, de quelque lieu qu'ils viennent, sans payer d'autres ou plus hauts droits ou charges, de quelque espèce ou dénomination que ce soit, perçus au nom ou au profit du Gouvernement, des administrations locales, ou d'établissmens particuliers quelconques, que si l'importation avait lieu en bâtimens nationaux.

Et, réciproquement, tout ce qui pourra légalement être importé dans le royaume de la Grèce par bâtimens Grecs, pourra légalement y être importé par bâtimens des Etats Unis d'Amérique, de quelque lieu qu'ils viennent, sans payer d'autres ou plus hauts droits ou charges, de quelque espèce ou dénomination que ce soit, perçus au nom ou au profit du Gouvernement, des administrations locales, ou d'établissmens particuliers quelconques, que si l'importation avait lieu en bâtimens nationaux.

ART. 4. Tout ce qui pourra lé-

ly exported from the kingdom of Greece, in Greek vessels, may also be exported therefrom in vessels of the United States of America, without paying other or higher duties or charges, of whatever kind or denomination, levied in the name or to the profit of the Government, the local authorities, or of any private establishments whatsoever, than if exported in national vessels.

And, reciprocally, all that may be lawfully exported from the United States of America, in vessels of the said States, may also be exported therefrom in Greek vessels, without paying other or higher duties or charges, of whatever kind or denomination, levied in the name or to the profit of the Government, the local authorities, or of any private establishments whatsoever, than if exported in national vessels.

ART. 5. It is expressly understood, that the foregoing second, third, and fourth articles, are not applicable to the coastwise navigation from one port of the kingdom of Greece to another port of the said kingdom, nor to the navigation from one port of the United States of America to another port of the said States; which navigation each of the two high contracting parties reserves to itself.

ART. 6. Each of the two high contracting parties engages not to grant in its purchases, or in those which might be made by companies or agents acting in its name, or under its authority, any preference to importations made in its own vessels, or in those of a third Power, over those made in the vessels of the other contracting party.

ART. 7. The two high contracting parties engage not to impose upon the navigation between their re-

galement être exporté des Etats Unis d'Amérique par bâtimens des dits Etats, pourra également en être exporté par bâtimens Grecs, sans payer d'autres ou plus hauts droits ou charges, de quelque espèce ou dénomination que ce soit, perçus au nom ou au profit du Gouvernement, des administrations locales, ou d'établissmens particuliers quelconques, que si l'exportation avait lieu en bâtimens nationaux.

Et, réciproquement, tout ce qui pourra légalement être exporté du royaume de la Grèce par bâtimens Grecs, pourra également en être exporté par bâtimens des Etats Unis d'Amérique, sans payer d'autres ou plus hauts droits ou charges, de quelque espèce ou dénomination que ce soit, perçus au nom ou au profit du Gouvernement, des administrations locales, ou d'établissmens particuliers quelconques, que si l'exportation avait lieu en bâtimens nationaux.

ART. 5. Il est expressément entendu que les articles précédens, deux, trois, et quatre, ne sont point applicables à la navigation de côte, ou de cabotage, d'un port des Etats Unis d'Amérique à un autre port des dits Etats, ni à la navigation d'un port du royaume de la Grèce à un autre port du même royaume; navigation que chacune des deux hautes parties contractantes se réserve.

ART. 6. Chacune des deux hautes parties contractantes s'engage à ne donner dans ses achats, ou dans ceux qui seraient faits par des compagnies ou des agens agissant en son nom, ou sous son autorité, aucune préférence aux importations faites par ses bâtimens, ou par ceux d'une nation tierce, sur celles faites dans les bâtimens de l'autre partie contractante.

ART. 7. Les deux hautes parties contractantes s'engagent à ne pas établir sur la navigation entre leurs

spective territories, in the vessels of either, any tonnage or other duties, of any kind or denomination, which shall be higher or other than those which shall be imposed on every other navigation, except that which they have reserved to themselves, respectively, by the fifth article of the present treaty.

ART. 8. There shall not be established in the kingdom of Greece, upon the products of the soil or industry of the United States of America, any prohibition, or restriction, of importation or exportation, nor any duties of any kind or denomination whatsoever, unless such prohibitions, restrictions, and duties shall likewise be established upon articles of a like nature, the growth of any other country.

And, reciprocally, there shall not be established in the United States of America, on the products of the soil or industry of the kingdom of Greece, any prohibition or restriction, of importation or exportation, nor any duties of any kind or denomination whatsoever, unless such prohibitions, restrictions, and duties be likewise established upon articles of a like nature, the growth of any other country.

ART. 9. All privileges of transit, and all bounties and drawbacks which may be allowed within the territories of one of the high contracting parties, upon the importation or exportation of any article whatsoever, shall likewise be allowed on the articles of like nature, the products of the soil or industry of the other contracting party, and on the importations and exportations made in its vessels.

ART. 10. The subjects or citizens of one of the high contracting parties, arriving with their vessels on the coasts belonging to the other, but not wishing to enter the port, or, after having entered therein, not wishing to unload any part of their

territoires respectifs, par les bâtimens de l'une ou de l'autre, des droits de tonnage, ou autres, de quelque espèce ou dénomination que ce soit, plus hants ou autres que ceux qui seront établis sur toute autre navigation, excepté celle qu'elles se sont respectivement réservée par l'article cinquième du présent traité.

ART. 8. Il ne pourra pas être établi dans les Etats Unis d'Amérique, sur les productions du sol ou de l'industrie de la Grèce, aucune prohibition ou restriction d'importation ou d'exportation, ni aucuns droits de quelque espèce ou dénomination que ce soit, qu'autant que ces prohibitions, ces restrictions, et ces droits seraient également établis sur les objets de même nature provenant de toute autre contrée.

Et, réciproquement, il ne pourra pas être établi dans le royaume de la Grèce, sur les productions du sol ou de l'industrie des Etats Unis d'Amérique, aucune prohibition ou restriction d'importation ou d'exportation, ni aucuns droits de quelque espèce ou dénomination que ce soit, qu'autant que ces prohibitions, ces restrictions, et ces droits seraient également établis sur les objets de même nature provenant de toute autre contrée.

ART. 9. Toute faculté d'entrepôt et toute prime et remboursement de droits qui seraient accordés dans les territoires d'une des hautes parties contractantes, à l'importation ou à l'exportation de quelque objet que ce soit, seront également accordés aux objets de même nature, produits du sol ou de l'industrie de l'autre partie contractante, et aux importations et exportations faites dans ses bâtimens.

Art. 10. Les citoyens ou sujets de l'une des hautes parties contractantes arrivant avec leurs bâtimens à l'une des côtes appartenant à l'autre, mais ne voulant pas entrer dans le port, ou, après y être entrés, ne voulant décharger aucune partie de leur

cargo, shall be at liberty to depart and continue their voyage, without paying any other duties, imposts, or charges whatsoever, for the vessel and cargo, than those of pilotage, wharfage, and for the support of light-houses, when such duties shall be levied on national vessels in similar cases. It is understood, however, that they shall always conform to such regulations and ordinances concerning navigation, and the places or ports which they may enter, as are or shall be in force with regard to national vessels; and that the custom-house officers shall be permitted to visit them, to remain on board, and to take all such precautions as may be necessary to prevent all unlawful commerce, as long as the vessels shall remain within the limits of their jurisdiction.

ART. 11. It is further agreed, that the vessels of one of the high contracting parties, having entered into the ports of the other, will be permitted to confine themselves to unloading such part only of their cargoes as the captain or owner may wish, and that they may freely depart with the remainder, without paying any duties, imposts, or charges whatsoever, except for that part which shall have been landed, and which shall be marked upon and erased from the manifest, exhibiting the enumeration of the articles with which the vessel was laden; which manifest shall be presented entire at the custom-house of the place where the vessel shall have entered. Nothing shall be paid on that part of the cargo which the vessel shall carry away, and with which it may continue its voyage to one or several other ports of the same country, there to dispose of the remainder of its cargo, if composed of articles whose importation is permitted, on paying the duties chargeable upon it, or it may proceed to any other

cargaison, auront la liberté de partir et de poursuivre leur voyage, sans payer d'autres droits, impôts, ou charges quelconques, pour le bâtiment ou la cargaison, que les droits de pilotage, de quayage, et d'entretien de fanaux quand ces droits sont perçus sur les bâtimens nationaux dans les mêmes cas. Bien entendu, cependant, qu'ils se conformeront toujours aux réglemens et ordonnances concernant la navigation, et les places ou ports dans lesquels ils pourront aborder, qui sont ou seront en vigueur pour les bâtimens nationaux; et qu'il sera permis aux officiers des douanes de les visiter, de rester à bord, et de prendre telles precautions qui pourraient être nécessaires pour prévenir toute commerce illicite, pendant que les bâtimens resteront dans l'enceinte de leur jurisdiction.

ART. 11. Il est aussi convenu que les bâtimens de l'une des hautes parties contractantes, étant entré dans les ports de l'autre, pourront se borner à ne décharger qu'une partie de leur cargaison, selon que le capitaine ou propriétaire le désirera, et qu'ils pourront s'en aller librement avec le reste, sans payer de droits, impôts, ou charges quelconques, que pour la partie qui aura été mise à terre, et qui sera marquée et biffée sur le manifeste, qui contiendra l'énumération des effets dont le bâtiment était chargé; lequel manifeste devra être présenté en entier à la douane du lieu où le bâtiment aura abordé. Il ne sera rien payé pour la partie de la cargaison que le bâtiment remportera, et avec laquelle il pourra continuer sa route pour un ou plusieurs autres ports du même pays, et y disposer du reste de sa cargaison, si elle est composée d'objets dont l'importation est permise, en payant les droits qui y sont applicables, ou bien il pourra s'en aller dans tout autre pays. Il est, cependant, entendu que les droits, impôts, ou charges

country. It is understood, however, that all duties, imposts, or charges whatsoever, which are or may become chargeable upon the vessels themselves, must be paid at the first port where they shall break bulk, or unlade part of their cargoes; but that no duties, imposts, or charges of the same description shall be demanded anew in the ports of the same country, which such vessels might afterwards wish to enter, unless national vessels be, in similar cases, subject to some ulterior duties.

ART. 12. Each of the high contracting parties grants to the other the privilege of appointing in its commercial ports and places, consuls, vice-consuls, and commercial agents, who shall enjoy the full protection and receive every assistance necessary for the due exercise of their functions; but it is expressly declared, that in case of illegal or improper conduct with respect to the laws or government of the country in which said consuls, vice-consuls or commercial agents shall reside, they may be prosecuted and punished conformably to the laws, and deprived of the exercise of their functions by the offended Government, which shall acquaint the other with its motives for having thus acted: it being understood, however, that the archives and documents relative to the affairs of the consulate shall be exempt from all search, and shall be carefully preserved under the seals of the consuls, vice-consuls, or commercial agents, and of the authority of the place where they may reside.

The consuls, vice-consuls, or commercial agents, or the persons duly authorized to supply their places, shall have the right, as such, to sit as judges and arbitrators in such differences as may arise between the captains and crews of the vessels belonging to the nation whose interests are committed to their charge,

quelconques, qui sont ou seront payables pour les bâtimens mêmes, doivent être acquittés au premier port où ils romperaient le chargement ou en déchargeraient une partie; mais qu'aucuns droits, impôts, ou charges pareils, ne seront demandés de nouveau, dans les ports du même pays, où les dits bâtimens pourraient vouloir entrer après, à moins que les bâtimens nationaux ne soient sujets à quelques droits ultérieurs dans le même cas.

ART. 12. Chacune des hautes parties contractantes accorde à l'autre la faculté d'entretenir dans ses ports et places de commerce, des consuls, vice-consuls, ou agens de commerce, qui jouiront de toute la protection, et recevront toute l'assistance nécessaire pour remplir dûment leurs fonctions; mais il est expressément déclaré, que dans le cas d'une conduite illégale ou impropre envers les lois ou le Gouvernement du pays dans lequel les dits consuls, vice-consuls, ou agens du commerce résideraient, ils pourront être poursuivis et punis conformément aux lois, et privés de l'exercice de leurs fonctions, par le Gouvernement offensé, qui fera connaître à l'autre ses motifs pour avoir agi ainsi: bien entendu, cependant, que les archives et documens relatifs aux affaires du consulat seront à l'abri de toute recherche, et devront être soigneusement conservés sous le scellé des consuls, vice-consuls, ou agens commerciaux, et de l'autorité de l'endroit où ils résideraient.

Les consuls, vice-consuls, et agens commerciaux, ou ceux qui seraient dûment autorisés à les suppléer, auront le droit comme tels de servir de juges et d'arbitres dans les différends qui pourraient s'élever entre les capitaines et les équipages des bâtimens de la nation dont ils soignent les intérêts, sans que les autorités locales

without the interference of the local authorities, unless the conduct of the crews or of the captain should disturb the order or tranquillity of the country, or the said consuls, vice-consuls, or commercial agents should require their assistance to cause their decisions to be carried into effect or supported: it is, however, understood that this species of judgment or arbitration shall not deprive the contending parties of the right they have to resort, on their return, to the judicial authorities of their country.

ART. 13. The said consuls, vice-consuls, or commercial agents, are authorized to require the assistance of the local authorities for the arrest, detention, and imprisonment of the deserters from the ships of war and merchant vessels of their country; and for this purpose they shall apply to the competent tribunals, judges, and officers, and shall, in writing, demand said deserters; proving by the exhibition of the registers of the vessels, the rolls of the crews, or by other official documents, that such individuals formed part of the crews; and on this reclamation being thus substantiated, the surrender shall not be refused. Such deserters, when arrested, shall be placed at the disposal of the said consuls, vice-consuls, or commercial agents, and may be confined in the public prisons, at the request and cost of those who claim them, in order to be sent to the vessels to which they belonged, or to others of the same country. But if not sent back within the space of two months, reckoning from the day of their arrest, they shall be set at liberty, and shall not be again arrested for the same cause.

It is understood, however, that if the deserter should be found to have committed any crime or offence, his surrender may be delayed until the tribunal before which the case shall be depending shall have pronounced its sentence, and such sentence shall have been carried into effect.

puissent y entretenir, à moins que la conduite des équipages ou du capitaine ne troublât l'ordre ou la tranquillité du pays, ou que les dits consuls, vice-consuls, ou agens commerciaux ne réquisissent leur intervention pour faire exécuter ou maintenir leurs décisions: bien entendu que cette espèce de jugement ou d'arbitrage ne saurait pourtant priver les parties contendantes du droit qu'elles ont à leur retour de recourir aux autorités judiciaires de leur patrie.

ART. 13. Les dits consuls, vice-consuls, ou agens commerciaux seront autorisés à réquérir l'assistance des autorités locales pour l'arrestation, la détention, et l'emprisonnement de déserteurs des navires de guerre et marchands de leur pays; et ils s'adresseront pour cet objet aux tribunaux, juges, et officiers compétens, et réclameront par écrit les déserteurs sus-mentionnés, en prouvant par la communication des registres des navires, ou rôles de l'équipage, ou par d'autres documens officiels, que de tels individus ont fait partie des dits équipages; et cette réclamation ainsi prouvée, l'extradition ne sera point refusée. De tels déserteurs, lorsqu'ils auront été arrêtés, seront mis à la disposition des dits consuls, vice-consuls, ou agens commerciaux, et pourront être enfermés dans les prisons publiques à la réquisition et aux frais de ceux qui les réclament, pour être envoyés aux navires auxquels ils appartiennent, ou à d'autres de la même nation. Mais s'ils ne sont pas renvoyés dans l'espace de deux mois, à compter du jour de leur arrestation, ils seront mis en liberté, et ne seront plus arrêtés pour la même cause.

Il est entendu, toutefois, que si le déserteur se trouvait avoir commis quelque crime ou délit, il pourra être sursis à son extradition jusqu'à ce que le tribunal nanti de l'affaire aura rendu sa sentence, et que celle-ci ait reçu son exécution.

ART. 14. In case any vessel of one of the high contracting parties shall have been stranded or shipwrecked, or shall have suffered any other damage on the coasts of the dominions of the other, every aid and assistance shall be given to the persons shipwrecked, or in danger, and passports shall be granted to them to return to their country. The shipwrecked vessels and merchandise, or their proceeds if the same shall have been sold, shall be restored to their owners, or to those entitled thereto, if claimed within a year and a day, upon paying such costs of salvage as would be paid by national vessels in the same circumstances; and the salvage companies shall not compel the acceptance of their services, except in the same cases and after the same delays as shall be granted to the captains and crews of national vessels. Moreover, the respective Governments will take care that these companies do not commit any vexatious or arbitrary acts.

ART. 15. It is agreed that vessels arriving directly from the kingdom of Greece, at a port of the United States of America, or from the United States at a port within the dominions of his Majesty the King of Greece, and provided with a bill of health, granted by an officer having competent power to that effect at the port whence such vessel shall have sailed, setting forth that no malignant or contagious diseases prevailed in that port, shall be subjected to no other quarantine than such as may be necessary for the visit of the health officer of the port where such vessels shall have arrived; after which, said vessels shall be allowed immediately to enter and unload their cargoes: *Provided, always*, That there shall be on board no person who, during the voyage, shall have been attacked with any malignant or contagious diseases; that

ART. 14. Dans le cas où quelque bâtiment de l'une des hautes parties contractantes aura échoué, fait naufrage, ou souffert quelque autre dommage sur les côtes de la domination de l'autre, il sera donné tout aide et assistance aux personnes naufragés, ou qui se trouveraient en danger, et il leur sera accordé des passeports pour retourner dans leur patrie. Les bâtimens et les marchandises naufragés, ou leurs produits s'ils ont été vendus, seront restitués à leurs propriétaires ou ayant cause, s'ils sont réclamés dans l'an et jour, en payant les frais de sauvetage que payeraient les bâtimens nationaux dans les mêmes cas; et les compagnies de sauvetage ne pourront faire accepter leurs services, que dans les mêmes cas et après les mêmes délais qui seraient accordés aux capitaines et aux équipages nationaux. Les Gouvernemens respectifs veilleront d'ailleurs à ce que ces compagnies ne se permettent point de vexations ou d'actes arbitraires.

ART. 15. Il est convenu que les bâtimens qui arriveront directement des Etats Unis d'Amérique à un port de la domination de sa Majesté le Roi de la Grèce, ou du royaume de la Grèce à un port des Etats Unis d'Amérique, et qui seraient pourvus d'un certificat de santé donné par l'officier compétent à cet égard du port d'où les bâtimens sont sortis, et assurant qu'aucune maladie maligne ou contagieuse n'existait dans ce port, ne seront soumis à aucune autre quarantaine que celle qui sera nécessaire pour la visite de l'officier de santé du port où les bâtimens seraient arrivés; après laquelle il sera permis à ces bâtimens d'entrer immédiatement et de décharger leurs cargaisons: bien entendu, toute fois, qu'il n'y ait en personne à leur bord qui ait été attaqué pendant le voyage d'une maladie maligne ou contagieuse, que les bâtimens n'aient

such vessels shall not during their passage have communicated with any vessel liable itself to undergo a quarantine; and that the country whence they came shall not at that time be so far infected or suspected, that before their arrival an ordinance had been issued, in consequence of which all vessels coming from that country should be considered as suspected, and consequently subject to quarantine.

ART. 16. Considering the remoteness of the respective countries of the two high contracting parties, and the uncertainty resulting therefrom with respect to the various events which may take place, it is agreed, that a merchant vessel belonging to either of them, which may be bound to a port supposed at the time of its departure to be blockaded, shall not, however, be captured, or condemned, for having attempted a first time to enter said port, unless it can be proved that said vessel could and ought to have learned during its voyage that the blockade of the place in question still continued. But all vessels which, after having been warned off once, shall during the same voyage attempt a second time to enter the same blockaded port, during the continuance of said blockade, shall then subject themselves to be detained and condemned.

ART. 17. The present treaty shall continue in force for ten years, counting from the day of the exchange of the ratifications; and if, before the expiration of the first nine years, neither of the high contracting parties shall have announced by an official notification to the other its intention to arrest the operation of said treaty, it shall remain binding for one year beyond that time; and so on, until the expiration of the twelve months, which will follow a similar notification, whatever the time at which it may take place.

point communiqué dans leur traversée avec un bâtiment qui serait lui-même dans le cas de subir une quarantaine, et que la contrée d'où ils viendraient ne fut pas à cette époque si généralement infectée ou suspectée qu'on ait rendu avant leur arrivée une ordonnance d'après laquelle tous les bâtimens venant de cette contrée seraient regardés comme suspects, et en conséquence assujettés à une quarantaine.

ART. 16. Vu l'éloignement des pays respectifs des deux hautes parties contractantes, et l'incertitude qui en résulte sur les divers évènements qui peuvent avoir lieu, il est convenu qu'un bâtiment marchand appartenant à l'une d'elles qui se trouverait destiné pour un port supposé bloqué au moment du départ de ce bâtiment, ne sera cependant pas capturé ou condamné pour avoir essayé une première fois d'entrer dans le dit port, à moins qu'il ne puisse être prouvé que le dit bâtiment avait pu et dû apprendre en route que l'état de blocus de la place en question durait encore. Mais les bâtimens qui, après avoir été renvoyé une fois, essaieraient pendant la même voyage d'entrer une seconde fois dans le même port bloqué, durant la continuation de ce blocus, se trouveront alors sujet à être détenus et condamnés.

ART. 17. Le présent traité sera en vigueur pendant dix années à partir du jour de l'échange des ratifications; et si avant l'expiration des neuf premières années l'une ou l'autre des hautes parties contractantes n'aurait pas annoncé à l'autre, par une notification officielle, son intention d'en faire cesser l'effet, ce traité restera obligatoire une année au-delà, et ainsi de suite jusqu'à l'expiration des douze mois, qui suivront une semblable notification à quelque époque qu'elle ait lieu.

ART. 18. The present treaty shall be ratified by his Majesty the King of Greece, and by the President of the United States of America, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, and the ratifications to be exchanged at London, within the space of twelve months from the signature, or sooner if possible.

In faith whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries of the high contracting parties have signed the present treaty, both in French and English, and have affixed thereto their seals.

Done in duplicate, at London, the 10th [22d] of December, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and thirty-seven.

A. STEVENSON, [L. s.]
SP. TRICOUPI, [L. s.]

ART. 18. Le présent traité sera ratifié par le Président des Etats Unis d'Amérique, par et avec l'avis et le consentement du Sénat, et par sa Majesté le Roi de la Grèce, et les ratifications en seront échangés à Londres, dans l'espace de douze mois, ou plutôt si faire se peut.

En foi de quoi, les plénipotentiaires respectifs des deux hautes parties contractantes ont signé le présent traité en Anglais et Français, et y ont apposé leurs sceaux.

Fait en duplicata, à Londres, le 10 [22] de Décembre, l'an de Grace mil huit cent trente-sept.

S. TRICOUPI, [L. s.]
A. STEVENSON, [L. s.]

And whereas the said treaty has been duly ratified on both parts, and the respective ratifications of the same were exchanged at London on the 13th [25th] day of June last, by Andrew Stevenson, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of the United States at London, and Prince Michel Soutzo, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of his Majesty the King of Greece, on the part of their respective Governments:

Now, therefore, be it known, that I, MARTIN VAN BUREN, President of the United States of America, have caused the said treaty to be made public, to the end that the same, and every clause and article thereof, may be observed and fulfilled with good faith by the United States, and the citizens thereof.

In testimony whereof, I have hereunto set my hand, and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

Done at the city of Washington, the thirtieth day of August, in the [L. s.] year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and thirty-eight, and of the independence of the United States the sixty-third.

M. VAN BUREN.

By the President:

JOHN FORSYTH, *Secretary of State.*

CORRESPONDENCE WITH RUSSIA.

Baron Krudener to the Acting Secretary of State.

WASHINGTON, 19 [31] Mai, 1835.

Le soussigné, envoyé extraordinaire et ministre plénipotentiaire de sa Majesté l'Empereur de toutes les Russies, a l'honneur d'adresser à Monsieur Dickins, chargé, pendant l'absence de Monsieur le Secrétaire d'Etat, de la direction du Département des Relations Extérieures, la communication suivante :

La convention conclue entre la Russie et les Etats Unis d'Amérique, le 5 [17] Avril, 1824, a réglé divers points relatifs au commerce et à la navigation des bâtimens respectifs le long de la côte nord-ouest d'Amérique. Entre autres, l'article 4 de cette convention accordait aux navires Américains le droit de fréquenter, sans entrave quelconque, pendant un terme de dix ans, à dater du jour de la signature de la dite convention, les mers intérieures, les golfes, hâvres, et criques compris dans les limites des possessions Russes sur la côte mentionnée, et nommément au nord du 54e degré et 40 minutes de latitude.

Ce terme de dix ans venait d'expirer le 5 [17] Avril de l'année dernière; cependant les capitaines Américains Snow et Allen, qui se trouvaient dans le port de Novo Archangelsk, n'en ont pas moins annoncé l'intention d'aller visiter, comme par le passé, les mouillages du littoral appartenant à la Russie, en pretextant que la cessation du privilege dont leurs concitoyens avaient joui jusqu'alors ne leur avait pas été notifiée par leur Gouvernement. Cette déposition engagea le Capitaine Baron de Wrangel, Gouverneur des colonies Russe-Américaines, à déclarer formellement aux sieurs Snow et Allen, par une circulaire qu'il leur adressa sous la date du 27 Avril, qu'aux termes de la convention de 1824 les navires Américains n'avaient plus dorénavant le droit d'aborder indistinctement à toutes les mouillages compris dans les limites des dites possessions en Amérique.

En conséquence de ce qui vient d'être exposé, le ministère de sa Majesté l'Empereur de toutes les Russies a ordonné au soussigné d'appeler l'attention du Gouvernement des Etats Unis sur l'expiration, qui a eu lieu l'année dernière de l'article 4 du traité du 5 [17] Avril, 1824; en vertu duquel une liberté indéfinie et indistincte était accordée aux bâtimens des deux nations de fréquenter les possessions respectives de l'une et de l'autre, à la côte nord-ouest. Le nouvel état de choses survenu en vertu du traité, après l'expiration des premières dix années, n'ayant pas été suffisamment apprécié par les navigateurs des Etats Unis qui ont fréquenté, en dernier lieu, les possessions de la Russie au nord-ouest de l'Amérique Septentrionale, il paraît nécessaire que le public Américain soit informé de l'état actuel des relations subsistantes à cet égard; et le soussigné a eu ordre d'inviter le Gouvernement des Etats Unis à prendre à cet effet les mesures les plus convenables.

Le soussigné saisit avec empressement cette occasion de faire agréer à M. Dickins l'assurance de sa considération très distinguée.

B. KRUDENER.

M. DICKINS, &c.

Baron Krudener to the Acting Secretary of State.

[Translation.]

WASHINGTON, May 19, [31,] 1835.

The undersigned, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, has the honor to address the following communication to Mr. Dickins, who has charge of the Department of Foreign Relations during the absence of the Secretary of State.

The convention concluded between Russia and the United States on the 5th [17th] of April, 1824, regulated various points respecting the commerce and navigation of the vessels of each nation along the northwest coast of America. The fourth article of this convention grants to American vessels, for ten years after the date of the signature, the right of frequenting, without any hindrance whatever, the interior seas, gulfs, harbors, and creeks comprised within the limits of the Russian possessions on the aforesaid coast, and especially northward of 54° 40' of north latitude.

This period of ten years expired on the 5th [17th] of April, 1834; notwithstanding which, two American captains, (Snow and Allen,) who were then in the port of Novo Archangelsk, declared their intention to visit the anchoring-places on the coast belonging to Russia, as before, on the plea that they had received no notice of the cessation of this privilege from their Government. This declaration induced Captain Baron de Wrangel, Governor of the Russian-American colonies, to state formally to Captains Snow and Allen, by a circular addressed to them under date of April 27, that, by the terms of the convention of April, 1824, American vessels had no longer the right of landing, at their discretion, in all the landing-places of the said possessions in America.

In consequence of what is here exposed, the ministry of his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias has ordered the undersigned to call the attention of the American Government to the fact, that the fourth article of the treaty of 5th [17th] of April, 1824, by which indefinite and indiscriminate liberty (*liberté indéfinie et indistincte*) of frequenting the respective possessions of each party on the northwest coast was granted to the vessels of each, has expired. The new state of things brought on by the terms of the treaty, since the expiration of the said ten years, not having been sufficiently appreciated by the navigators of the United States who have latterly frequented the Russian possessions on the northwest coast of North America, it appears to be necessary that the American public should be informed of the actual state of the relations on this subject: and the undersigned has been ordered to invite the Government of the United States to take the most suitable measures with regard to it.

The undersigned embraces this opportunity to assure Mr. Dickins of his most distinguished consideration.

BARON DE KRUDENER.

To A. DICKINS, Esq.,
Acting Secretary of State.

Acting Secretary of State to Baron Krudener.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,

Washington, June 3, 1835.

The undersigned, acting Secretary of State of the United States, has the honor to acknowledge the receipt of the note addressed to him on the 19th [31st] ultimo, by Baron Krudener, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, reminding this Government of the expiration of the fourth article of the treaty of the 5th [17th] April, 1824, between the United States and Russia; which secured to American and Russian vessels the privilege of frequenting the respective possessions of the two Powers on the northwest coast, and suggesting the propriety of the adoption of proper measures to notify this fact to the people of the United States.

The undersigned has the honor to inform Baron Krudener that he will take an early opportunity to submit his communication to the President; and he avails himself of the occasion to renew to the Baron the assurance of his distinguished consideration.

ASBURY DICKINS.

TO BARON KRUDENER, &c.

Mr. Forsyth to Baron Krudener.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,

Washington, June 24, 1835.

SIR: I have the honor to inform you that your note of the 19th [31st] ultimo, calling the attention of this Government to the fact that the fourth article of the convention of April, 1824, between the United States and Russia, had expired by its own limitation, during the year 1834, and suggesting the propriety of making this event known to the American public, has been laid before the President for his consideration. As, however, the motives which led to, and rendered expedient the adoption of, that article of the treaty of 1824, exist now in equal force; and as the arrangement has been found mutually beneficial to the interests of the citizens and subjects, respectively, of the contracting parties, without inconvenience to either, I am instructed to apprise you that the President would prefer not to take any active measures to interrupt the commercial intercourse between the United States and the Russian settlements on the northwest coast of America, unless, in your opinion, there is reason to believe that a proposition on the part of this Government for the renewal of the article referred to would not be met in a favorable spirit by the Government of his Imperial Majesty at St. Petersburg.

An early answer to this communication, if you are not aware of any difficulty, on the part of your Government, in the way of such a negotiation, will enable me, without unnecessary delay, to transmit the requisite instructions on the subject to the diplomatic representative of the United States in Russia.

I pray you, sir, to accept the assurance of my distinguished consideration.

J. FORSYTH.

TO BARON KRUDENER, &c.

Baron Krudener to Mr. Forsyth.

PHILADELPHIA, le 29 Juin, [11 Juillet,] 1835.

Le soussigné, envoyé extraordinaire et ministre plenipotentiaire de sa Majesté l'Empereur de toutes les Russies, a reçu la note datée du 24 Juin, que lui a adressée Monsieur Forsyth, Secrétaire du Département d'Etat des Etats Unis. Il se serait fait un devoir d'y répondre plus immédiatement, si le mauvais état de sa santé le lui avait permis.

Le soussigné regrette qu'il soit entièrement hors de son pouvoir d'articuler une opinion quelconque sur le résultat dont seraient suivies des démarches de la part du cabinet des Etats Unis faites en vue d'engager le Gouvernement de sa Majesté Impériale à stipuler un renouvellement de l'article 4 du traité du 5 [17] Avril, 1824, qui depuis l'année passée a cessé d'être en rigueur.

Dans cette impossibilité où se trouve le soussigné de préjuger les intentions de l'Empereur, il ne lui reste qu'à persévérer dans l'accomplissement des ordres qui lui ont été transmis par le ministère, et qu'à réitérer la demande qui a fait l'objet de sa note du 19 [31] Mai.

Ce devoir est d'autant plus indispensable pour le soussigné, que les instructions dont il est muni à le sujet sont positives, et n'expriment aucun doute sur le juste empressement avec lequel le Gouvernement des Etats Unis procéderait à la publication demandée.

Le soussigné saisit cette occasion d'offrir à Monsieur Forsyth l'assurance de sa haute considération.

B. KRUDENER.

Monsieur FORSYTH, &c.

Baron Krudener to Mr. Forsyth.

[Translation.]

PHILADELPHIA, June 29, [July 11,] 1835.

The undersigned, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, has received the note of June 24th, which was addressed to him by Mr. Forsyth, Secretary of State of the United States. He would have made it a duty to answer it immediately, had the state of his health permitted.

The undersigned regrets that it is entirely out of his power to give any distinct opinion as to the result which might attend any steps, on the part of the cabinet of the United States, to engage the Government of his Imperial Majesty to stipulate a renewal of the fourth article of the treaty of the 5th [17th] of April, 1824, which ceased to be in force last year. It being thus impossible for the undersigned to foresee the intentions of the Emperor, he can only persevere in complying with the orders transmitted to him by the ministry, and in repeating the demand which formed the subject of his note of the 19th [31st] of May.

The undersigned is the more obliged to comply with this duty, as the instructions with which he is furnished on this subject are positive, and

express no doubt as to the readiness of the American Government to proceed to the publication requested.

The undersigned seizes this occasion to offer to Mr. Forsyth the assurance of his high consideration.

B. KRUDENER.

HON. J. FORSYTH,
Secretary of State.

Mr. Forsyth to Baron Krudener.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
Washington, July 21, 1835.

SIR: I have received your note of the 29th June, [11th July,] declining to express an opinion as to the probable result of an application, on the part of this Government, to that of his Imperial Majesty, for a renewal of the fourth article of the convention of 1824 between the United States and Russia, and reiterating the request, contained in your communication of the 19th [31st] May last, that the fact of the expiration of the term limited in the article referred to should be, in some form, brought into notice for the information of the American public. I have, in answer, the honor to state, that a formal notice from the Government is not deemed necessary. All the citizens of the United States are bound to know existing laws, and their rights and obligations under existing treaties; still, however, as his Imperial Majesty's Government has specially invited the attention of this Government to the subject, an informal notice will be given, through the public journals, of Baron de Wrangel's warning to the captains of the vessels on the northwest coast of this continent.

I will be happy to receive from you, as early as practicable, precise information of the measures his Imperial Majesty's Government has adopted, or purposes to adopt, in relation to the subject, as corresponding regulations may be deemed necessary by the United States in regard to Russian subjects, in the event of the non-renewal of the treaty stipulation.

I pray you to accept the renewed assurance of my distinguished consideration.

JOHN FORSYTH.

BARON KRUDENER, &c.

Baron Krudener to Mr. Forsyth.

NEW YORK, le 14 [26] *Juillet*, 1835.

Le soussigné, envoyé extraordinaire et ministre plenipotentiaire de sa Majesté l'Empereur de toutes les Russies, a eu l'honneur de recevoir la note, datée du 21 *Juillet*, par laquelle Monsieur le Secrétaire du Département d'Etat des Etats Unis Forsyth l'informe, en réponse à la communication qu'il lui avait adressée le 29 *Juin* [11 *Juillet*] dernier, de l'intention du Gouvernement des Etats Unis de faire paraître dans les journaux publics une notification non officielle de l'avertissement donné par le Capi-

taine Baron de Wrangel aux commandans des bâtimens Américains sur la côte nord-ouest de ce continent, concernant l'expiration du 4ème article du traité du 5 [17] Avril, 1824; et exprime le désir de recevoir du sousigné, aussitôt qu'il sera possible, des informations précises sur les mesures que le Gouvernement Impérial a adoptées, ou qu'il se propose d'adopter, relativement à ce sujet, comme des réglemens correspondans peuvent être jugés nécessaires pour les Etats Unis, à l'égard des sujets Russes, dans le cas où la stipulation du traité ne serait pas renouvelée.

Le soussigné a porté, sans délai, à la connaissance de son Gouvernement la note ci-dessus mentionnée de Monsieur le Secrétaire du Département d'Etat des Etats Unis, et s'empressera dès qu'il aura reçu les instructions du ministère impérial de communiquer à Monsieur Forsyth le résultat de cette démarche.

Le soussigné saisit cette occasion d'offrir à Monsieur le Secrétaire du Département d'Etat des Etats Unis Forsyth l'assurance de sa haute considération.

B. KRUDENER.

Monsieur FORSYTH,

Secrétaire du Département d'Etat des Etats Unis, &c.

[Translation.]

Baron Krudener to Mr. Forsyth.

NEW YORK, July 14, [26,] 1835.

The undersigned, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, has had the honor to receive the note, dated July 21st, in which Mr. Forsyth, Secretary of State of the United States, in reply to his communication of June 29, [July 11,] informs him that the Government of the United States intend to insert in the public newspapers an unofficial notice of the warning given by Baron Wrangel to the captains of American vessels on the northwest coast of this continent, respecting the expiration of the 4th article of the treaty of April 5, [17,] 1824; expressing also a desire to receive from the undersigned, as soon as possible, precise information with regard to the measures which the Imperial Government has adopted, or may adopt, on this subject, as corresponding regulations, with regard to Russian subjects, may be considered necessary in case the stipulation of the treaty be not renewed.

The undersigned has, without delay, submitted to his Government the said note of the Secretary of State; and will communicate to him the results as soon as they are received.

The undersigned embraces this occasion, &c.

B. KRUDENER.

To Hon. JOHN FORSYTH, *Secretary of State.*

Mr. Forsyth to Mr. Wilkins.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,

Washington, July 30, 1835.

SIR: I transmit to you, enclosed, the copy of a recent correspondence with Baron Krudener, the diplomatic representative of his Majesty the Emperor of Russia, at Washington, regarding the 4th article of the convention of April, 1824, between the United States and that empire. It will be perceived from these papers that the Baron has taken occasion to remind this Government of the expiration of the term limited in that article, and to request that a notification of this fact may be given for the information of the American public. An informal notice has been accordingly published in the "Globe," of the 22d instant, of Baron de Wrangel's warning to the captains of certain American vessels trading with the Russian settlements on the northwest coast of America. It will also be seen that, in answer to an inquiry from this Department, Baron Krudener has declined to express an opinion as to the probable result of a proposition to his Imperial Majesty's Government for a renewal of the article referred to.

It therefore becomes necessary, and you are now authorized, by the President's direction, to enter immediately upon a negotiation with the Government of his Imperial Majesty, if it shall be found willing to entertain the proposition, for the renewal of the stipulations of the 4th article of the convention of 5th [17th] April, 1824, for an indefinite period; or, if this cannot be had, for a term of years.

There is reason to believe that the course pursued by the Captain Baron de Wrangel, Governor of the Russian-American colonies, incidentally mentioned in the Baron de Krudener's letter of the 31st May last, has been instigated by the Russian-American Fur Company; and it is not improbable that representations of a character similar to those made to the Governor, and from the same source, have been transmitted to St. Petersburg. If prejudices exist, of the nature apprehended, and tending to defeat the object now in view, they will be easily discoverable in your intercourse with the Russian Minister of Foreign Affairs; and you will take an early opportunity to discredit them, by showing that representations growing out of private interests are always to be received with great caution, and should not be suffered to influence the decision of a question which may be productive of injury to the citizens and subjects, respectively, of the contracting parties.

The motives that prompted the adoption of the 4th article of the treaty of 1824, by the parties to that convention, exist now in equal, if not superadded, force; since it will not be denied that it has been mutually beneficial to the citizens and subjects of both, without being inconvenient to either. Serious objections, on the part of Russia, therefore, to the renewal of the stipulations contained in it, can hardly be anticipated. Should this reasonable expectation, however, be disappointed, it is the wish of the President that you should, without unnecessary delay, obtain from his Imperial Majesty's Government precise information in regard to the measures adopted, or proposed to be adopted, on its part, in relation to the

admission of American vessels into the ports, harbors, bays, and rivers of Russian settlements on the northwest coast of this continent, in order that corresponding regulations, if deemed necessary, may be made by this Government.

I am, sir, with respect, your obedient servant,

JOHN FORSYTH.

WM. WILKINS, Esq., &c.

P. S. An extract from a despatch of Mr. Middleton to the Secretary of State, dated 7th [19th] April, 1824, relating to the fourth article of the treaty of 1824, is also sent herewith, that you may understand the construction put upon it by the negotiator, which is undoubtedly correct, in the judgment of this Department.

[FROM THE "GLOBE" OF JULY 22, 1835.]

It will be recollected that a convention was concluded between the United States and Russia, in April, 1824, regulating various matters connected with the commerce and navigation of the two nations on the northwest coast of America. By the 4th article it was stipulated that the ships of both nations might, during a term of ten years, frequent without hindrance the interior seas, gulfs, harbors, and creeks of each nation on that coast, for the purpose of fishing and trading with the natives of the country. The ten years expired in April, 1834; and we understand that formal notice has been given by the Governor of the Russian colonies to the masters of the American ships then trading there that they could no longer claim, under the convention, the right of landing at all the landing-places, without distinction, belonging to Russia on that coast. Those interested in the trade will not fail to observe that, under the 2d article of the convention, it is necessary for all American vessels, resorting to any point on that coast where there is a Russian establishment, to obtain the permission of the governor or commander.

Mr. Forsyth to Mr. Dallas.—(Extract.)

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,

Washington, April 19, 1837.

SIR: I am directed by the President to invite your early attention to the subject of the 4th article of the convention of April, 1824, with Russia. This article secured to the vessels of the contracting parties the reciprocal right of frequenting, for the purpose of fishing and of trading with the natives, the interior seas, gulfs, havens, and creeks upon the northwest coast of this continent. Its stipulations were limited to the term of ten years, and expired in 1834. In the following year, this Government having been reminded by the Russian minister here of the expiration of the term limited in the article, instructions were given to Mr. Wilkins, in July, 1835, (to which you are particularly referred,) to offer a proposition to the Government of his Imperial Majesty for a renewal of its stipulations,

either for an indefinite period or for a term of years; and if serious objections were entertained on the part of the Russian Government to entering on such negotiation, Mr. Wilkins was requested to obtain precise information in regard to the measures adopted, or proposed to be adopted, by his Imperial Majesty, in regard to the admission of vessels of the United States into the harbors, bays, and rivers of the Russian settlements on the northwest coast of America, in order that corresponding regulations, if deemed necessary, might be adopted by this Government. Under those instructions, the subject was accordingly presented to Count Nesselrode in November of the same year, and, in December following, a note was received from him acquainting Mr. Wilkins that the Imperial Government thought it expedient to postpone a decisive answer to the proposal of the United States to revive the stipulations of the 4th article of the convention of 1824 until the arrival of some of its officers from the northwest coast, who would be able to furnish such information on the subject as would authorize an opinion upon the propriety of the measure. Since the receipt of the note last referred to, no further step has been taken by this Government, or its diplomatic representative at St. Petersburg, in relation to the matter in question. The arrival at that capital, during the last summer, of the Baron Wrangel, formerly Governor of the Russian possessions in North America, will have afforded the Government of his Imperial Majesty an opportunity of obtaining the information desired. It is, therefore, the wish of the President that, as soon as convenient after your arrival at your post, you should remind the Count de Nesselrode that no definitive answer has yet been given to the communication of Mr. Wilkins on the subject of the renewal of the 4th article of the convention of 1824; that a decision is anxiously looked for; and that the hope is entertained that his Imperial Majesty's Government is now prepared to take a favorable view of the proposition. In executing this duty, however, it will not be necessary to repeat the call for information as to the regulations which, in the event of a refusal to renew the 4th article of the convention, his Imperial Majesty's Government may propose to apply to the vessels of the United States frequenting the Russian settlements on the northwest coast. Such official inquiry may very properly be suspended until you shall have ascertained that some measures affecting our intercourse with those possessions have actually been adopted by the Russian Government in consequence of the expiration of the 4th article of the convention.

Mr. Forsyth to Mr. Dallas.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,

Washington, May 4, 1837.

SIR: I regret to have occasion so soon to advert to a subject connected with the claims of the United States to the right of trading with the natives of the country, and of fishing on the northwest coast of this continent. You will perceive, from a perusal of the accompanying papers, that the expiration of the 4th article of the convention of 1824 with Russia, is not unlikely to be attended with difficulties to our citizens frequent-

ing that coast in pursuit of lawful objects. The leading features of the case to which your attention is now invited—the particulars of which are more fully detailed in the enclosed copies of a letter, dated 24th November last, from J. C. Jones, consul of the United States at the Sandwich islands, to this Department, and of the protest to which it refers—are as follows: The American brig "Loriot," Blinn master, sailed from the port of Oahu on the 22d of August last, bound to the northwest coast of America, for the purpose of procuring provisions, and also Indians to hunt for sea-otter on the said coast. It appears that she made the land called Forrester's island on the 14th of September following, and on the 15th anchored in the harbor of Tuckessan, latitude $54^{\circ} 55'$ north, and longitude $132^{\circ} 30'$ west; that on the 18th a Russian armed brig arrived in the harbor of Tateskey, latitude $54^{\circ} 45'$ north and longitude $132^{\circ} 55'$ west; that on the succeeding day the "Loriot" was boarded by officers from the Russian brig, who ordered the captain of the American vessel to leave the dominions of his Majesty the Emperor of Russia; that Captain Blinn then repaired on board the Russian brig, where the same orders were repeated to him by the commander; that on the 20th and 23d days of the same month these orders were reiterated; that on the 25th the "Loriot" was boarded by two armed boats from the Russian brig, and directed to get under way and proceed to the harbor of Tateskey; that on the 27th the armed boats again boarded the American brig, and compelled the captain to proceed to Tateskey; that when off that place, the weather being threatening, permission was asked of the Russian commander to enter the harbor with the "Loriot;" which request was denied, and Captain Blinn was again ordered to leave the waters of his Imperial Majesty; and that Captain Blinn, being prevented from procuring supplies or necessaries for his vessel, and from obtaining any Indians, (for the purpose of hunting sea-otter,) was finally obliged to abandon his voyage, and return to the Sandwich islands, where he arrived on the 1st of November of the same year.

The harbors designated in Captain Blinn's protest, by the names of Tuckessan and Tateskey, are not laid down on any map to which I have referred; and the Department has no knowledge of any Russian establishment having been formed on the northwest coast, or adjacent islands, in or about the latitude given for these places. It will, therefore, be proper to ascertain whether there are, in fact, Russian settlements at the points designated; and if so, you are authorized to make a representation of the whole subject to his Imperial Majesty's Government, complaining of the proceedings in relation to the "Loriot," which are supposed to have been unauthorizably instigated by the Russian-American Fur Company; and stating that the President cannot but regard this act as one of a most unfriendly character, as the United States has had no official or other notice of the existence of such establishments; and have not, although an application has long since been made for them, ever been furnished by the Russian Government with the regulations, consequent on the expiration of the 4th article of the convention, proposed to be applied to American vessels resorting to Russian settlements on that coast.

On the other hand, should there prove to be no Russian establishments at the places mentioned, this outrage on the "Loriot" assumes a still graver aspect. It is a violation of the right of the citizens of the United States, immemorially exercised, and secured to them as well by the law of nations as by the stipulations of the first article of the convention of

1824, to fish in those seas, and to resort to the coast for the prosecution of their lawful commerce upon points not already occupied. As such, it is the President's wish that you should remonstrate in an earnest but respectful tone against this groundless assumption of the Russian Fur Company; and claim from his Imperial Majesty's Government, for the owners of the brig "Loriot," for their losses and for the damages they have sustained, such indemnification as may, on an investigation of the case, be found to be justly due to them.

I am, sir, your obedient servant,

JOHN FORSYTH.

GEORGE M. DALLAS, Esq., &c.

P. S. Copies of the papers referred to in Mr. Middleton's despatch No. 35, dated 7th [19th] of April, 1824, are herewith transmitted to you, lest these documents should not be on file in the legation at St. Petersburg.

UNITED STATES' CONSULATE, SANDWICH ISLANDS,

Honolulu, (Oahu,) November 30, 1836.

SIR: I feel that it is an official duty incumbent upon this consulate to make known to the Department of State that the Northwest American Company are continuing to claim the exclusive privilege to the west coast of America, as far south as 54° in north latitude, and are enforcing their assumed right to that extent of coast, by armed cruisers, commanded by officers of the imperial navy. All intercourse or trade with the natives of that coast within that specified limit, by citizens of the United States, is in consequence prevented; and thereby a profitable and long-enjoyed commerce brought to a termination. Enclosed will be found a copy of protest made by the commander of the American brig Loriot, in consequence of having been driven from that coast by an armed Russian brig, and his voyage thereby entirely ruined.

I am, sir, your obedient servant,

JOHN C. JONES.

HON. JOHN FORSYTH,

Secretary of State, Washington.

UNITED STATES' CONSULATE, SANDWICH ISLANDS,

Honolulu, (Oahu,) November 7, 1836.

By this public instrument of declaration and protest, be it known that, on this seventh day of November, in the year one thousand eight hundred and thirty-six, personally came and appeared before me, at the office of this consulate, Richard D. Blinn, master of the American brig or vessel called the Loriot, of the burden of ninety-two and twenty-five ninety-fifths tons, or thereabouts, who did make oath and say that he, the said Richard D. Blinn, sailed from the port of Oahu, Sandwich islands, in the said brig Loriot, on the twenty-second day of August, in the said year, bound to the northwest coast of America, for the purpose of procuring provisions, and also Indians to hunt for sea-otter on the west coast of America; that nothing material occurred on board till the fourteenth day

of September, when he made the land called Forrester's island ; that, on the fifteenth day of said month, he anchored in the harbor of Tuckessan, in the latitude of $54^{\circ} 55'$ north, and longitude $132^{\circ} 32'$ west ; that, on the eighteenth day of said month, a Russian armed brig, with the Emperor's pennant flying, arrived in the harbor of Tateskey, in the latitude of $54^{\circ} 45'$ north, and longitude $132^{\circ} 55'$ west ; that, on the succeeding day, the Lorient was boarded by officers from said Russian brig, and the deponent ordered to leave the dominions of his Majesty the Emperor of Russia ; that he (the said deponent) then repaired on board the said Russian brig, where he received the same orders from the commander, (an officer in the Russian navy ;) that, on the twentieth and twenty-third days of said month, the Lorient was again boarded by the aforesaid officers from the Russian brig, and the deponent ordered to leave the port immediately ; that, on the twenty-fifth day of same month, the Lorient was boarded by two armed boats from the Russian brig, and himself (the deponent) ordered to get under way, and proceed to the harbor of Tateskey ; that, on the twenty-seventh day of said month, the aforesaid armed boats from the Russian brig again boarded the Lorient, and compelled him (the deponent) to way anchor, and proceed to Tateskey ; that, when off the harbor of Tateskey, the Lorient was hove-to, and he (the deponent) went on board the said Russian brig, to obtain permission of the commander to enter the harbor with the Lorient, the weather then being thick, and threatening a storm ; and the said appearer did further declare that he could not obtain permission to enter said harbor, but was ordered to leave the waters of his Majesty the Emperor of Russia ; in consequence of which, his voyage was abandoned, and he proceeded direct to the Sandwich islands, where he anchored on the first day of November, in the same year.

And the said appearer did further declare, that he was prevented by the commander of the aforesaid Russian armed brig, whilst in the port of Tuckessan, from procuring supplies or necessaries for his vessel, and from obtaining any Indians, (for the purpose of hunting sea-otter,) the main object of his voyage ; that, in consequence, the voyage on which he had embarked was entirely ruined, and himself compelled to abandon an expedition promising the most lucrative termination ; and, therefore, the said Richard D. Blinn, for himself and the owners of the said brig Lorient, or whomsoever it may concern, did declare to protest, as he doth by these presents most solemnly protest, against the commander of the aforesaid Russian armed brig, or against whomsoever else it shall or may concern, that all losses, damages, and detriments that have happened to said brig Lorient, on the voyage for which she was fitted out, ought to be borne by the commander of the said Russian armed brig, by those under whose orders he acted, or by whomsoever else it shall or may concern, and not by himself, the owners, or those interested in the said brig Lorient.

In witness whereof, I have given this certificate, under my hand and seal of office, this seventh day of November, in the year

[L. s.] eighteen hundred and thirty-six.

JOHN C. JONES.

HONULULU, (OAHU,) *November 7, 1836.*

We, Richard D. Blinn, master, Owen Jones, first mate, and Joshua L. Lamb, second mate, of the brig or vessel called the Lorient, being severally duly sworn, do severally make oath, and say, that the instrument of pro-

test hereunto annexed hath been clearly and distinctly read over to them, these deponents; and that the several matters and things therein contained are right and true in all respects, as the same are therein particularly alleged, declared, and set forth.

R. D. BLINN,
OWEN JONES,
JOSHUA L. LAMB.

Sworn to before me, this seventh day of November, in the year eighteen hundred and thirty-six, at Honolulu, (Oahu,) Sandwich islands.

JOHN C. JONES.

The above is a true copy of the original protest.

In witness whereof, I have hereunto set my hand, and affixed the seal
[L. s.] of this consulate, this seventh day of November, in the year
eighteen hundred and thirty-six.

JOHN C. JONES.

Mr. Forsyth to Mr. Dallas.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,

Washington, November 3, 1837.

SIR: Your despatches Nos. 6 and 7, of the 16th of August and 8th of September, respectively, have been duly received, and submitted to the President; by whom I am directed to make the following observations with reference to your remarks regarding the proper construction of the convention of April, 1824, between the United States and Russia.

The first article of that instrument is only declaratory of a right which the parties to it possessed under the law of nations, without conventional stipulations, to wit: to navigate and fish in the ocean upon an unoccupied coast, and to resort to such coast for the purpose of trading with the natives.

The second article prohibits the one party from resorting to points occupied by the other, without permission.

The third article prevents each party from occupying new points within certain limits.

The fourth article grants permission to either party to frequent, for a specified term, the interior seas, gulfs, harbors, and creeks, upon the whole northwest coast of America, without regard to limits or occupation, for the purposes of fishing and of trading with the natives of the country.

The question is as to the meaning and object of this last-mentioned article. Is it to be interpreted as an agreement, by either of the parties, to abandon, after a specified term, the right to resort to any part of the coast which is unoccupied?

If the fourth article is to be considered as applicable to parts of the coast unoccupied, then it merely provides for the temporary enjoyment of a privilege which existed in perpetuity under the law of nations, and which has been expressly declared so to exist by a previous article of the convention. Containing no provision, therefore, not embraced in the preceding article, it would be useless and of no effect. But the rule in re-

gard to the construction of an instrument, of whatever kind, is, that it shall be so construed, if possible, as that every part may stand.

If the article be construed to include points of the coast already occupied, it then takes effect, thus far, as a temporary exception to a perpetual prohibition; and the only consequence of an expiration of the term to which it is limited would be the immediate and continued operation of the prohibition.

It is still more reasonable to understand it, however, as intended to grant permission to enter interior bays, &c., at the mouth of which there might be establishments, or the shores of which might be in part, but not wholly, occupied by such establishments; thus providing for a case which would otherwise admit of doubt, as without the fourth article it would be questionable whether the bays, &c. described in it belonged to the first or second article.

In no sense can it be understood as implying an acknowledgment on the part of the United States of the right of Russia to the possession of the coast above the latitude of $54^{\circ} 40'$ north. It must be taken in connexion with the other articles of the convention, which have, in fact, no reference whatever to the question of the right of possession of the unoccupied parts of the coast. In a spirit of compromise, and to prevent future collisions or difficulties, it was agreed that no new establishments should be formed by the respective parties to the north or south of a certain parallel of latitude, after the conclusion of the agreement; but the question of the right of possession beyond the existing establishments, as it subsisted previous to, or at the time of the conclusion of the convention, was left untouched. The United States, in agreeing not to form new establishments to the north of latitude $54^{\circ} 40'$ north, made no acknowledgment of the right of Russia to the territory above that line. If such an admission had been made, Russia, by the same construction of the article referred to, must have acknowledged the right of the United States to the territory south of the designated line. But that Russia did not so understand the article, is conclusively proved by her having entered into a similar agreement, in a subsequent treaty, (1825,) with Great Britain; and having, in fact, acknowledged in that instrument the right of possession of the same territory by Great Britain. The United States can only be considered as acknowledging the right of Russia to acquire by actual occupation a just claim to unoccupied lands above the latitude $54^{\circ} 40'$ north; and even this is mere matter of inference, as the convention of 1824 contains nothing more than a negation of the right of the United States to occupy new points within that limit.

Admitting that this inference is just, and was in contemplation of the parties to the convention, it cannot follow that the United States ever intended to abandon the just right acknowledged by the first article to belong to them under the law of nations; that is, to frequent any part of the unoccupied coast of North America, for the purpose of fishing or trading with the natives. All that the convention admits, is, an inference of the right of Russia to acquire possession by settlement north of $54^{\circ} 40'$ north. Until that actual possession is taken, the first article of the convention acknowledges the right of the United States to fish and trade as prior to its negotiation. This is not only the just construction, but it is the one both parties are interested in putting upon the instrument, as the benefits are equal and mutual; and the object of the convention, to avoid convert-

ing the exercise of a common right into a dispute about exclusive privilege, is secured by it.

I am, sir, your obedient servant,

JOHN FORSYTH.

To GEORGE M. DALLAS, Esq., &c.

Mr. Wilkins to Mr. Forsyth.—(Extract.)

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,

St. Petersburg, September 7, 1835.

SIR: The steamboat of the day before yesterday brought me your despatch No. 4, dated on the 30th of July last, accompanied by a copy of a recent correspondence with Baron Krudener, regarding the fourth article of the convention of April, 1824, between the United States and Russia; a copy, also, of an informal notice, published in the "Globe" of the 22d of July last, touching American vessels trading with the Russian settlements on the northwest coast of America; and an extract from a despatch of Mr. Middleton, dated 7th [19th] April, 1824, relating to the fourth article of the treaty above mentioned.

I have already had the honor of apprizing you of the absence of his Imperial Majesty and his Minister of Foreign Affairs. Prince Lieven, left in the temporary occupation of Count Nesselrode's office, is unwilling to incur responsibility by taking up any matter of business which can be postponed until the return of the minister. Immediately upon the return to the capital of that officer, I shall not fail to call his attention to the fact of the expiration, by its own limitation, of the fourth article of the treaty of April, 1824, between the United States and the Imperial Government, to submit to him the proposition, and to endeavor to fulfil the instructions and meet the views of the President contained in the despatch which I have just received. I observed, shortly after my arrival in this city, that the term of ten years stipulated in the fourth article of the treaty had expired, and mentioned the circumstance in my despatch No. 3, of the date of the 27th of December last. I have not made allusion to it upon any occasion here, because I presumed, (and so it has occurred,) that the subject would engage your attention at Washington.

I have the honor to be, sir, your obedient servant,

WM. WILKINS.

HON. JOHN FORSYTH,

Secretary of State.

Mr. Wilkins to Mr. Forsyth.—(Extract.)

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,

St. Petersburg, November 23, 1835.

SIR: In the last despatch which I had the honor to address to you, on the 26th of September last, I informed you it was likely you would not again hear from me until after the return of the Emperor and Count Nesselrode to this capital.

His Majesty returned on the 1st instant, having been preceded a few days by his Minister of Foreign Affairs.

Immediately upon receiving from Count Nesselrode the usual written notice of his having resumed the duties of his official station, I addressed him a note, and requested him to name a day when I might have the honor of a personal conference. He mentioned the 4th instant. I waited upon him accordingly, at the Foreign Office, and disclosed to him the wishes of the American Government in reference to the renewal of the fourth article of the treaty of April, 1824, and held with him such conversation and placed the matter in that light which seemed to me the most proper and in accordance with my instructions. Upon the close of our conversation, I handed to him, in writing, a memorandum of the proposal you authorized me to submit. The view in which I placed the matter, and the substance of the conversation, will appear (and therefore need not be more particularly detailed) by reference to the copies of the notes which I addressed to him immediately after the conference, simply noting two observations which fell from him.

His first remark was, that he was under the impression we had never made any use of the privilege since the adoption of the treaty of 1824. This erroneous idea I corrected, by informing him that our ships were annually upon that coast, and that their visits were found to be very convenient to the Russian settlements, by furnishing them with supplies, and, at times, relieving them when pressed by a scarcity of necessaries. I also referred him to the recent warning given by Governor Wrangel himself to two American vessels upon the coast, at the very time of the expiration of the term of ten years, and as high up as New Archangel.

The count's other remark was, that he felt himself obliged to consult the Russian-American Fur Company, whose interests were immediately involved in the question. The substance of my answer to this will be found in my note of the 13th instant. He has since, as you will see by his note to me, turned the matter over to Count Conciere, the Minister of Finance.

I enclose you copies of a memorandum, delivered by me to Count Nesselrode at the close of our personal conference, dated the 4th instant; of my notes of the 5th instant, the 13th instant, and 21st instant; and of his note of the 8th [20th] instant.

You will perceive that, in my note of the 13th instant, I called the attention of the imperial minister to the first and eleventh articles of our commercial treaty with Russia of the 18th of December, 1832, intimating that those articles had a bearing upon the question, and presenting them for his consideration when he took up the subject. Will you refer to them, and decide what weight they ought to have when taken in connexion with the fact mentioned to me by Count Nesselrode himself, that Russia had a treaty with England granting the privileges of trade on the northwest coast to the subjects of the latter Government, similar to those secured by our treaty of 1824 to the citizens of the United States? I have never seen the treaty with Great Britain, but I think it may be likely that the privilege there is also limited to ten years. If so, this must be about the time of its expiration, for, I believe, the treaty was entered into in 1825.

I have the honor, &c.,

WM. WILKINS.

Hon. J. FORSYTH, *Secretary of State.*

*Memorandum.*ST. PETERSBURG, *October 23, [November 4,] 1835.*

The undersigned, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of the United States of America, in reference to the subject upon which he has this day had the honor of a personal conference with his excellency Count Nesselrode, Vice Chancellor of the empire, submits to the imperial ministry the following distinct proposition in behalf of the American Government: to renew the stipulations of the fourth article of the convention of the 5th [17th] of April, 1824, between his Imperial Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, and the United States of America, either for another term of ten years, or for an indefinite period.

WM. WILKINS.

*Mr. Wilkins to Count Nesselrode.*ST. PETERSBURG, *November 5, 1835.*

Mr. Wilkins, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of the United States of America, presents his respects to his excellency Count Nesselrode, and has the honor to enclose to him the extracts spoken of yesterday from the conventions of the United States of America with Great Britain, dated on the 20th October, 1818, and the 6th of August, 1827.

Mr. Wilkins also, as it affords a satisfactory reply to an observation which fell from his excellency yesterday, transmits a copy of a law of Congress, passed on the 19th of May, 1828, providing for the punishment of contraventions of the fifth article of the treaty of April, 1824. The attention of the imperial ministry is called to this law, because it affords manifest proof of the integrity of purpose on the part of the Government of the United States, and its disposition to secure the fulfilment of its stipulations with Russia.

Mr. Wilkins prays his excellency Count Nesselrode to accept the assurance of his high consideration and respect.

*Mr. Wilkins to Count Nesselrode.—(Extract.)*ST. PETERSBURG, *November 1, [13,] 1835.*

Notwithstanding his very recent conversation with Count Nesselrode in reference to the proposition of the American Government to renew the expired 4th article of the treaty of April, 1824, the undersigned will embrace the present occasion to repeat what may then have been, in a very brief manner, verbally represented, and to add a few remarks immediately bearing upon that question.

The diplomatic representative of his Imperial Majesty at Washington city having taken occasion to remind the United States of the expiration of the ten years stipulated in the 4th article of the treaty of 1824, and to

desire thereon the action of their Chief Magistrate, is indicative of the necessity that the two Governments should, as early as convenient, come to a decision upon the policy hereafter to control their citizens and subjects, respectively, upon the northwest coast. Hence it is that, under express instructions, the undersigned had the honor, immediately upon the return of his excellency Count Nesselrode to the capital, to call his attention to the question, and to submit to him his proposal of the 23d October, [4th November,] of which the undersigned delivered at the time a memorandum in writing.

The motives which influence the Government of the United States in submitting that proposition to the imperial ministry will be found to arise out of a consideration of the following circumstances:

1st. The desire to avoid any difficulty and apprehension of collision between the inhabitants, traders, and fishermen upon that wild coast, so remotely situated, with but very few and widely separated posts of civilization, and the entire country almost so exclusively occupied by savage tribes as to render restraint and proper responsibility to the law well-nigh out of the question with either Government.

2d. The proposed arrangement would render definite and precise the rights and duties of the subjects and citizens of the contracting parties, respectively, and would obviate all necessity to resort to a construction of the remaining articles of the treaty of April, 1824, and would likewise avoid any chance of conflicting interpretations of that instrument.

3d. Since the undersigned had the honor, in their personal conference the other day, to be informed by his excellency Count Nesselrode of the arrangement relative to the trade and intercourse upon the northwest coast of America subsisting at present between the Governments of Russia and Great Britain, he has turned to the 1st and 11th articles of the commercial treaty of the 6th [18th] of December, 1832, between Russia and the United States; and begs leave to call the attention of the imperial minister to the same articles, who will, upon their perusal, see for himself how far their provisions bear upon the present subject, and whether they may not give rise to an inquiry which may be rendered unnecessary by an acquiescence in the proposed arrangement.

4th. Touching the especial matter in question, the proposed arrangement would, it is believed, place the three nations, Russia, England, and the United States, upon the same fair footing, and upon the same equality in the enjoyment of a community of privileges.

In the personal interview of the 4th instant (N. S.) his excellency Count Nesselrode mentioned two circumstances, to which the undersigned will now refer for a moment. One was, the objection entertained by the Imperial Government to all traffic in fire-arms and spirituous liquors by American citizens with the native Indians. To this the undersigned now replies, as he did then very succinctly, that it is believed the treaty of 1824, containing a stipulation against that traffic, immediately put an end to it; that there have been no infractions since its adoption—certainly none complained of in representations to the Government at Washington; that, as a further assurance against infringements upon that humane stipulation, and as an evidence of the sincere desire of his Government to enforce it, the undersigned, immediately after their conference, enclosed to his excellency a copy of a law passed by Congress, declaring certain prosecutions and penalties against those who should offend against that pro-

vision of the treaty. And the undersigned will, on this point, content himself by adding that the above traffic is now discountenanced and prohibited by the present well-known and benevolent course of policy pursued by the American Government towards the wild and uncultivated aborigines of the country.

The other circumstance mentioned by his excellency was, that, as the Russian-American Fur Company were particularly interested in the decision of the question, he conceived it to be his duty to consult its directors before he could give a final answer.

It is not often that those who enjoy a monopoly under a liberal grant from an indulgent sovereign will be willing even to modify, or permit others to participate in, any portion of their privileges. But in the present instance, it must be recollected, such a concession is not embraced in the proposition submitted without a fair equivalent; for the privilege to fish and traffic north and south of the latitude 54° 40' would rest upon the just principle of reciprocity.

Whether any prejudices or individual interests exist, having a tendency to disincline his Imperial Majesty to assent to a renewal of the expired article of the treaty of 1824, or how far such prejudices or interests, if they do manifest themselves on the part of individual gentlemen of the first respectability, ought to influence the action of Governments upon a question of general import, and affecting national and amicable intercourse, is not for the undersigned alone to determine. It is enough for him to know that the views, in 1824, which produced the provision contained in the fourth article, have been tested by experience; and the results, being mutually beneficial and convenient, prove their propriety.

To justify the presumption that the annual visits of American ships, in the prosecution of their adventures upon the northwest coast, are sometimes very convenient, and must be beneficial to the Russian settlements and posts in that distant and not productive climate, the undersigned takes leave to refer to a contract made within a few days by the Russian-American Fur Company with an American citizen for supplies to their agents and posts for the ensuing year.

Should the undersigned, however, be disappointed in the reasonable expectation he has formed, and the Imperial Government be unwilling to entertain the proposal to renew, either indefinitely or for another term of years, the provisions of the article of the treaty referred to, he requests that his excellency Count Nesselrode will do him the favor to inform him in regard to the measures adopted, or proposed to be adopted, on the part of Russia, in relation to the admission of American vessels into the harbors, bays, and rivers of the Russian settlements on the northwest coast of the American continent. The happy understanding which prevails between the two Governments, the desire to avoid any casual difference, and the probable necessity for corresponding measures, will readily indicate the motives which prompt this request.

The undersigned cannot close this note without repeating, very earnestly, his wish to be put in possession of the answer of the imperial ministry upon the two subjects to which their attention is directed.

The undersigned embraces with pleasure the present opportunity to assure his excellency Count Nesselrode of his highest consideration and respect.

WM. WILKINS.

Count Nesselrode to Mr. Wilkins.

ST. PETERSBURG, le 8 Novembre, 1835.

Ainsi qu'il a eu l'honneur de le lui annoncer, le soussigné n'a pas manqué de porter à la connaissance du Ministère des Finances l'objet du memorandum que Monsieur Wilkins, envoyé extraordinaire et ministre plenipotentiaire des Etats Unis d'Amérique, a bien voulu lui adresser, en date du 23 Octobre [4 Novembre,] au sujet du renouvellement de l'article 4 du traité du mois d'Avril, 1824.

Dès qu'il aura recueilli l'opinion des autorités compétentes sur cet objet, et pris les ordres de l'Empereur, le soussigné s'empressera de faire part à Monsieur Wilkins du point de vue sous lequel la proposition de son Gouvernement est envisagée ici. Il le prie toutefois d'être persuadé d'avance, qu'en examinant cette proposition le Gouvernement Impérial ne saurait perdre de vue aucune des considérations qui doivent lui faire attacher du prix à cimenter de plus en plus les relations amicales qui existent entre les deux Gouvernemens.

En se bornant pour le moment à faire cette réponse préalable à la note de Monsieur Wilkins du 1 [13] Novembre, le soussigné saisit avec empressement cette occasion de lui réitérer l'assurance de sa considération très distinguée.

NESSELRODE.

M. WILKINS, &c.

Count Nesselrode to Mr. Wilkins.

[Translation.]

ST. PETERSBURG, November 8, 1835.

The undersigned, as he had the honor to announce, did not fail to submit to the Department of Finance the subject of the memorandum addressed to him on the 23d of October [4th November] by Mr. Wilkins, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of the United States of America, respecting the renewal of the 4th article of the treaty of April, 1824.

The undersigned, as soon as he has obtained the opinion of the proper authorities, and received the orders of the Emperor, will immediately communicate to Mr. Wilkins the point of view under which the proposition of his Government is regarded here. He however requests Mr. Wilkins to bear in mind that the Imperial Government, in examining this proposition, will lose sight of none of those considerations which should induce it more strongly to cement the amicable relations now existing between the two Governments.

Contenting himself for the present with this answer to the note of Mr. Wilkins of the 1st [13th] of November, the undersigned seizes this occasion to renew to him the assurances of his most distinguished consideration.

NESSELRODE.

WILLIAM WILKINS, &c.

Mr. Wilkins to Count Nesselrode.—(Extract.)

The undersigned, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of the United States of America, has the honor to acknowledge the receipt of the note bearing date yesterday, addressed to him by Count Nesselrode, Vice Chancellor of the empire, by which he observes that his excellency has submitted to the Minister of Finance the proposition of the American Government for the renewal of the 4th article of the treaty of April, 1824.

However forcibly impressed the undersigned may be with the necessity of as early a decision of this question as may be practicable with the imperial ministry, he will await with pleasure the final result of the course adopted by Count Nesselrode.

WM. WILKINS.

No. 16.

Mr. Wilkins to Mr. Forsyth.—(Extracts.)

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,

St. Petersburg, December 11, 1835.

SIR:

As I anticipated when I last wrote, I held with Count Nesselrode, at the Foreign Office, on Monday last, the 7th instant, a personal conference upon my proposition to renew, either indefinitely or for a term of years, the 4th article of the treaty of April, 1824; and I regret to be compelled to say that in this effort (at all events for the present) I have been unsuccessful, and I presume the overture will be finally altogether rejected, unless some new, and to me unforeseen, circumstances turn up.

I was well aware that I should have to encounter the decided opposition of the Russian-American Fur Company; and in presenting the subject to the Vice Chancellor in the various lights in which it struck my mind, I took the ground that it was not a mere interested and selfish question of gain in the traffic upon the northwest coast, but one of a higher character, involving political and national considerations; that whilst I was very willing to admit the more active commercial enterprise and superior shipping of the citizens of the United States, yet this was a question not to be decided by such circumstances, but should turn upon the consideration of our national good-will and our amicable and disinterested reciprocal intercourse. This the minister readily admitted, and he acknowledged that those reflections inclined him, individually, and when looking at the question politically, in favor of a continuation of the expired regulation; but alleged that the Russian-American Fur Company, composed of the subjects of the imperial Government, and having embarked their capital and invested large funds upon a monopoly and grant of privileges from their Emperor, it was impossible to disregard their interests, representations, and wishes, and to throw aside all idea of protecting them in the fur trade, which yielded a high amount of duties to the Government, and was almost the only object worthy of notice in their occupation of the northwest coast of America. The imperial ministry,

therefore, deemed it advisable, and had come to the conclusion to postpone their decisive answer upon the proposal of the American Government, until the arrival, next season, of Governor Wrangel, who was an able and experienced officer, confided in by his Government, and possessed and would bring with him and disclose all the information necessary to a correct understanding of the subject, and of the interests of Russia as well as of the Fur Company.

Inasmuch as it seemed to me, by the language of your instructions, that you preferred an indefinite revival of the 4th article, I drew up to that effect the form of a treaty, following as a precedent the articles of our convention with England of the 6th of August, 1827, which I submitted to, and, at his desire, left in the possession of Count Nesselrode. A copy is herewith transmitted.

At the close of the conference I requested Count Nesselrode to give me his reply in writing. He acquiesced, and accordingly sent me his official note, dated on the 28th ultimo, (old style,) and a copy of which I have also the honor to enclose to you.

During our conference I did not feel myself authorized to call the attention of the imperial minister to what might, or probably would, be the construction by the Government of the United States upon the treaty, with the 4th article extinct; nor what rule of the law of nations would be considered as applicable to the case, and controlling the trade upon a wild and extensive American coast of a great and open ocean, and still, with the exception of a very few posts at a vast distance from each other, in the rightful occupancy of the natives, and to which, I believe, the sovereignty of Russia has not yet, in any treaty or convention, been admitted. I found, also, upon turning to the treaty of 1825 between Russia and Great Britain, subsequent to writing my note of the 1st [13th] of last month to Count Nesselrode, that my reference therein to the 1st and 11th articles of our treaty of the 6th [18th] of December, 1832, with this country, had no bearing upon, and was inapplicable to the question I was then discussing; because the stipulations in their treaty with Great Britain, similar to that contained in our 4th article, were likewise limited to ten years, and had expired in February last. At the interview on Monday last I gave this explanation to Count Nesselrode, who answered my observations by saying that England had not yet applied for a revival of the mutual privilege, and if it should be agreed to with that Power, would, of course, and of right by treaty stipulation, be immediately given to the United States.

As the answer I have received is of a positive character, and cannot be evaded by me, it in reality postpones this question until late in next summer—in all probability until the autumn—because the voyage is one of several months, and Governor Wrangel will not leave the northwest coast until the opening of the navigation next season. * * * *

You will remark that Count Nesselrode, in his answer to me of the 28th ultimo, (old style,) also postpones the adoption of any new regulations for the northwest coast, which you supposed might be issued in consequence of the expiration of the fourth article, until the acquisition by the Minister of Finance of the information expected to be derived from Governor Wrangel.

Although I know not what policy may be pursued, or whether any new regulations will be adopted by the Government of the United States,

yet I deem it to be my duty to communicate to you whatever little information I may have obtained in regard to this subject. * * * *

I have obtained and enclose to you the two following documents :

The one, a copy in Russian, with an English translation, of the prolongation of the charter (originally granted in 1799) of the Russian-American Fur Company, dated on the 13th of September, 1821, and marked A.

The other, a copy also in Russian, with an English translation, of the by-laws of that company, allowed by the Directing Senate, and dated on the 19th of September, 1821, marked B.

I have not thought it necessary to send you a copy of the edict which preceded those two papers, issued on the 4th of September, 1821, by the late Emperor Alexander, establishing the boundaries and regulating the commercial navigation on the northwest coast, and which gave rise, in 1822, to the correspondence between Mr. Adams and Mr. Poletica, because I find it published in volume 8 of State Papers, 1st session of the 17th Congress.

You will, sir, readily perceive that the Russian-American Fur Company are not likely to be governed by high political considerations or disinterested national views. The objects which alone exercise an influence over their proceedings are, exclusive privileges, gain in the traffic upon the coast, and a prevention of all commercial competition. Their claim to these favors from their Government rests upon the assumption of the many advantages to Russia derived from the trade with the north of China; the introduction of a great amount of the necessary article of furs into the empire; the duties paid thereon into the imperial treasury, and the profits upon the stock, held entirely by Russians, at the head of whom stands the Emperor himself as a shareholder.

The company are resolved upon the exclusive monopoly; and upon the trial of the issue, whether they shall retain it or not, you will find Governor Wrangel a very partial witness, whose interested testimony will strengthen and increase the indisposition of the company, at all events, to a revival of the stipulations of the fourth article. He is a captain in the Russian navy, but holds his appointment of governor upon the northwest coast, and receives his salary of thirty thousand roubles from the Fur Company; and he will be disposed to view the matter as his employers view it, merely as a question of which party shall have the greater advantage in the trade of the country.

In a political point of view the Russian possessions upon the American coast are not considered, in this capital, as of any importance. The only way in which you can avert collision and difficulties there, will be to throw the entire coast open to the fair commercial competition of the three Powers—the United States, England, and Russia. Each strives for the trade, and each is jealous of the other. Let the most enterprising and intelligent carry off the profits.

The Russians are not at all liked by the native Indians—the Americans are greatly preferred.

I am informed that our vessels generally trade between latitudes 50° and 57°, and occasionally go still farther north. The English are always to be found on the coast; have trading-posts established along it, some of which are south of latitude 54° 40'.

The principal establishments of the Russians are called Sitkha and New

Archangel, towns situated upon adjacent islands of their respective names, off Norfolk sound, and in latitude 57° north. Archangel is their chief place, where they keep up a garrison (established in 1800) of about seven hundred men. They have other trading-posts, and two or three small garrisons, between Behring's straits and Sitkha. In the winter season, when their people are all collected at the posts upon the coast, they amount to about two thousand. They now build vessels upon the coast, and are increasing the number. Last year they had four or five ships, of a burden of from one hundred and seventy-five to two hundred and fifty tons, and seven or eight sloops or smaller vessels, of about one hundred tons each.

I have the honor to be, sir, with high respect, your obedient servant,
WM. WILKINS.

HON. JOHN FORSYTH,
Secretary of State.

[Documents annexed to despatch No. 16.]

No. 1.

A convention renewing indefinitely the fourth article of the treaty of the 5th [17th] of April, 1824, between the United States of America and the Emperor of all the Russias.

IN THE NAME OF THE MOST HOLY AND INDIVISIBLE TRINITY.

The United States of America and his Imperial Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, being equally desirous to prevent, as far as possible, all hazard of any misunderstanding in the intercourse between their respective citizens and subjects upon the northwest coast of America, and also with a view to renew the amicable and mutually beneficial privileges secured by the fourth article of the treaty of the 5th [17th] of April, 1824, whilst it was in force, have, for these purposes, respectively named their plenipotentiaries, to wit: the President of the United States of America,

, and his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias,

, who, after having communicated to each other their respective full powers, found in good and due form, have agreed upon and concluded the following articles:

ART. 1. The provisions of the fourth article of the convention concluded between the United States of America and his Imperial Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, on the 5th [17th] of April, 1824, shall be, and they are hereby, renewed and indefinitely extended and continued in force, in the same manner as if all the provisions of the said article were herein specifically recited.

ART. 2. It shall be competent, however, to either of the high contracting parties, in case either should think fit, at any time after the first day of January, 1837, on giving due notice of twelve months to the other party, to annul and abrogate this convention; and it shall, in such case, be accordingly entirely annulled and abrogated, after the expiration of the said term of notice.

ART. 3. Nothing herein contained shall be construed to impair, or in any manner affect, further than is expressly declared above, any of the provisions or stipulations contained in the aforesaid convention of the 5th [17th] of April, 1824.

ART. 4. This present convention shall be ratified by the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate of the said States, and by his Imperial Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias; and the ratifications shall be exchanged at the city of Washington, within six months from the date hereof, or sooner if possible.

In faith whereof, we, the respective plenipotentiaries, have signed the same, and have hereto affixed the seals of our arms.

Done at the city of St. Petersburg, the _____ in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and thirty-five.

No. 2.

Count Nesselrode to Mr. Wilkins.

ST. PETERSBOURG, le 28 Novembre, 1835.

Le Gouvernement Impérial, ayant pris en considération la proposition de celui des Etats Unis de renouveler l'article 4 de la convention du 5 [17] Avril, 1824, a dû se convaincre qu'il lui serait impossible de se prononcer à cet égard, avant d'avoir recueilli sur les lieux mêmes, où il s'agirait de remettre en vigueur le dit article 4 des renseignemens qui lui permettent de juger de l'opportunité d'une semblable mesure. Mais ce n'est que vers le printems prochain que le Gouvernement Impérial peut espérer d'obtenir ces renseignemens par le retour de quelques-uns de ses fonctionnaires, qu'un long séjour sur la côte nord-ouest de l'Amérique a mis à même de connaître les intérêts et les besoins des établissemens Russes dans ces contrées, ainsi que l'influence qu'a exercée jusqu'à présent sur leur prospérité l'état de choses consacré par l'article 4. Le soussigné a donc l'honneur d'informer Monsieur Wilkins, envoyé extraordinaire et ministre plenipotentiaire des Etats Unis d'Amérique, que le Gouvernement Impérial croit devoir ajourner jusqu'à la même époque l'examen ultérieur de sa proposition; et il se flatte que ce délai paraîtra suffisamment justifié par le désir de ne décider qu'avec une entière connaissance de cause des questions qui sont, par leur objet, si intimement liées aux relations de bonne intelligence subsistant entre les deux Gouvernemens.

Ce n'est aussi qu'au printems prochain que le Ministère des Finances pourra avoir une connaissance exacte des mesures qui peuvent avoir été adoptées par les autorités locales dans les colonies de la côte nord-ouest, ou qu'il sera nécessaire d'y prendre à la suite de l'expiration de l'article 4; et le soussigné s'empressera alors d'en faire part à M. Wilkins.

Il le prie de recevoir l'assurance de sa considération très distinguée.

NESSELRODE.

M. WILKINS, &c.

Count Nesselrode to Mr. Wilkins.

[Translation.]

ST. PETERSBURG, *November 28*, 1835.

The Imperial Government, having taken into consideration the proposition made by that of the United States to renew the 4th article of the convention of 5th [17th] of April, 1824, has been convinced that it was impossible to pronounce upon that subject until information had been received from the places where the said article would be enforced, sufficient to authorize an opinion upon the propriety of such a measure. The Imperial Government cannot, however, expect to receive such information until towards next spring, when it may be obtained from some of its officers, whom a long residence on the northwest coast of America has enabled to become well acquainted with the interests and the wants of the Russian establishments in those countries, as well as the influence already exercised upon their prosperity by the provisions of the said 4th article. The undersigned has, therefore, the honor to inform Mr. Wilkins, the envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of the United States of America, that the Imperial Government thinks it proper to defer, until that period, the ulterior examination of his proposition; and he flatters himself that this delay will appear to be sufficiently justified by the desire of giving no decision until the questions at issue, which are so intimately connected with the relations of good understanding between the two countries, have been completely investigated.

Neither can the Minister of Finance obtain, before next spring, exact knowledge of the measures which may have been adopted by the local authorities in the colonies on the northwest coast, or which it may be necessary to adopt in consequence of the expiration of the 4th article. The undersigned will then hasten to inform Mr. Wilkins respecting them. He, in the mean time, begs him to accept the assurance of his most distinguished consideration.

NESSELRODE.

WM. WILKINS, Esq.

Mr. Clay to Mr. Forsyth.—(Extract.)

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,

St. Petersburg, August 21, [September 2,] 1835.

You will perhaps recollect, sir, that Count Nesselrode, in his note to Mr. Wilkins of the 28th November, [11th December,] 1835, informed him that the Imperial Government thought it ought to adjourn the examination of the proposal made by the United States, to renew the fourth article of the treaty of the 5th [17th] April, 1824, until the return of some of its officers from the northwest coast of America. Baron Wrangel, who has filled the office of Governor of the Russian possessions in North America, arrived in St. Petersburg a few weeks ago; but I do not feel

myself authorized to say a word to Count Nesselrode upon the subject of the renewal of the article, as I have received no instructions from the Department of State to continue the negotiation; and, particularly, as the receipt of my despatch No. 3, in which I mentioned the subject, and stated the difficulties that attend it, was acknowledged without comment by the Department, or any instructions in reference to its contents.

I have the honor to be, sir, your obedient servant,

J. RANDOLPH CLAY.

HON. JOHN FORSYTH,
Secretary of State.

Mr. Dallas to Mr. Forsyth.—(Extract.)

LONDON, June 27, 1837,

12, Devonshire street, Portland Place.

SIR: On the 23d instant, I had the honor to receive, through the office of the American legation here, your despatch No. 3, with its accompanying documents, relating to the interference of certain Russian authorities on the northwest coast of America, with the voyage of Captain Blinn, commanding the brig "Loriot."

Availing myself of the opportunity furnished by my visit to this city, I have anxiously searched for charts, maps, or books, delineating Forrester's island, and the other places to which our consul in the Sandwich islands, and Captain Blinn in his protest, have particularly referred. My inquiries are as yet unsuccessful. The described latitude and longitude would designate with adequate precision a small island, traced, though without a name, on one of the maps I have purchased, as about one hundred and fifty miles west of the continental coast, directly east of Dixon's channel, and more than three hundred miles northeast of the Queen Charlotte's isles. I yet hope to obtain the means of certain and precise information.

* * * * *

Sir, your most obedient servant,

G. M. DALLAS.

HON. JOHN FORSYTH,
Secretary of State.

Mr. Dallas to Mr. Forsyth.—(Extract.)

ST. PETERSBURG, August 16, 1837.

Among the special duties assigned to me in the instructions from the Department are those relating to the renewal of the 4th article of the treaty of 1824, by your despatch No. 2, and those arising out of the case of the American brig Loriot, Richard D. Blinn master, by your despatch No. 3. I have been anxious to address myself to the imperial ministry on both these subjects, the mutual connexion of which is apparent: but anticipating, at the outset, much difficulty in accomplishing any purpose opposed to the Fur Company, prudence impels me to acquire, if possible, with more

accuracy than I now possess it, information as to the extent of the Russian establishments on the northwestern coast, and the periods of their respective commencements. My efforts in London to ascertain the positions of the two harbors referred to by Captain Blinn, (Tuckessan and Tateskey,) and their real character, were abortive; the geographer on whom I principally relied, writing to me, the evening before I left the British metropolis, that his searches proved unproductive. An inquiry, to be cautiously conducted, has been set on foot since my arrival here, in the hope that some of the officers of the Russian navy, or some communicative member of the Fur Company itself, may possess the facts I want, and may enable me to move with less doubt and less danger of mistake. Although from the language of Captain Blinn's protest, I am led to believe that Russian establishments have been made at the places where he experienced the interference of which he complains, it would not seem politic to begin the negotiation by an admission, which, though it might leave the unfriendliness of the proceeding for comment, must weaken, if not wholly destroy, his claim for redress. As soon as the inquiry instituted shall either succeed or fail, the subject will be opened to Count Nesselrode, and I cannot anticipate more than one or two weeks of additional delay.

Permit me, while on this topic, to remark that I cannot help foreseeing some perplexity from the construction which will be urged by the Russian ministry for the treaty of the 17th of April, 1824. The *first* article asserts for both countries general and permanent rights of navigation, fishing, and trading with the natives upon points not occupied by either, north or south of the agreed parallel of latitude, subject to enumerated restrictions, among which is the *fourth article*, limiting, as it would seem, the exercise of certain of these very rights to a term of ten years. Our negotiator, Mr. Middleton, as he explained in a subsequent despatch to the Department of State, contemplated no abandonment of these rights, either in principle or as a compromise, in the present or future time, but on the contrary, repelled a clause proposed to him expressly for that purpose, and regarded the fourth article as enlarging, not restricting, the privileges provided for in the first. My conviction, however, arising from the language of the Russian precautionary record, or protocol, (which Mr. Middleton rather avoided than rejected,) is, that Count Nesselrode will deem himself and Mr. Poletica to have attained by this fourth article, though with the use of other words, the substance of the clause to which Mr. Middleton objected, and that he will consider both Governments to have buried all controversy about the rights incident to the prior discovery of savage and unoccupied lands, and to have consented that, at the expiration of the ten years, the United States should be esteemed to possess in full domain the coast and islands to the south and Russia the coast and islands to the north of 54° 40' north latitude. He may ask, and with some plausibility, with what other object the fourth article was framed; it uses no phraseology tantamount to "*establishments*" or "*settlements*" or "*points already occupied,*" but protects from any hindrance for ten years only the power to frequent the interior seas, gulfs, harbors, and creeks upon the coast, for the purpose of fishing, and trading with the natives; a power already duly enunciated, *without limit of time*, for both countries, by the first article; and if it was not intended mutually to yield the power in relation to the sections divided by the parallel of latitude at the expiration of the term, why disturb the operation of the first article at all? A close analysis of

the negotiation of 1824 may possibly dispel these suggestions, or it will give me pleasure to find my apprehensions removed by the candor of the Vice Chancellor; and at all events I shall never acquiesce, until instructed to do so by you, in a construction so opposite to the intentions of Mr. Middleton, and so conclusive as to all further claim of the United States.

Mr. Dallas to Mr. Forsyth.—(Extract.)

ST. PETERSBURG, *September 8, 1837.*

Since my last, dated the 16th of August, and sent by the courier of the English legation, I have addressed to Count Nesselrode the communication of which a copy is annexed.

The result of my inquiries on the subject, was a confident assurance, from a source entitled to reliance, that no Russian settlements had yet been made at the harbors of Tuckessan and Tateskey, on the northwestern coast of America, mentioned by Captain Blinn as the points where his voyage was impeded, and finally frustrated. If this information prove correct, the conduct of the Russian officers towards the American brig Lorient, indicates a foregone conclusion; and the imperial ministry, impelled by the Fur Company, may be expected to assert an exclusive territorial jurisdiction north of the parallel of latitude fixed by the treaty of 1824. Hence I deemed it right, in the letter to the Vice Chancellor, briefly to recapitulate the substance of that treaty, to characterize the different natures of its first and fourth articles; and to regard the treatment experienced by Captain Blinn, not merely as unfriendly, but as so obviously inconsistent with our national rights, as to render it impossible for me to suppose it warranted or sanctioned by this Government. By such a course I hoped to convey, in the plainest and strongest manner, our sense of the construction of the treaty, without intimating the possibility of any other, and to leave no mode of avoiding the claim for redress, except by a resort to what I cannot anticipate—the allegation of the existence of Russian establishments at Tuckessan and Tateskey. Even under that condition of things, the orders to Captain Blinn were harsh and inhospitable, may be made matter of serious remonstrance, and will present just the sort of occasion heretofore wanted, for pressing the expediency of renewing the fourth article of the treaty.

AMERICAN LEGATION, *August 15, [27,] 1837.*

The undersigned, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of the United States of America, has the honor, very respectfully, to invite the attention of his excellency the Vice Chancellor of the empire to the following subject, specially given to him in charge, as calling for an early submission to the consideration of the imperial Government.

It will doubtless be remembered that, by the perpetual convention of the 5th [17th] of April, 1824, signed by his excellency Count Nesselrode and Mr. Poletica, on behalf of Russia, and by Mr. Henry Middleton, on behalf of the United States, it was agreed that in any part of the great ocean, commonly called the Pacific ocean, or South sea, the respective citizens or subjects of the high contracting Powers, should be neither dis-

turbed, nor restrained, either in navigation or in fishing, or in the power of resorting to the coasts, upon points which may not already have been occupied, for the purpose of trading with the natives; that, to prevent the rights of navigation and of fishing, exercised upon the great ocean, from becoming the pretext for an illicit trade, the citizens or subjects of either country should not resort, without permission, to any establishment of the other; and that there should not be formed to the north of fifty-four degrees and forty minutes of north latitude, by the citizens of the United States, nor south of that parallel, by Russian subjects, any establishment upon the northwest coast of America. It was declared by the fourth article to be understood, that during a term of years, counting from the signature of the convention, the ships of both countries, respectively, might reciprocally frequent, without any hindrance whatever, the interior seas, gulfs, harbors, and creeks upon the said coast, for the purpose of fishing and trading with the natives.

The permanent powers to navigate, to fish, and to resort to the coasts upon unoccupied points in order to trade with the natives, thus mutually recognised in a spirit of forecasting friendship, which removes by explicit assurances every possible cause of collision or jealousy, and has always characterized the relations and intercourse of the two Governments, would seem to be unequivocally distinct and precise. It is to a vague and perverted condition of things, consequent in a great degree upon the expiration of the temporary provision of the fourth article, much rather than to any inimical national policy, that the undersigned imputes the incident so detrimental to the interest of an American citizen, and so incompatible with the rights of his country, which is now submitted to the just and candid consideration of his excellency Count Nesselrode.

On the 22d of August, 1836, (N. S.) the American brig "Loriot," of ninety-two tons, Richard D. Blinn master, sailed from the port of Oahu, in the Sandwich islands, bound to the northwest coast of America, to procure provisions and Indians for hunting sea otter: she made the land called Forrester's island on the 14th of September, and anchored in the harbor of Tuckessan, yet distinguished by no establishment, in latitude $54^{\circ} 55'$ north and longitude $132^{\circ} 30'$ west.

About four days afterwards, an armed brig of his Imperial Majesty's navy went into a neighboring harbor, also unoccupied, called Tateskey, latitude $54^{\circ} 45'$ north and longitude $132^{\circ} 55'$ west, and on the succeeding day officers from that vessel boarded the Loriot and ordered Captain Blinn to leave the alleged dominions of Russia.

The American master, to explain and to remonstrate, repaired to the Russian brig, but the same orders were then peremptorily repeated to him by its commander, and reiterated on two subsequent days.

Armed boats were sent to the Loriot on the 25th of September, and she was then directed to get under way and sail for the harbor of Tateskey.

Captain Blinn, however, still remaining with the hope of being ultimately allowed to prosecute his voyage, on the 27th of September the same Russian armed boats again boarded, and compelled his vessel to proceed as indicated.

While hove-to off the harbor of Tateskey, the weather becoming threatening, the American master asked permission to enter the haven, which was refused by the Russian commander, with a renewal of orders to quit the waters of his Imperial Majesty.

Finally, Captain Blinn, prevented by this interference of Russian force from procuring necessary supplies for his vessel and from obtaining natives for hunting sea otter, was obliged to abandon a voyage from which he had anticipated the most lucrative results, and return to the Sandwich islands, where he arrived on the 1st of November following.

The undersigned is unwilling to make to his excellency Count Nesselrode the remarks naturally suggested by this brief statement of facts, (whose authenticity he cannot doubt,) until every reasonable and just opportunity shall have been given to the Russian officers implicated, to temper, if possible, their harshness by explanation. His firm confidence in the dispositions heretofore expressed and manifested towards his country precludes his supposing for one moment that a proceeding so unfriendly in its nature and circumstances, and so inconsistent with the rights of American citizens immemorably exercised and secured by the laws of nations as well as by the stipulations of the first article of the treaty of 1824, was authorized by his Imperial Majesty's Government or can receive its sanction.

Nevertheless it is made the duty of the undersigned earnestly and most respectfully to remonstrate against such an unwarranted aggression by persons enjoying the character and using the means of agents in the Russian service, and to claim, as he now does, from his Imperial Majesty's Government, for the losses and damages sustained by the owner of the brig Lorient, such indemnification as may, on an investigation of the case, be found justly their due.

In the sincere hope that an early and happy adjustment of this business may arrest its tendency to excite unkindness of feeling between the citizens and subjects of the two countries, the undersigned avails himself of the occasion to renew to his excellency Count Nesselrode the assurances of his most distinguished consideration.

G. M. DALLAS.

To his Excellency COUNT NESSELRODE,
Vice Chancellor of the Empire, &c.

Mr. Dallas to Mr. Forsyth.—(Extract.)

ST. PETERSBURG, *December 25, 1837.*

I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your despatch No. 4, dated 3d of November, 1837, which reached me by the ordinary post from Hamburg, through Berlin, on the 12th instant. Its clear and impressive views of the convention of 1824 will, of course, fix my attention, and guide whatever it may hereafter be my duty to say in relation to the construction or renewal of the expired article.

Mr. Dallas to Mr. Forsyth.—(Extract.)

ST. PETERSBURG, *January 14, 1838.*

On the 27th of December last, I received an official notification from Count Nesselrode of his having resumed the bureau of Foreign Affairs, and of his desiring to renew his intercourse with the diplomatic body. On the following morning I sent him a communication, formally propo-

sing to renew, for an indefinite period, the 4th article of the convention of April, 1824, intimating, at its commencement, my anxiety for an answer to the claim of Captain Richard D. Blinn, made in August. A copy of this communication is annexed.

On the night of the 29th of December the justly celebrated winter palace of the Emperor took fire, and was wholly destroyed; and presuming that this disastrous event might cause some extra bustle and embarrassment among all the high officers, I waited, impatiently, until the 9th of January, when, being still without any sort of reply from the Vice Chancellor, I addressed him a short note, requesting a personal interview at as early a period as would be convenient to him. On the next day he apprized me that he should be pleased to receive me at half-past two o'clock on Friday, the 12th. I accordingly waited upon him at the time appointed: and although my own object was single and obvious, to press for early answers to my communications, and though, strictly speaking, our conversation had an official character that far only, it may be useful, as it will not be tedious, to repeat all that occurred.

The Count welcomed me to his chancery with the kindness for which his manners are distinguished. When the ordinary salutations and inquiries about personal health were concluded, I told him that my sole purpose in asking the interview was, to request him to inform me whether I might hope to have, in a short time, his replies to my two letters. I observed, that I had now been in Russia six months, and, owing to his protracted absence during five of these months from his office, had been unable to transact any of the business confided to my attention by my Government; that I wished to transmit to the United States, with as little further delay as possible, some satisfactory account of the intentions and views of the imperial ministry upon the two matters I had submitted for consideration, and, especially, upon the topic of the expired 4th article of the convention; that our National Legislature was in session, but might not remain so as long as usual, perhaps not beyond the month of April next; and that it was an object with me to communicate to the President, on a point esteemed of so much interest to the commerce and amity of the two countries, whatever might emanate from the imperial cabinet early enough to enable him, if deemed necessary and proper, to lay the matter before Congress: and this, the more especially, as he may have noticed that the Chief Magistrate, in his message of the 5th of December last, anticipated an *early* as well as a just decision on the few subjects pending between Russia and America. The Count assured me that he appreciated my solicitude, and would relieve it as early as he possibly could; that my first communication, relating to the complaint of Captain Blinn, having been received at the department during his absence in attendance upon the Emperor at Wosnesensk, Mr. Rodofinickine had immediately undertaken to procure information as to the facts, and when that was obtained, which he hoped would be before long, he would hasten to write to me on the subject; that, to my second communication, relating to the 4th article of the convention, he could, with some certainty, promise an early answer, and had no doubt of being able to send one in the course of all January. The Vice Chancellor avoided conveying any idea as to what might be the nature of his reply in either case; and it was no part of my purpose to press any such sudden disclosure.

Mr. Dallas to Count Nesselrode.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA,
St. Petersburg, December 16, [28.] 1837.

The undersigned, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of the United States of America, while anxiously awaiting the notice which it may please his excellency the Vice Chancellor of the empire to give to his communication of the 16th [28th] of August, respecting the interference of certain Russian officers, on the northwest coast of America, with the voyage of Captain D. Blinn, respectfully invites the renewed attention of the Imperial Government to a kindred subject, heretofore partially discussed.

It will, doubtless, be recollected that Baron Krudener, then representing his Imperial Majesty at Washington, under date of the 19th [31st] of May, 1835, reminded the American Executive of the expiration of the 4th article of the convention of the 5th [17th] of April, 1824; and at the same time adverted, as to a step immediately consequent upon that expiration, to a proceeding of Captain Baron de Wrangel, Governor of the Russian-American colonies, towards some trading vessels belonging to citizens of the United States.

The predecessor of the undersigned, Mr. Wilkins, was at once instructed by his Government to make to the Government of his Imperial Majesty an overture for a renewal of the stipulation referred to; and, accordingly, that gentleman, after a verbal conference with his excellency the Vice Chancellor, submitted the project of a short treaty for this purpose. The subject, first referred to the Minister of Finance, was finally postponed to the ensuing spring, with a view to obtain, as it is stated in the communication of his excellency Count Nesselrode of the 21st of November, 1835, on the arrival of agents expected from the northwest coast of America, exact information as to the interests and concerns of the Russian establishments there, and the influence on them attributable to the operation of the 4th article of the convention. Since that period the agitation of this topic, although esteemed of leading moment in the relations between the two countries, has been entirely suspended.

The undersigned is now impelled by an apprehensive sense of the condition in which the expiration of the 4th article has left the intercourse between the subjects and citizens of Russia and of the United States in those remote regions, and he cannot forbear expressing a sincere hope that it may enter into the purposes of the imperial ministry, on whose enlightened disposition to forestall and prevent all causes of collision or controversy he feels an unlimited reliance; to establish without further delay, and without limitation of time, a guaranty so beneficial to the great ends of mutual commerce, hospitality, and peace.

The undersigned renews to his excellency Count Nesselrode the assurance of his high consideration.

G. M. DALLAS.

Mr. Dallas to Mr. Forsyth.—(Extract.)

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA,
St. Petersburg, March 19, 1838.

SIR: The departure of a courier from the British legation to-morrow, enables me to forward to you copies of two notes which have recently

passed between Count Nesselrode and myself. They originate in the claim advanced on behalf of the owners of the "Loriot," agreeably to your instructions of the 4th of May, 1837. Their interest, however, is far more extensive; the demand for private indemnity being merged in a question of national right, and the interpretation of the treaty negotiated in 1834 by my predecessor, Mr. Middleton.

Count Nesselrode to Mr. Dallas.

St. PETERSBOURG, le 23 Février, 1838.

Par sa note du 15 [27] Août dernier, Monsieur Dallas, envoyé extraordinaire et ministre plénipotentiaire des États Unis d'Amérique, a bien voulu intervenir en faveur des réclamations que forme le Sieur Richard Blinn, citoyen de l'Union, commandant le brick marchand "Loriot." Il résulte de la note sus-mentionnée, qu'en 1836 ce navire, ayant fait voile pour la côte nord-ouest de l'Amérique, aborda à l'île de Forrester, au 54° 55' de latitude septentrionale, dans l'intention d'engager des indigènes pour la chasse aux coutres de mer, et qu'il fut renvoyé peu de jours après son arrivée par un brick de la Compagnie Russe-Américaine, sans avoir pu donner suite à son projet. Invoquant en sa faveur les stipulations de la convention du 5 [17] Avril, 1824, et particulièrement l'article 1 de cette convention, le Sieur Blinn élève aujourd'hui des plaintes contre la conduite du brick Russe à son égard, et demande un dédommagement pour les pertes que les propriétaires du "Loriot" ont essayées de ce chef.

Une réclamation de ce genre, appuyée par le représentant d'une puissance avec laquelle la Russie tient à cœur de cultiver les relations les plus amicales, avait droit à l'attention sérieuse du ministère impérial. Aussi s'est-il empressé de demander à la direction de la Compagnie Russe-Américaine des renseignemens détaillés sur toutes les circonstances qui ont accompagné le fait précité, afin de pouvoir l'examiner avec une entière connaissance de cause. Ces renseignemens ne sont point encore parvenus au ministère impérial, la Compagnie Russe-Américaine n'ayant reçu jusqu'à présent aucun rapport spécial concernant le renvoi du "Loriot." Toutefois, il résulte des circonstances mêmes que Monsieur Dallas a rapportées dans sa note, ainsi que d'une déposition de l'un des officiers récemment révenus de ces contrées, qu'en signifiant au Sieur Richard Blinn de quitter les parages où il se trouvait, le commandant du brick Russe n'a fait que se conformer aux instructions dont il a été muni à la suite de l'expiration de l'article 4 de la convention.

En examinant les stipulations de cette convention dans cet esprit d'équité qui le distingue, Monsieur Dallas voudra bien se convaincre que le Gouvernement Impérial ne saurait reconnaître la justesse des plaintes du Sieur Blinn.

Il est vrai que l'article 1 de la convention de 1824 invoquée par les propriétaires du "Loriot," stipulait en faveur des citoyens de l'Union une entière liberté de navigation dans l'Océan Pacifique, ainsi que le droit d'aborder sans entraves à tous les points de la côte nord-ouest de l'Amérique qui n'auraient pas déjà été occupés, et d'y faire le commerce avec les indigènes. Mais cette liberté de navigation est soumise à certaines conditions et restrictions; et l'un de ces restrictions est celle que stipule l'article 4, qui a nommément limité à un terme de dix années pour les citoyens de

l'Union le droit de fréquenter sans entraves les mers intérieures, les golfes, hâvres, et criques au nord du 54° 40' de latitude. Or ce terme était expiré depuis plus de deux ans à l'époque où le "Loriot" vint jeter l'ancre dans l'hâvre du Tuckessan. En 1835, le ministre de l'Empereur aux Etats Unis avait reçu l'ordre d'appeler expressément l'attention du cabinet de Washington sur l'expiration de ce terme ; et par suite de la note officielle que le Baron de Krudener avait adressée à ce sujet au Secrétaire d'Etat, le Gouvernement des Etats Unis fit faire dans le journal de Washington une publication, portant que le terme de dix ans étant expiré au mois d'Avril, 1834, "le Gouverneur des colonies Russes avait formellement averti les commandans des bâtimens Américains qui se trouvaient dans ces parages, qu'ils ne pourraient plus réclamer, par suite de la convention, le droit d'aborder sans distinction dans tous les hâvres appartenant à la Russie sur cette côte."

Si, donc, malgré un avertissement aussi formel, et que le Gouvernement des Etats Unis a bien voulu concourir lui-même à porter à la connaissance des citoyens de l'Union, les propriétaires du "Loriot" ont tenté une expédition vers des côtes où depuis deux ans il lui était interdit d'aborder, il semble qu'ils ne peuvent s'attribuer qu'à eux-mêmes le mauvais succès de cette entreprise, et que le Gouvernement Impérial ne saurait admettre leurs réclamations, ni leur reconnaître des titres à un dédommagement.

En communiquant ces observations à Monsieur Dallas, le soussigné aime à croire qu'il voudra bien en reconnaître la justesse, et les faire apprécier de même par son Gouvernement. C'est dans cet espoir qu'il prie Monsieur l'Envoyé des Etats Unis d'agréer l'assurance de sa considération très distinguée.

NESSELRODE.

M. DALLAS, &c.

Count Nesselrode to Mr. Dallas.

[Translation.]

ST. PETERSBURG, February 23, 1838.

Mr. Dallas, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of the United States of America, by his note of the 15th [27th] of August last, has thought proper to interpose in behalf of the claims preferred by Richard Blinn, a citizen of the United States, and master of the merchant brig Loriot. It appears, from the above-mentioned note, that in 1836 this vessel, having sailed for the northwest coast of America, arrived at Forrester's island, in latitude of 54 degrees 55 minutes north, with the intention of employing the natives in hunting for sea-otters, and that a few days after his arrival he was ordered off by a brig of the Russian-American Company, without having been able to pursue his project. Mr. Blinn, in virtue of the stipulations of the convention of the 5th [17th] of April, 1824, and especially of the 1st article of that convention, now prefers complaints against the conduct of the Russian brig towards him, and asks indemnification for the losses sustained in consequence by the proprietors of the Loriot.

A claim of this nature—presented, too, by the representative of a Power

with which Russia is anxious to cultivate the most friendly relations—demanded the most serious attention on the part of the imperial ministry. The Russian-American Company was accordingly asked, without delay, for minute information respecting all the circumstances connected with the above-mentioned fact, in order that it might be examined with an entire knowledge of the affair. This information has not yet reached the imperial ministry, as the Russian-American Company has not, to this moment, received any special report concerning the ordering off of the Lorient. It appears, however, from the circumstances as stated in the very note of Mr. Dallas, as well as from a deposition made by one of the officers recently returned from those countries, that, in notifying Mr. Richard Blinn to quit the shores where he was, the commander of the Russian brig did nothing more than conform with the instructions given to him at the expiration of the 4th article of the convention.

By examining the stipulations of that convention with the spirit of equity which marks the character of Mr. Dallas, he will be convinced that the Imperial Government cannot acknowledge the justice of the complaints of Mr. Blinn.

It is true, indeed, that the 1st article of the convention of 1824, to which the proprietors of the Lorient appeal, secures to the citizens of the United States entire liberty of navigation in the Pacific ocean, as well as the right of landing without disturbance upon all points on the northwest coast of America not already occupied, and to trade with the natives. But this liberty of navigation is subject to certain conditions and restrictions; and one of these restrictions is that stipulated by the 4th article, which has specially limited to the period of ten years the right on the part of the citizens of the United States to frequent, without disturbance, the interior seas, the gulfs, harbors, and creeks north of the latitude of 54 degrees 40 minutes. Now this period had expired more than two years before the Lorient anchored in the harbor of Tuckessan.

In 1835 the Emperor's minister in the United States had received orders to call the attention of the cabinet of Washington expressly to the circumstance of the expiration of this period; and in consequence of the official note addressed on this subject by Baron Krudener to the Secretary of State, the Government of the United States caused to be published in the Washington newspaper a statement, that, as the period of ten years had expired on the 4th of April, 1834, "the Governor of the Russian colonies had formally notified the commanders of American vessels in that quarter that they could no longer claim, under the convention, the right of landing, without distinction, at all the harbors belonging to Russia upon this coast."

If, then, notwithstanding so formal a warning, which the Government of the United States had itself aided in conveying to the knowledge of the citizens of the Union, the owners of the Lorient ventured upon an expedition to coasts where they had for two years been interdicted from landing, it appears that they should attribute only to themselves the ill success of this enterprise, and that the Imperial Government cannot admit their claims, nor acknowledge their titles to indemnification. In communicating these observations to Mr. Dallas, the undersigned flatters himself with the belief that he will admit the justice of them, and cause them to be viewed in the same light by his Government.

In this hope, he prays the envoy to accept the assurance of his very distinguished consideration.

NESSELRODE.

To G. M. DALLAS, Esq.

Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.

Mr. Dallas to Count Nesselrode.

ST. PETERSBURG, March 5, [17,] 1838.

The undersigned, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of the United States of America, had the honor to receive the answer of his excellency Count Nesselrode, Vice Chancellor of the empire, dated the 23d February, 1838, to the communication which the undersigned, conformably to the special charge of his Government, addressed to his excellency on the 15th [27th] of August, 1837, in relation to the interference of certain of his Imperial Majesty's armed forces with the merchant brig "Loriot," owned and commanded by citizens of the United States, and prosecuting a trading voyage to the northwest coast of America.

The remoteness of the regions where the incidents occurred which constitute the foundation of the reclamation on behalf of the parties injured, and the known difficulty of obtaining circumstantial details of any event in that quarter, connected with the assurance of his excellency that the imperial ministry had given the subject its serious attention, must have engaged the undersigned to protracted silence, under the conviction that every thing which the justice of the case required would ultimately be attained. The note, however, of his excellency, if accurately understood, dispenses with the necessity of additional information, and, adopting the statement of facts derived by the American Government from its citizens, would seem to remove all motive for further delay. An early notice, therefore, of the grounds upon which a recognition of the claims has been declined, is impelled alike by a profound respect for the source from whence they emanate, and by a sense of the peculiar importance with which they bear upon the relations and interests of the two countries.

The light in which the President of the United States regarded the treatment of Captain Blinn precluded the possibility of his supposing it warranted by the public authorities of Russia. He will hear, with painful surprise, that the subordinate by whom that treatment was inflicted did but obey the instructions with which he had been furnished, in consequence of the expiration of the fourth article of the convention of 1824. It will be recollected that, more than two and a half years ago, the American Secretary of State, Mr. Forsyth, in a letter of the 21st of July, 1835, addressed to his Imperial Majesty's minister then at Washington, the Baron de Krudener, expressed a wish to receive, as early as practicable, precise information of the measures his Imperial Majesty's Government had adopted, or proposed to adopt, in relation to the admission of American vessels into the harbors, bays, and rivers of the Russian settlements on the northwest coast of the continent; that this request was reiterated by Mr. Wilkins, the predecessor of the undersigned, in a communication of November 1, 1835; and that his excellency Count Nesselrode, in answer

thereto, referring to the spring of 1836 as the earliest period at which an exact knowledge could be obtained of the measures which the local authorities had adopted, or which it would be necessary to adopt, left no room to doubt that they would then, or as soon as digested, be made known to the American Government. This information, so desirable as a basis for any corresponding measures to which the United States would have been urged by their uniform dispositions of amity towards Russia, as well as by a provident attention to the regularity and security of their own commerce, has never been imparted. Had the purport of the instruction, under which the "Loriot" was violently seized and driven from her voyage, been communicated, it could not have been allowed to work injury and loss to unoffending persons, without, at least, being first made the object of candid remonstrance or of precautionary notice; and the President of the United States, unapprized of these regulations, or of the particular points of the northwest coast on which Russian establishments were newly formed, could not but view the abrupt proceeding to which Captain Blinn was subjected, as an act, under any aspect, of the most unfriendly character. How far this sentiment will be changed or qualified by unexpectedly finding the slight on the American flag and the armed opposition to American trade to have been ordered, and to be now sanctioned by the Government of his Imperial Majesty upon the principles stated, the undersigned cannot venture to foresee.

Nor is the "informal notice," (lying before the undersigned,) published, at the repeated request of Baron de Krudener, in the Washington "Globe" of the 22d of August, 1835, to which his excellency has referred, susceptible, in the estimation of the undersigned, of a construction which can ascribe to the American Government, or any of its citizens, the knowledge that a voyage like the one contemplated by Captain Blinn was inconsistent with any colonial interdict or general pretension of the imperial authorities. Far from it. That publication, while characteristic of the frank and confiding readiness with which the American Executive proceeded to execute a wish expressed by a Power whose intercourse and relations inspire no distrust, compels, as is conceived with unfeigned deference, the opposite construction, and imports a recognition of the entire lawfulness of such a voyage. In this spirit, and in this only, was it originally framed, and has ever since, without a question, been understood by the Government and people of the United States. True, it adverts to a notice issued by the Governor of the Russian colonies after the expiration of the 4th article of the convention, to the effect that the masters of American vessels could no longer claim the right they enjoyed under that 4th article, of landing at all the landing-places, without distinction, belonging to Russia on the northwest coast. And it further proceeds to observe, to all interested in the trade, that under the second article of the same convention it is necessary for all American vessels resorting to any point where there is a Russian establishment, to obtain the permission of the Governor or commander. To the scope or phraseology of this "informal notice," it is believed, Baron de Krudener never, orally or in writing, took the slightest exception. It will surely be perceived by his excellency Count Nesselrode to contain no inhibition of trading voyages generally to the northwest coast of America; but, on the contrary, to confine its admonition expressly and precisely to "*landing-places belonging to Russia,*" and to "*any point on the coast where there is a Russian establishment.*"

Such landing-places and *such* points were alone supposed to be embraced in the notice of Governor Wrangel, and were alone designated in the publication. American voyages to *them* were no longer as unembarrassed as during the operation of the 4th article of the convention; but to all other points of that vast and wild territory, the freedom of American navigation and trade remained unimpaired. It formed no part of the purpose of Captain Blinn to visit, with or without permission, any landing-place or point distinguished by Russian occupancy or establishment; and it is therefore submitted, that even supposing him to have read the paragraph adduced, he could at least deduce from it nothing adverse to his voyage. The decision of the imperial ministry is stated by his excellency the Vice Chancellor to result from the very circumstances set forth in the note of the undersigned, as well as from the affidavit of an officer recently returned from the Russian colonies, and to be founded upon the convention of 1824. As the contents of the affidavit are not mentioned, they are presumed not to affect materially the narrative of the note, and certainly not to introduce any substantive assertion or denial adequate to give the case a totally new character, and to exact, by its own force merely, a judgment which could not be reached without it.

The remarks, therefore, which the undersigned proposes to subjoin, are necessarily restricted to the admitted allegations on behalf of Captain Blinn, in connexion with the stipulations of the treaty. If, in pursuing this course, any injustice be done to the reasoning or views of the imperial ministry, he will, on the slightest intimation, hasten to rectify it with the frankness which he esteems indispensable to the faithful discharge of his representative duty.

Avoiding a repetition of details heretofore enumerated, as well as their aggravating features, the leading facts of reclamation are, that the brig "Loriot," owned and commanded by American citizens, sailed from the Sandwich islands on the 22d of August, 1836, bound to the northwest coast, to procure provisions, and Indians for hunting sea-otter; that having made Forrester's island, she anchored in the harbor of Tuckessan, in latitude 54° 55' north; that no Russian establishment existed in that harbor; that four days afterwards, an armed brig of his Imperial Majesty's navy went into a neighboring harbor, called *Tateskey*, in latitude 54° 45' north; that no Russian establishment existed in this latter harbor; that she was boarded by officers from the armed brig, by whom her captain was first ordered to leave the dominions of Russia, and subsequently compelled to get under way and sail for the harbor of *Tateskey*; that when off the harbor of *Tateskey*, she was, in threatening weather, refused permission to enter, and peremptorily again commanded to quit the waters of his Imperial Majesty; and, finally, that owing exclusively to this interference of armed force, her voyage was abandoned, and she returned to the Sandwich islands on the 1st of November. It is this plain and brief story which the undersigned, by instruction of his Government, has termed inconsistent with the rights of American citizens, immemorially exercised and secured by the laws of nations as well as by the stipulations of the first article of the convention of 1824, and entitling the parties injured to such indemnification as might on an investigation be found justly their due.

The right of the citizens of the United States to navigate the Pacific ocean, and their right to trade with the aboriginal natives of the northwest

coast of America, without the jurisdiction of other nations, are rights which constituted a part of their independence as soon as they declared it. They are rights founded in the law of nations, enjoyed in common with all other independent sovereignties, and incapable of being abridged or extinguished except with their own consent. It is unknown to the undersigned that they have voluntarily conceded these rights, or either of them, at any time, through the agency of their Government, by treaty or other form of obligation, in favor of any community. Yet he deduces from the communication of his excellency, after having given it the careful consideration to which every act from such a source lays claim, as the only ground upon which the reclamation on behalf of Captain Blinn is resisted, the proposition that the United States, by the convention of 1824, yielded to his Imperial Majesty their right to hold commerce, on the expiration of ten years, with the aboriginal natives on the northwest coast beyond the parallel of 54° 40' north latitude. This proposition, if established, is unquestionably fatal to the pretensions of the master and owners of the "Loriot." It bears, however, an aspect so detrimental to the interests of his countrymen, and to their attributes as an independent Power; is so inconsistent with the past policy and principles of the American cabinet; and is, withal, of such minor importance to the prosperity and greatness of Russia, that the undersigned trusts its want of solid foundation will, on further reflection, be apparent and confessed.

The avowed objects of the convention between the United States and his Imperial Majesty were, "to cement the bonds of amity which unite them, and to secure between them the invariable maintenance of a perfect concord." The means of attaining these invaluable ends were embodied in its articles. There is, first, a mutual and permanent agreement, declaratory of their respective rights, without disturbance or restraint, to navigate and fish in any part of the Pacific ocean, and to resort to its coasts, upon points which may not already have been occupied, in order to trade with the natives. These rights pre-existed in each, and were not fresh liberties resulting from the stipulation. To navigate, to fish, and to coast, as described, were rights of equal certainty, springing from the same source, and attached to the same quality of nationality. Their exercise, however, was subjected to certain restrictions and conditions, to the effect that the citizens and subjects of the contracting sovereignties should not resort to points where establishments existed, without obtaining permission; that no future establishments should be formed by one party north, nor by the other party south, of 54° 40' north latitude; but that, *nevertheless*, both might, for a term of ten years, without regard to whether an establishment existed or not, without obtaining permission, without any hindrance whatever, frequent the interior seas, gulfs, harbors, and creeks, to fish, and trade with the natives. This short analysis leaves, on the question at issue, no room for construction.

The view taken by his excellency Count Nesselrode rests upon the provision last referred to, contained in the fourth article of the convention. Of this, it is essential to fix the true character. Does its limitation of ten years apply to the broad national right of resorting to unoccupied points of the coast? If it do not, the position taken is untenable. That it does not, would seem to be a conclusion of the gravest as of the lightest scrutiny.

The renunciation of a prerogative so high and important, if designed,

would not have been left to mere inference from a disjointed paragraph, but would have been distinctly expressed in immediate connexion with its first statement. No motive can possibly be assigned for permitting an intended abandonment of such a right, formally declared in the first article, to lurk unseen in the varied language of the fourth article.

The power of resorting to unoccupied points of the coast existed in perpetuity by the laws of nations, and is so enunciated in the first article. To declare it afterwards to exist for ten years would be to insert a clause idle and without effect, providing for the temporary enjoyment of what had been previously pronounced permanent. But the interpretation of every instrument must be such as will, if possible, give substance and utility to each of its parts. Applied to points of the coast already occupied, the fourth article takes effect as a temporary exception to the perpetual prohibition of the second article; and the only consequence of the expiration of the term to which it is limited is the revived and continued operation of that prohibition.

In employing, in the fourth article, the descriptive words "interior seas, gulfs, harbors, and creeks," there is a departure from the comprehensive phraseology of the first article, which is only to be explained by the fact that another idea was to be expressed.

Nor is it difficult to understand what was really meant. The bonds of amity and perfect concord, which it was so desirable to cement and invariably to maintain, would have been endangered in peculiar localities, as to which doubts might naturally arise whether they were embraced in the first or the second article. If, however, at their openings, or upon their commanding highlands, or on their shores, an occupied point or establishment existed, it was thought expedient to let them take character from that incident, without any nice measurement of its range or influence, at the expiration of ten years; and, accordingly, the fourth article, avoiding too sudden a check of the actual current of trade, put a limit of time upon the liberty to frequent such places.

The undersigned submits that in no sense can the fourth article be understood as implying an acknowledgment, on the part of the United States, of the right of Russia to the possession of the coast above the latitude of $54^{\circ} 40'$ north. It must, of course, be taken in connexion with the other articles, and they have, in fact, no reference whatever to the question of the right of possession of the unoccupied parts. To prevent future collisions, it was agreed that no new establishments should be formed by the respective parties to the north or south of the parallel mentioned; but the question of the right of possession beyond the existing establishments, as it stood previous to or at the time of the convention, was left untouched.

By agreeing not to form new establishments north of latitude $54^{\circ} 40'$, the United States made no acknowledgment of the right of Russia to the territory above that line. If such an admission had been made, Russia, by the same construction of the article referred to, must have equally acknowledged the right of the United States to the territory south of the parallel. But that Russia did not so understand the article, is conclusively proved by her having entered into a similar agreement in her subsequent treaty of 1825 with Great Britain, and having in that instrument acknowledged the right of possession of the same territory by Great Britain.

The United States can only be considered, inferentially, as having

acknowledged the right of Russia to acquire, above the designated meridian, by actual occupation, a just claim to unoccupied lands. Until that actual occupation be taken, the first article of the convention recognises the American right to navigate, fish, and trade, as prior to its negotiation.

Such is esteemed the true construction of the convention—the construction which both nations are interested in affixing, as the benefits are equal and mutual, and the great object is secured of removing the exercise of a common right from the danger of becoming a dispute about exclusive privileges.

At the hazard of proving tedious, the undersigned has thus endeavored to convey to his excellency Count Nesselrode the views suggested by his recent communication. The Government of the United States is ardent and uniform in its anxiety to cherish with that of Russia the most friendly relations. In the reciprocation of this sentiment the fullest confidence is felt. The citizens and subjects of the two countries, meeting only with feelings of cordiality, and for purposes of mutual advantage, are rapidly reaping the fruits of a wise and beneficent international policy. Every year enlarges the sphere of their commercial intercourse, discloses the identity of their interests, and strengthens their ties of amity. In the persuasion that the enlightened councils of his Imperial Majesty will join with the American authorities in every effort, consistent with the honor and rights of their respective nations, to rescue this condition of things from all danger of interruption, the undersigned earnestly invites a reconsideration of the ground upon which the claim of the owners of the Lorient has been dismissed. With a consoling hope as to the result, he begs his excellency the Vice Chancellor to accept the renewed assurances of his highest consideration.

G. M. DALLAS.

Mr. Dallas to Mr. Forsyth.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA,

St. Petersburg, April 16, 1838.

SIR: On the 21st of last month I received the answer of Count Nesselrode to the proposal made to him in my communication of the 28th of December, 1837, for the renewal of the fourth article of the convention of 1824, and I accompanied my acknowledgment of its receipt with a request for information as to the measures adopted, or proposed to be adopted, by his Imperial Majesty, respecting the admission of American vessels into the Russian establishments on the northwest coast. Copies of these two documents are annexed to this despatch. Every act of an official character is preceded by so much deliberation and delay, that I may not hope to hear further on this subject for some weeks to come.

The refusal to renew the article was far from unexpected. Although there may be much truth in the statements upon which that refusal is explained, it was foreseen that the grasping policy of the Fur Company would, in itself, be quite adequate to this result. I am unable to say how far the representation as to the extremely limited character of the American trade under the article be correct; nor how far my countrymen may

be implicated in the sale of spirituous liquors, powder, and fire-arms to the natives, in violation of the fifth article of the convention; nor whether complaints on the latter subject have or have not been made by the Russian authorities to those of the United States, invoking, in designated cases, the penalties prescribed by act of Congress. On none of these points do the archives of this legation furnish sources of information.

Nor would it, indeed, seem expedient, under any circumstances, to criticise the alleged motives for declining a revival of the expired stipulation. No consequence could follow but disagreement in relation to details, when the main point is one exclusively of discretion, is obviously decided beyond the probability of change, and that decision is communicated in the most friendly terms.

By the expiration, in April, 1834, of the ten years limited in the fourth article of the convention, and by the definitive refusal to renew it, the Imperial Government would seem to attain an important object in their northwestern colonial policy, while the United States forego, in fact, nothing but a series of vague claims calculated only to embroil and complicate the relations of the two countries. My predecessor, Mr. Middleton, by whom the convention was negotiated, conceived the article to be a mutual grant, temporary in its duration, extending to specific and particular privileges, which the traders of neither nation would enjoy as general rights. He regarded the liberty to carry on commerce, without any hindrance whatever, with the natives in the interior seas, gulfs, harbors, and creeks of the Russian settlements, as so much added to the range of our trade beyond its natural boundaries; and he anticipated that before the lapse of the term proposed, the Russian settlers would perceive the importance of our unshackled intercourse, as a sure and economical means for obtaining supplies, and would ultimately prolong it indefinitely. With these views and impressions, during the pendency of the negotiations, he originated the fourth article, which formed no part either of the project of a treaty sent to him by Mr. Adams, then Secretary of State, or of the project he submitted to Count Nesselrode at their first conference on the 9th of February, 1824.

The adoption of the article suspended for ten years the necessity of practically discriminating between such places on the northwest coast as were open to a common trade, in consequence of being savage and unoccupied, and those accessible only by permission from a local authority; in other words, there was no immediate call for agreeing and defining what should constitute an "establishment," an "occupancy," or a "settlement," so as to redeem a given spot, with its contiguous territory, from a wild state, and subject them to an exclusive jurisdiction. During the prescribed period, in this particular every thing was left at large as before. And here lies, in my opinion, the chief, if not the only, important incident of the refusal to renew the article. It will become necessary now to have some distinct understanding as to the nature and range of the act of colonizing which shall permanently vest the dominion in either nation. Without this, our commerce in that interesting quarter must be impeded and narrowed, and probably soon entirely destroyed, by the absurd pretensions of the Russian Fur Company.

The stipulated freedom to trade unmolested within the interior seas, bays, creeks, and harbors of the northwest coast, being regarded under our construction of the treaty as solely applicable to occupied places, and

having ceased upon the expiration of the ten years, it becomes essential to the safe prosecution of American enterprise and traffic in those remote regions that we should ascertain, if possible, which of the interior seas, bays, creeks, and harbors fall by actual Russian settlement under exclusive Russian dominion. Although the facts be extremely difficult to reach, and a powerful monopoly be interested and at work to misrepresent them, still something may be effected by furnishing to our citizens a rule by which to test the character and extent of any occupation whose existence is alleged as an impediment to an intended voyage. And if we cannot spare one or two of our vessels of war to make a thorough examination of that coast, as well as to assert, in defiance of petty obstacles, the national right to trade freely upon unoccupied points, we must be content, however reluctantly, to take just such statements for information as it may please the Fur Company's officers and agents to give. Supposing, then, what I do not expect, that the Imperial Government will abandon the ground it has taken in the case of Captain Blinn, and admit that we still possess the liberty of holding commerce with the natives north of the line of limitation, I shall be anxious to have your instructions as to the suggested expediency of calling frankly for an enumeration of the points on the coast at which Russian settlements are alleged to exist, and of inviting the adjustment of some definite rule by which the reality of a settlement and the extent of its adjacent operation may, at any time, be peaceably determined. If, however, the position taken in reference to Captain Blinn's claim be adhered to, these inferior inquiries cannot be made; for that position, as will be remembered, excludes our commerce, except by Russian permission, from the whole coast beyond the parallel of $54^{\circ} 40'$ north.

I should, perhaps, feel warranted in pursuing measures for this purpose without delay. The request for information as to the regulations to be enforced in relation to American vessels, made in my last note to Count Nesselrode, may be esteemed a fair preliminary. But I am anxious to know, before proceeding further, whether the decided manner in which I have treated the claim to exclusive dominion, in the affair of the "Loriot," be approved or not; and whether the right, by the laws of nations, to trade with the natives on unoccupied parts of the coast, be esteemed so certain and so important that it will be insisted on, even at the hazard of interrupting the amicable relations of the two countries. I wish to shape my progress so as to harmonize in every movement as nearly as possible with whichever alternative, inflexibility or concession, the President may esteem the highest and truest policy.

I have the honor to be, sir, &c.

G. M. DALLAS.

Honorable JOHN FORSYTH,
Secretary of State.

Count Nesselrode to Mr. Dallas.

ST. PETERSBOURG, le 9 Mars, 1838.

Le soussigné a eu l'honneur de recevoir la note que Monsieur Dallas, envoyé extraordinaire et ministre plénipotentiaire des Etats Unis d'Amér-

ique, a bien voulu lui adresser en date du 16 [28] Décembre, relativement à la proposition émise antérieurement par Mr. Wilkins, de renouveler l'article 4 de la convention du 5 [17] Avril, 1824, dont l'effet avait été limité à un terme de dix ans, et qui a dû, par conséquent, expirer en 1834.

Le désir de ne décider qu'avec une entière connaissance de cause une question de cette importance ne permettait pas au Gouvernement Impérial de se prononcer à cet égard avant d'avoir recueilli des renseignemens détaillés, tant sur les besoins des établissemens Russes en Amérique, que sur l'influence que l'état de choses consacré par l'article 4 y avait exercée. En exposant cette considération à Mr. Wilkins, le soussigné se réserva dans sa note du 28 Novembre, 1835, de faire connaître, en son temps, à la legation des Etats Unis, les déterminations qui seraient adoptées à ce sujet par le Gouvernement Russe.

Les renseignemens qui étaient attendus alors lui sont parvenus depuis. Il en résulte que l'exécution des dispositions temporaires contenues dans l'article 4 n'a pas été exempte de graves inconvéniens, et qu'elle a même été d'un préjudice réel pour la prospérité des établissemens Russes sur la côte nord-ouest. La plupart des navires étrangers qui abordaient à cette côte, en vertu des dites stipulations, ne se sont prévalus de la faculté de faire le commerce avec les indigènes que pour leur vendre des liqueurs spiritueuses, des armes à feu, et de la poudre à canon. D'après la teneur de l'article 5 de la convention, ces objets se trouvaient nommément exclus du commerce; mais l'expérience a prouvé que cette exclusion, ainsi que les mesures législatives par lesquelles le Gouvernement des Etats Unis avait cherché à en assurer l'effet, étaient demeurées illusoire; puisque par le même article les parties contractantes s'étaient privées de tout moyen de contrôle à l'égard des bâtimens qui visiteraient ces parages, de sorte que des cargaisons entières de rhum, d'armes à feu, et de munitions, ont pu être apportées sans entraves dans les possessions Russes, et vendues aux indigènes; ce qui a nécessairement dû compromettre les élémens d'ordre et de civilisation que les agens de la Compagnie Russe-Américaine ont déjà réussi à introduire parmi ces peuplades.

Il est à observer d'ailleurs, que les articles qui font l'objet de ce commerce frauduleux étaient les seuls dont le débit pût y offrir des bénéfices, puisque la Compagnie Russe-Américaine les ayant une fois pour toutes exclus de son propre trafic avec les indigènes, ceux-ci ne pouvaient se les procurer qu'à bord des navires étrangers.

Cet état de choses ne pouvant que donner lieu à des plaintes et à des réclamations dont le Gouvernement Impérial doit avoir à cœur de préserver à jamais ses relations avec le Gouvernement des Etats Unis, serait à lui seul déjà un motif suffisant pour lui faire désirer que les stipulations de l'article 4 ne fussent pas renouvelées. Mais une autre considération non moins décisive se présente ici: c'est l'obligation où se trouve le Gouvernement Impérial de protéger le commerce et la navigation des colonies Russes, et de leur assurer désormais la jouissance paisible des avantages qu'à la faveur de leurs privilèges elles sont appelées à recueillir de l'exploitation de la pêche, ainsi que du commerce avec les indigènes.

Il ne fallait pas moins de ces considérations réunies pour mettre le Gouvernement Impérial dans l'impossibilité d'adhérer à la proposition qui lui a été faite de renouveler les stipulations de l'article 4. Ce qui diminue au reste les regrets qu'il en éprouve, c'est la conviction que le commerce des Etats Unis ne retirerait lui-même aucun avantage notable du maintien

ultérieur de ces stipulations, puisqu'il résulte du relevé de la navigation dans ces parages, que même pendant le temps où l'article 4 était encore en vigueur, il n'y est jamais arrivé au delà de quatre navires Américains dans le cours d'une année entière, et que ce nombre même, qui ne saurait guère entrer en comparaison avec l'état florissant de la marine marchande de l'Union, allait en diminuant à mesure que les entreprises sur la côte nord-ouest offraient moins de chances de succès. Il paraît évident d'après cela que la remise en vigueur de l'article 4 ne saurait guère contribuer à étendre d'une manière réciproquement utile les relations commerciales entre la Russie et les Etats Unis d'Amérique, ni par conséquent répondre à la constante sollicitude du Gouvernement Impérial à cimenter de plus en plus, et dans un mutuel intérêt, les rapports d'amitié qu'il se félicitera toujours de cultiver avec le Gouvernement de l'Union.

Le soussigné a l'honneur de réitérer à Monsieur l'Envoyé des Etats Unis l'assurance de sa considération très distinguée.

NESSELRODE.

Count Nesselrode to Mr. Dallas.

[Translation.]

ST. PETERSBURG, *March 9, 1838.*

The undersigned has had the honor to receive the note that Mr. Dallas, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of the United States of America, was pleased to address to him on the 16th [28th] December, relative to the proposition previously brought forward by Mr. Wilkins to renew the fourth article of the convention of 5th [17th] April, 1824, of which the effect had been limited to a term of ten years, and which had consequently expired in 1834.

The desire not to decide a question of this importance without a thorough knowledge of the subject did not permit the Imperial Government to give an opinion in relation to it until detailed information had been collected, as well in regard to the wants of the Russian establishments in America, as to the influence that the state of things secured by the fourth article had exercised there. In setting forth this consideration to Mr. Wilkins, the undersigned intimated in his note of the 28th November, 1835, that he would give timely notice to the legation of the United States of the determination adopted on this subject by the Russian Government.

The information then expected has since reached the undersigned; and it appears that the execution of the temporary provisions contained in the fourth article has not been unattended with serious inconveniences, and that it has been really injurious to the prosperity of the Russian establishments on the northwest coast. The greater part of the foreign vessels which resort to this coast, in virtue of the said stipulations, have only made use of the right of trading with the natives in order to sell them spirituous liquors, fire-arms, and gunpowder. According to the tenor of the 5th article, these articles were expressly excluded from the trade; but experience has proven that this exclusion, and also the legislative measures by which the Government of the United States sought to carry it into effect, were illusory; since, by the same article, the contracting par-

ties had deprived themselves of all means of controlling the vessels which should visit these latitudes, so that entire cargoes of rum, of fire-arms, and ammunition, have been carried, without hindrance, into the Russian possessions, and sold to the natives; thus necessarily endangering the germs of order and civilization which the agents of the Russian-American Company have already succeeded in introducing among these tribes.

It is moreover to be observed, that the articles comprised in this fraudulent trade were expressly those of which the sale there offered most advantages, because the Russian-American Company having once for all excluded them from its own traffic with the natives, the latter could only procure them from on board foreign vessels.

This state of things could not fail to occasion complaints and remonstrances, which, the Imperial Government being ever anxious for the preservation of its relations with the United States, would alone, from that time, be an adequate motive to induce it to desire that the stipulations of the fourth article should not be renewed. But another consideration, not less decisive, here presents itself: this is, the obligation under which the Imperial Government is placed to protect the commerce and navigation of the Russian colonies, and to secure to them henceforth the peaceable enjoyment of the advantages which, by virtue of their privileges, they are destined to gather from the improvement (*exploitation*) of the fisheries, as well as from the trade with the natives.

These considerations, taken together, render it impossible for the Imperial Government to accede to the proposition which has been made to it to renew the stipulations of the fourth article. The regret experienced by it on the occasion is, however, diminished by the conviction that the United States would not themselves derive any especial advantage from the longer continuance of these stipulations, since, according to a statement of the navigation in these places, even whilst the fourth article was yet in force, there were never more than four American vessels arrived in the course of a whole year; and that even this number, hardly to be taken into account in the flourishing state of the mercantile marine of the Union, was diminishing in proportion as enterprises on the northwest coast offered fewer chances of success. It appears evident, from this, that the renewal of the fourth article could hardly contribute to extend, in a reciprocally useful manner, the commercial relations between Russia and the United States of America, or, by consequence, answer the continual solicitude of the Imperial Government to cement more and more, and in a mutual interest, the friendly intelligence which it is always happy to cultivate with the Government of the Union.

The undersigned has the honor to repeat to the envoy of the United States the assurance of his very distinguished consideration.

NESSELRODE.

Mr. Dallas to Count Nesselrode.

ST. PETERSBURG, *March 14,* [26,] 1838.

In acknowledging the honor of having received the note addressed to him by his excellency Count Nesselrode, Vice Chancellor of the empire,

dated the 9th of March, 1838, the undersigned, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of the United States of America, cannot refrain from expressing a regret that the proposal to revive the expired article of the convention of April, 1824, should have failed to recommend itself to the adoption of his Imperial Majesty's Government.

Esteeming, however, the conclusion attained by the imperial ministry upon this interesting and important subject as the result of full inquiry and of mature reflection, he sincerely hopes that its wisdom may be illustrated in the augmented prosperity of the Russian establishments on the northwest coast of America.

The cabinet at Washington, with a view to such corresponding regulations as may be thought useful to preserve uninterrupted the happy relations subsisting between the two countries, will now feel fresh anxiety to know the measures adopted, or proposed to be adopted, by his Imperial Majesty, with regard to the admission of American vessels into the harbors, bays, and rivers of the Russian settlements on that coast; and the undersigned, therefore, deems it to be his duty most respectfully and earnestly to renew to his excellency Count Nesselrode the request heretofore made for such information. In the hope that he may be early enabled to communicate it to his Government, he begs his excellency to accept the assurances of his highest consideration.

G. M. DALLAS.

Mr. Dallas to Mr. Forsyth.—(Extract.)

LEGATION OF THE U. S. OF AMERICA,

St. Petersburg, May 13, 1838.

SIR: On the 9th instant the communication, of which I annex a copy, was received from Count Nesselrode, in reply to my request, under date of the 26th of March last, to be furnished with information as to the measures adopted, or proposed to be adopted, by this Government, respecting the admission of American vessels into the Russian establishments on the northwest coast.

It will be perceived that the substance of Count Nesselrode's note is distinct and definitive, and that the single and simple measure adopted in relation to our vessels is their absolute exclusion from what are deemed the Russian possessions. The published order of Governor Wrangel, to which Baron Krudener in 1835 called your attention, is confirmed unqualifiedly in principle and practice; and the cabinet at Washington is invited to repeat the warning heretofore given by it to the citizens of the United States not to contravene that prohibitory notice, so that they may avoid exposing themselves to the consequences of misunderstanding or collision.

Although my request for information was expressly limited to Russian establishments, and Count Nesselrode's reply to it may not strictly be extended beyond that limit, I cannot help thinking that the prefatory and peculiar reference he has made to the expiration of the fourth article of the convention is meant as a reiteration of the position assumed in the case of the "Loriot," Captain Blinn, to wit: That since April, 1834, our

right to frequent the interior seas, gulfs, harbors, and creeks north of 54° 40' north latitude, whether actually occupied or not, has ceased. The consistent brevity, indeed, with which the effect of the ten years' limitation is uniformly invoked, satisfies me that it is esteemed a "*point d'appui*" in relation to our rights and pretensions on the northwest coast, too conclusive to be omitted or argued. My letter in answer to the first assumption of that position, dated the 17th of March, 1838, and forwarded to you with despatch No. 15, has not been noticed.

The Emperor will leave this capital, on his way to Berlin, in the course of a week; the Empress has already gone; Count Nesselrode follows them in about a month. They may remain absent until next October or November. In the meantime, I shall confidently and anxiously expect such replies from you to my last despatches as will warrant me in making known to the Russian ministry the settled views and purposes of the American cabinet as regards the Pacific trade. * * *

Very respectfully, sir, your most obedient servant,

G. M. DALLAS.

HON. JOHN FORSYTH,

Secretary of State.

Count Nesselrode to Mr. Dallas.

ST. PETERSBOURG, le 27 *Avril*, 1838.

Monsieur Dallas, envoyé extraordinaire et ministre plénipotentiaire des Etats Unis d'Amérique, a bien voulu, par sa note du 14 [26] Mars, exprimer le désir de connaître les mesures qui auront été adoptées à la suite de l'expiration de l'article 4 de la convention de 1824, à l'égard de l'admission des navires Américains dans les havres, baies, et rivières des établissemens Russes sur la côte nord-ouest. Cette demande est motivée sur l'intention du cabinet de Washington d'adopter de son côté des réglémens analogues à cet état de choses, et propres tout-à-la-fois à garantir de toute atteinte les relations si heureusement existantes entre les deux états.

S'empressant de répondre à une ouverture qui est accompagnée d'une assurance aussi satisfaisante pour le Gouvernement Impérial, le soussigné se fait un devoir d'observer à Monsieur Dallas, que, comme l'article 4 de la convention du 5 [17] *Avril*, 1824, n'a accordé que pour une espace de dix ans aux vaisseaux des deux Puissances, ou qui appartiendraient à leurs citoyens ou sujets respectifs, le droit de fréquenter réciproquement, sans entrave quelconque, les mers intérieures, les golfes, havres, et criques sur la côte mentionnée à l'article 3 de la même convention, afin d'y faire la pêche et le commerce avec les naturels du pays, et comme ce terme de dix ans est expiré depuis le mois d'*Avril*, 1834, les autorités des établissemens Russes sur la dite côte sont appelées à veiller à ce que les bâtimens Américains ne puissent plus fréquenter les mers intérieures, golfes, havres, et criques, situées au nord du 54° 40' de latitude septentrionale, tout comme il est interdit aux bâtimens Russes de visiter les parages de même nature au sud de la parallèle de 54° 40', et que, pour maintenir cette défense, il est du devoir des dites autorités d'adopter les mesures nécessaires, dans l'intérêt du maintien des relations de bonne harmonie entre les deux Gouvernemens.

Le Gouverneur des colonies Russes sur la côte nord-ouest ayant fait dans le temps une publication à ce sujet, laquelle a été portée à la connaissance du Gouvernement des Etats Unis, et le ministre de l'Empereur à Washington ayant dès-lors invité ce Gouvernement à ne point laisser ignorer aux citoyens de l'Union le nouvel ordre de choses que devait amener l'expiration de l'article 4, le soussigné aime à croire que, donnant suite à la résolution qu'il annonce d'adopter de son côté des réglémens analogues, le cabinet de Washington jugera nécessaire, dans sa sagesse, d'avertir itérativement les citoyens des Etats Unis de ne point contrevenir à la défense dont il s'agit, afin de ne pas s'exposer aux conséquences d'un malentendu ou d'une collision que le Gouvernement Impérial serait le premier à déplorer.

De son côté, le Gouvernement Impérial ne cesse de recommander à ses autorités sur la côte nord-ouest les précautions nécessaires, afin que tout en maintenant les droits qui résultent pour la Russie de l'expiration de l'article 4, elles ne perdent point de vue les égards dus aux liens d'amitié qui unissent les deux Gouvernemens, et que le cabinet impérial aura toujours à cœur de resserrer de plus en plus, et de cimenter dans l'intérêt mutuel des sujets et citoyens respectifs.

Le soussigné saisit cette occasion de renouveler à Monsieur Dallas l'assurance de sa considération très distinguée.

NESSELRODE.

Count Nesselrode to Mr. Dallas.

[Translation.]

ST. PETERSBURG, *April 27, 1838.*

Mr. Dallas, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of the United States of America, has been pleased, in his note of the 14th [26th] of March, to express a desire to know what measures have been adopted in consequence of the expiration of the fourth article of the convention of 1824, respecting the admission of American vessels into the harbors, bays, and rivers of the Russian establishments on the northwest coast. This request is made on account of the intention, on the part of the cabinet of Washington, to adopt similar regulations, and such as may tend to prevent any injury to the relations now so fortunately existing between the two countries.

The undersigned, hastening to reply to an overture accompanied by an assurance so satisfactory for the Imperial Government, makes it his duty to observe to Mr. Dallas, that as the fourth article of the convention of the 5th [17th] of April, 1824, has only granted for ten years, to the vessels of the two Powers, or those belonging to their citizens or subjects, respectively, the right of frequenting reciprocally the interior seas, gulfs, harbors, and creeks on the coast mentioned in the third article of the same convention, for the purpose of fishing and trading with the natives of the country; and as this term of ten years expired in the month of April, 1834, the authorities of the Russian establishments on the said coast are required to see that American vessels no longer frequent the interior seas, gulfs, harbors, and creeks, situated north of the latitude of 54 degrees 40

minutes north, as Russian vessels are in like manner forbidden to visit places of the same sort south of that parallel; and to maintain this prohibition, it is the duty of the said authorities to adopt the necessary measures, with the view of keeping up relations of harmony between the two Governments.

The Governor of the Russian colonies on the northwest coast having made upon this subject a publication, which has been submitted to the knowledge of the Government of the United States, and the Emperor's minister at Washington having immediately afterwards invited that Government to make known to the citizens of the United States the new order of things consequent upon the expiration of the fourth article, the undersigned flatters himself with the belief that the cabinet of Washington, in executing its announced resolution to adopt on its part similar measures, will think proper likewise to repeat its warning to the citizens of the United States not to contravene the prohibition in question, and thus to avoid exposing themselves to the consequences of a misunderstanding or collision, which the Imperial Government would be the first to deplore.

On its part, the Imperial Government will not cease to recommend to its authorities on the northwest coast the necessary precautions; so that, while maintaining the rights acquired by Russia at the expiration of the fourth article, they should not lose sight of the respect due to the bonds of amity which unite the two Governments, and which the imperial cabinet will always desire to strengthen and render more close for the mutual interests of their respective citizens and subjects.

The undersigned seizes this opportunity to renew to Mr. Dallas the assurances of his high consideration.

NESSELRODE.

26th CONGRESS,
1st Session.

[SENATE.]

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MEMOIR,

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HISTORICAL AND POLITICAL,

ON THE

NORTHWEST COAST OF NORTH AMERICA,

AND THE

ADJACENT TERRITORIES;

ILLUSTRATED BY

A MAP AND A GEOGRAPHICAL VIEW OF THOSE COUNTRIES.

By Robert Greenhow,

TRANSLATOR AND LIBRARIAN TO THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE.

FEBRUARY 10, 1840.

Submitted by Mr. LINN, from the Select Committee on the Oregon Territory; and ordered to be printed, and that 2,500 additional copies be sent to the Senate.

WASHINGTON:

BLAIR AND RIVES, PRINTERS.

1840.

MEMOIR

HISTORICAL AND POLITICAL

NORTHWEST COAST OF NORTH AMERICA

AND ADJACENT TERRITORIES

A MAP AND A DESCRIPTION OF THE

BY ROBERT GRIMKE

MEMORIAL AND APPENDIX TO THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

February 20, 1810

Printed by M. Linn from the report of the House of Representatives, and
to be bound with the report of the House of Representatives

WASHINGTON

BLAIR AND WALKER PRINTERS

1810

PREFACE.

THE following correspondence, between the Chairman of the Committee of the Senate on the Oregon Territory and the Secretary of State, together with extracts from the Journal of the Senate, will serve to show the circumstances under which this Memoir has been written and published.

WASHINGTON, *January 25, 1840.*

SIR: I am informed that your department is in possession of much information relating to the territory of Oregon, its geography, resources, and the title of the United States to the same. If consistent with your duty, I would be pleased to be put in possession of such papers and documents as you may think proper to send me, requesting that you will mark such as you would rather not have printed or made public.

Your obedient servant,

L. F. LINN,

*Chairman of the Select Committee
on the Territory of Oregon.*

HON. JOHN FORSYTH, *Secretary of State.*

Answer.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,

Washington, January 25, 1840.

SIR: I have had the honor to receive your letter of this day's date, asking for information relative to the territory of Oregon, its geography and resources, and the title of the United States to the same. Mr. Greenhow, the translator and librarian of this department, has been for some time past, by my direction, employed in collecting and arranging historical information on the subject of the northwestern coasts of America; I send you the result of his labors, and submit it to the discretion of the committee to be printed or not, as they may think most advisable. Not having had the leisure to compare the statements in the Memoir with the various works and documents upon which they are founded, I can vouch only for the zeal, industry, and good faith of Mr. Greenhow, by whom they were prepared.

I am, sir, your most obedient servant,

JOHN FORSYTH,

Secretary of State.

HON. LEWIS F. LINN,

Senator of the United States.

From the Journal of the Senate of the United States.

“MONDAY, *February 10, 1840.*—On motion by Mr. LINN,

“*Ordered,* That a history of the northwest coast of North America and the adjacent territories, communicated to the Select Committee on the Oregon Territory, be printed, with the accompanying map; and that two thousand five hundred copies, in addition to the usual number, be printed for the use of the Senate.”

“WEDNESDAY, *February 12, 1840.*—On motion by Mr. LINN,

“*Ordered,* That the history of the northwest coast of North America, ordered to be printed on the 10th instant, be printed under the direction of Mr. Greenhow.”

The Memoir relates principally to the southern and middle portions of the northwest coast of this continent and the adjoining territories, which have for many years formed the subjects of discussions between the Governments of the United States, Great Britain, and Russia; and it is designed to show the origin, nature, and extent of the several claims, in order to afford the means of correctly estimating the justice of each. In prosecuting these objects, it has been found necessary to trace the whole progress of discovery and settlement, not only in the territories above mentioned, but also in those farther north, in which the exclusive right of the Russians to form establishments has been recognised by the other Powers, and in the region called California, on the south, which constitutes a part of the Mexican republic. With this view, the original authorities have been carefully examined and compared, and the facts thus elicited are here related concisely or at length, as their general importance or their bearing upon the chief objects of the Memoir appeared to justify.

Expeditions for the purposes of discovery, trade, or settlement, and disputes between the Governments or the people of distant civilized nations, have afforded, as yet, the only materials for the history of this section of America; and those materials have remained scattered through the annals of other countries, the journals of voyages and travels, and official or private reports and letters, the correctness of which could not be ascertained without great labor and research. Accounts of all these expeditions and discussions are here presented, arranged in the form of a regular narrative, so as to embrace *a complete history of the western portion of our continent*—if it be allowable to speak of the *history* of a country which still remains almost entirely in a state of nature.

This work is, however, not strictly a history; nor is it merely an argument in support of the title of the United States to the possession of the territories in dispute. The writer has endeavored, agreeably to the directions of Mr. Forsyth, to afford a clear and distinct view of the

pretensions of each of the claimant Powers, and of the circumstances on which they are based. Although he has, for the sake of completeness, introduced some facts and reasonings not directly relevant to those objects, he has, on the other hand, suppressed none which, if given, might have led to conclusions more nearly just.

In illustration of the Memoir, a geographical account of the western section of North America has been prefixed to it, together with a map of those countries, drawn from the best authorities which could be procured. The geographical account has been necessarily much compressed, the limits of the work not permitting details; while the map is, on the whole, much fuller than any other of that part of the world which has yet been published. With regard to the correctness of the descriptions, the coast will, it is believed, be found represented with sufficient accuracy, both in the account, and on the map; but the interior of the continent, from the Pacific to the Rocky Mountains, and, indeed, to the vicinity of the Mississippi, has been as yet so imperfectly examined, that very little precise topographical information respecting it can be procured.

Great care has been taken to present the dates of the several occurrences, and the authorities on which they are recounted, so that the reader will have the means of satisfying himself as to the truth of each statement; with regard to the reasonings and deductions, he must rely upon his own powers of discrimination.

WASHINGTON, *May* 12, 1840.

numerous of each of the various powers, and of the circumstances
 in which they are used. Although he has for the sake of complete-
 ness introduced some facts and reasoning not strictly relevant to local
 objects, he has, on the other hand, suppressed some which, if given,
 might have led to conclusions more nearly just.
 In illustration of the Missouri's geographical position of the western
 portion of North America has been annexed to it together with a map of
 two counties, drawn from the best authorities which could be procured.
 The geographical position of Louisiana necessarily much compressed, the
 limits of the work not permitting details; while the map is, on this
 point, much fuller than any other of that part of the world which has
 yet been published. With regard to the correctness of the descrip-
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 Great care has been taken to present the basis of the several count-
 ries, and the authorities on which they are recorded, so that the
 reader will have the means of ascertaining himself as to the truth of
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 rely upon his own powers of discrimination.

Washington, May 12, 1840.

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ERRATA.

Since the following pages were printed, the author has discovered two errors, which, though not bearing upon any important question, he regrets, and is anxious to correct; particularly as the misstatements are injurious to the memory of Captain Cook, one of the noblest men whom any age or country has produced.

In order to correct these errors,

1. Substitute for the two last sentences of the second paragraph, in page 46, the following: "The Cape Blanco, mentioned as the northern limit of Aguilar's progress along the coast, is probably the same on which Vancouver, in 1792, bestowed the name of Cape Orford."

2. Expunge the last sentence but one of the third paragraph in page 79, containing the words—"In this part of his voyage he recognised the Cape Blanco of Aguilar, near the 43d parallel, but he thought proper to bestow on it the name of Cape Gregory."

GEOGRAPHY

OF THE

WESTERN SECTION OF NORTH AMERICA.

INTRODUCTION.

I. THE *northwest coast* is the expression usually employed in the United States, at the present time, to distinguish the vast portion of the American continent, which extends north of the 40th parallel of latitude from the Pacific to the great dividing ridge of the *Rocky Mountains*, together with the contiguous islands in that ocean. The southern part of this territory, which is drained almost entirely by the River Columbia, is commonly called *Oregon*, from the supposition (no doubt erroneous) that such was the name applied to its principal stream by the aborigines. To the more northern parts of the continent many appellations, which will hereafter be mentioned, have been assigned by navigators and fur-traders of various nations. The territory bordering upon the Pacific southward, from the 40th parallel to the extremity of the peninsula which stretches in that direction as far as the Tropic of Cancer, is called *California*; a name of uncertain derivation, formerly applied by the Spaniards to the whole western section of North America, as that of *Florida* was employed by them to designate the regions bordering upon the Atlantic. The northwest coast and the west coast of California, together, form the *west coast of North America*; as it has been found impossible to separate the history of these two portions, so it will be necessary to include them both in this geographical view.*

In order to show that the *fortieth parallel of latitude* is not assumed arbitrarily, and without adequate grounds, as the southern limit of the northwest coast, it would be sufficient to cite the fact, that this line crosses the American continent exactly midway between its most northern and its most southern points; but there are physical reasons for the assumption, no less strong than those based on such geometrical considerations. Almost immediately under the said parallel the coast makes an

* In the following pages, the term *coast* will be used, sometimes as signifying only the sea-shore, and sometimes as embracing the whole territory, extending therefrom to the sources of the river; care has been, however, taken to prevent misapprehension, where the context does not sufficiently indicate the true sense. In order to avoid repetitions, the *northwest coast* will be understood to be the *northwest coast of North America*; all *latitudes* will be taken as *north latitudes*, and all *longitudes* as *west from Greenwich*, unless otherwise expressed.

angle at a point called *Cape Mendocino*, from which one line runs due north for a great distance, while the other takes a southeast direction. Moreover, this cape is the western extremity of a ridge of lofty mountains, extending continuously from the Pacific to the Rocky Mountains, nearly in the course of the 40th parallel, and completely dividing the region of which the waters flow southward from that drained by streams entering the Pacific north of the cape. This transverse ridge, generally called the *Snowy Mountains*, appears, indeed, to be the boundary indicated by nature between California, on the south, and Oregon, or the country of the Columbia, on the north; not only does it serve as a barrier of separation almost impassable, but the differences in climate and productions between the territories on either side of it are much greater than could have been supposed, considering merely their respective distances from the equator. California is essentially a *southern* country, while Oregon exhibits the peculiarities of the *north*.

The coasts of this section of America have been carefully surveyed by distinguished scientific navigators, and they may be found accurately delineated on charts; with regard to the interior, however, little exact geographical information has been yet obtained. From all that can be learned respecting the continent north of the 58th parallel, it is a waste of rocky snow-clad mountains, incapable of sustaining a population, and, indeed, almost impenetrable. Of California, or the country south of the 40th parallel, no accounts are to be procured, except as to the portion immediately contiguous to the sea. It is only of the territory included between these two lines of latitude, which is drained principally by the great River Columbia, that we can speak with any confidence; even of this territory, all descriptions must be conveyed in general and qualified terms, and much remains to be done in it by the astronomer before our maps can present any other than very imperfect representations of its surface.

In the following geographical sketch, an attempt will be made to combine the results of information and inquiry, relative to the western section of North America, in such a manner as to produce distinct impressions of its most prominent and characteristic features, adding only those details which may be requisite or useful in order to illustrate the statements and views contained in the political and historical memoir. In so doing, it has been found convenient to adopt the territorial divisions indicated by nature, rather than those which have been agreed on between the Governments of various distant nations. The boundaries settled by these conventions will, however, be first described, and general ideas of the political questions at issue, with regard to this part of the world, will thus be easily communicated.

POLITICAL DIVISION OF THE WESTERN SECTION OF NORTH AMERICA.

II. By the Florida treaty, concluded in 1819 between the United States and Spain, a line drawn along the 42d parallel of latitude, from the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific, was fixed as the northern limit of the Spanish territory and the southern limit of that of the United States in western America. By a subsequent treaty between the latter Power and Mexico, the same line was admitted to separate the possessions of the two republics, Mexico taking the place of Spain. The Mexicans, accord-

ingly, claim the country as far north as the 42d parallel; but the Russians effectually bar the exercise of any Mexican authority beyond the Bay of San Francisco, near the 38th degree, by means of their colonies and garrisons in that quarter, established in 1812, and ever since maintained in defiance alike of Spain and of her republican successors.

By the convention of 1824, between the United States and Russia, it was agreed that the Russians should make no settlements on the west coasts of North America, or the adjacent islands, south of the latitude of 54 degrees 40 minutes, and the United States should establish none north of that parallel.

By the convention of 1825, between Russia and Great Britain, it was in like manner stipulated that the British should occupy no place on the coasts or islands north of 54 degrees and 40 minutes, and that the Russians should make no settlement south of the same latitude; it was, moreover, agreed that a line drawn from that parallel northward, along the summits of the mountains, within 20 miles of the sea, to its intersection with the 141st meridian of longitude west from Greenwich, (passing through Mount Saint Elias,) and thence, along that meridian, to the Arctic Sea, should be the "limit between the Russian and British possessions on the continent of America to the northwest."

Thus two lines of boundary appear on the map of Northwest America, running completely across it: one northward, from the latitude of 54 degrees 40 minutes, to the Arctic sea, as settled between Great Britain and Russia; and the other following the course of the 42d parallel, from the Pacific to the Rocky Mountains, as agreed on between the United States and Mexico. Of the intermediate region, no part has been as yet definitively assigned by convention to any one nation; the Americans claim the portion north from the 42d parallel, and the British claim that south from the other line of boundary—each party to an extent undefined, but so far as to secure for itself the large and valuable country drained by the Columbia River. These nations have provisionally compromised their pretensions by an arrangement, made in 1818, and continued in 1827 for an unlimited period, to the effect, that any territory in that section of America, claimed by either, should be equally free and open for navigation, trade, and settlement, to the citizens or subjects of both; the Government of each being at liberty to abrogate the arrangement, after giving due notice of twelve months to that of the other.*

III. The political questions at issue between the Governments of Great Britain, the United States, Russia, and Mexico having been summarily stated, we will now present a—

VIEW OF THE WESTERN SECTION OF NORTH AMERICA, ACCORDING TO ITS NATURAL DIVISIONS.

The northern extremity of the west coast of America is *Cape Prince of Wales*, in latitude of 65 degrees 52 minutes, which is also the westernmost spot in the whole continent; it is situated on the eastern side of

* The Russian settlements in America are under the control of the *Russian-American Company*, of which a particular account will be found at page 143 of the memoir. For notices of the *Hudson's Bay Company*, to which belong all the British establishments west of the Rocky Mountains, see pages 75 and 192; and, for copies of the treaties, see Appendix [F.]

Beering's Strait, a channel fifty-one miles in width, connecting the Pacific with the *Arctic* (or *Icy*, or *North Frozen*) *Ocean*, on the western side of which strait, opposite *Cape Prince of Wales*, is *East Cape*, the eastern extremity of *Asia*. Beyond *Beering's Strait* the shores of the two continents recede from each other. The *north coast of America* has been traced from *Cape Prince of Wales* northeastward, to *Cape Barrow*, in latitude of 71 degrees 23 minutes, which is probably the northernmost point of *America*, and thence eastward for more than a thousand miles, though not continuously to the *Atlantic*; no vessel has, however, yet proceeded beyond *Beering's Strait* as far as *Cape Barrow*.

The southernmost point of the west coast of *North America* is *Cape San Lucas*, in latitude of 22 degrees 52 minutes, the extremity of the great *Peninsula of California*, which stretches from the *American continent* on the *Pacific* side, nearly in the same direction, and between nearly the same parallels of latitude as that of *Florida* on the *Atlantic*. The *Californian peninsula* joins the main land under the 33d parallel; south of which, it is separated from *Mexico*, on the east, by the long arm of the ocean called by the *Spaniards* the *Vermillion Sea* and the *Sea of Cortes*, but more generally known as the *Gulf of California*.

The coast extending between these two capes is not less than four thousand miles in length, and is bordered by a continuous line of mountains, which in most places overhang the sea, and are nowhere distant from it more than eighty miles. From *Cape San Lucas* the general direction of the shores is northwest as far as *Cape Mendocino*, near the 40th degree of latitude; thence it runs almost due north to *Cape Flattery*, at the entrance of the *Strait of Fuca*, near the 48th degree, where it makes an angle by turning to the east. South of *Cape Flattery* the coast is comparatively regular and free from great sinuosities, and there are only a few islands, all of which are small, in its vicinity; northward of that point, to *Cape Spenser* near the 58th degree, it is, on the contrary, indented by numerous bays and inlets penetrating the land, and it is completely masked by islands separated from each other and from the continent by narrow and intricate channels. These islands compose the *Northwest Archipelago*; they lie together in a recess of the continental coast between *Cape Flattery* and *Cape Spenser*, in length about seven hundred miles, and in breadth about one hundred and twenty; and they are, indeed, simply a continuation, through the sea, of the mountain-chain which forms the westernmost rampart of *America*. Beyond *Cape Spenser* the *American coast* makes a bend, running northwest to the foot of *Mount Saint Elias*, the loftiest peak on the continent, and the most striking landmark on its western shore; thence westward nearly in the course of the 60th parallel, and then southwest to the extremity of the *Peninsula of Aliaska*, in 54 degrees 40 minutes, around which it again turns to the north, and continues in that course to *Cape Prince of Wales*. *Aliaska* is, like *California*, formed by the projection of a lofty mountain-ridge into the *Pacific*; from its extremity, and as if in continuation of it, a chain of islands, called the *Aleutian Archipelago*, extends westward, across the sea, to the vicinity of the opposite *Asiatic Peninsula* of *Kamschatka*.

IV. Of the northwesternmost division of the *American coast*, extending from *Cape Prince of Wales*, southward, to the extremity of *Aliaska*, little need be said. The part of the *Pacific* north of the *Aleutian Islands*,

which bathes those shores, is commonly distinguished as the *Sea of Kamschatka*, and sometimes as *Beering's Sea*, in honor of the Russian navigator of that name who first explored it. From this sea several arms run up into the main land of America, of which the largest are *Norton Sound*, on the south side of the peninsula terminated by Cape Prince of Wales, and *Bristol Bay*, called by the Russians *Kamischezgaia Gulf*, on the northwest side of Aliaska. The upper part of Bristol Bay receives the waters of a large lake called *Lake Shellikof*; a little west of the outlet of which, on the shore of the bay, stands the small Russian factory, or fur-trading establishment, of *Alexandrowsk*, the only spot on this whole coast occupied by civilized persons.

The *Aleutian Archipelago* is considered by the Russians as consisting of three groups of islands. Nearest Aliaska are the *Fox Islands*, of which the largest are *Unimak*, *Unalashka*, and *Umnak*; next to these are the *Andreanowsky Islands*, among which are *Atscha*, *Tonaga*, and *Kanaga*, with many smaller islands, sometimes called the *Rat Islands*; the most western group is that first called the *Aleutian* or *Aleoutsky Islands*, which are *Attou*, *Mednoi*, (or *Copper Island*), and *Beering's Island*. On the latter *Beering* was wrecked and lost his life in 1741. These islands are nearly all, like Aliaska, rocky, mountainous, and volcanic; they are of little value in an agricultural point of view, but the Russians derive great advantage from the skins and furs of animals in and about their shores, for procuring which they have several establishments in the Archipelago, particularly on *Unalashka*. The original inhabitants are a hardy and bold race, whom the Russians had great difficulty in subduing; these people are, however, at the present day, employed by their masters in fishing and hunting for furs in every part of the Pacific, and they compose a large proportion of the population of all the Russian settlements in America. There are other islands in the Sea of Kamschatka, of which the largest are *Nunivak*, near the American shore, under the 60th parallel, and *Saint Lawrence* or *Clerke's Island*, at the entrance of *Beering's Strait*.

V. *Kamschatka* is a large peninsula formed of volcanic mountains, extending from the Asiatic continent southward to the latitude of 52 degrees 10 minutes, under which its southernmost point, *Cape Lopatka*, is situated. West of the peninsula, between it and the main land of Asia, is the *Sea of Ochotsk*, which is separated from the Pacific on the south-east by the *Kurile Islands*, extending southwest from Kamschatka towards Japan. The principal place in Kamschatka is *Petro-Paulowsk*, or the *Harbor of Saint Peter and Saint Paul*, on the *Bay of Avatscha*, in latitude of 53 degrees 58 minutes; it is a small town, the inhabitants of which are all engaged directly or indirectly in the fur trade.

VI. The next natural division of the coast is that included in the great bend between the south-west extremity of Aliaska and Cape Spenser. Here are to be remarked two deep gulfs, extending northward into the continent to the 62d degree, through each of which it was for some time hoped that a passage would be discovered communicating with the Atlantic. The westernmost of these gulfs was originally called *Cook's River*, but is now generally named on English maps *Cook's Inlet*, and is known by the Russians as the *Gulf of Kenay*; the other, which is only separated from the former by a peninsula, received from the British navigators the appellation of *Prince William's Sound*, and is distinguished by the Russians as the *Bay of Tschugatsch*; it is unnecessary

here to say more of them than that they contain many islands, and that the Russians have several factories on the shores of each. Further eastward are *Comptroller's Bay* and *Admiralty*, or *Beering's*, or *Mulgrave*, or *Yakutat Bay*, where it is generally believed that Beering first landed in America in 1741. In the reports of Beering's voyage, it is stated that the mouth of a large and rapid river was found on this part of the coast; none such, however, has been discovered, though a considerable stream called by the Russians *Reca Mednaia*, (or *Copper River*;) empties into Comptroller's Bay at some distance from the ocean.

On this coast are several islands, of which the most extensive is *Kodiak*, at the entrance of Cook's Inlet, separated from Aliaska on the west by the *Strait of Shellikof*; its surface is rugged and mountainous, and it is indented by many deep bays, on one of which, called the *Gulf of Chiniatskoy*, on the east side of the island, is situated *Saint Paul*, one of the largest Russian settlements in America. South of Kodiak, near the southern extremity of Aliaska, are the *Schumagin Islands*, called after a seaman of Beering's ship, who died and was buried on one of them. *Mount Saint Elias* is on the northeast side of the bend, nearly under the 60th parallel of latitude; its height is estimated at seventeen thousand feet, and that of *Mount Fairweather*, a little farther south, at fourteen thousand. They are both volcanic, as are nearly all the mountains in this part of America.

The region bounded on the west and south by the divisions of the American coast above described is believed to be a frozen waste, traversed in all directions by mountains, and utterly incapable of affording a support to a population except in the immediate vicinity of the ocean. It is used by the Russians only for the purposes of the fur trade, which is carried on at the cost of a dreadful sacrifice of comfort and of life; and, as the animals yielding furs are daily diminishing in number, this part of the world must, no doubt, ere long be abandoned by all civilized persons.

VII. The *Northwest Archipelago* is contained, as already stated, in a recess of the coast of the continent, between the 48th and the 58th parallels, (between which also extend the islands of Great Britain and Ireland on the western side of Europe.) This Archipelago was first minutely examined by British navigators, who have bestowed on the islands names derived almost exclusively from the lists of the royal family, the ministry, the parliament, the peerage, the army, and the navy of Great Britain; none of which names are, however, or probably will be at any future period, used by the occupants of the islands. To present all these names would be a tedious and useless labor; and little more will be attempted than to afford some idea of the principal groups.

King George the Third's Islands are the most northwestern; the two largest of these are, respectively, called by the Russians who occupy them *Chichagoff's* and *Baranoff's Islands*. Near the western side of the latter, and divided from it by a narrow strait, is a small island, in the middle of which rises a beautiful conical peak, named by the Spaniards in 1775, *Mount San Jacinto*, and by the English under Cook, three years afterwards, *Mount Edgecumb*. On the southeast side of this strait, called by the Spaniards *Port Remedios*, by the British *Norfolk Sound*, and by the Russians the *Gulf of Sitca*, stands *Sitca*, or *New Archangel*, the capital of all the Russian possessions in America. It was estab-

lished on its present site in 1804; and, by the most recent accounts, it contains about a thousand inhabitants, more than three-fourths of whom are Aleutians. The fort mounts sixteen short eighteen-pounders, and ten long nine-pounders, and is garrisoned by about three hundred persons. The *Admiralty Islands* are between the first described group and the main land, being separated from the former by the *Chatham Canal*, and from the latter by *Stephen's Passage*. The part of the sea between these two groups and the continent on the north is called *Cross Sound*, from which the *Lynn Canal*, an extensive bay, stretches northward behind Mount Fairweather. South of the King George's and the Admiralty Islands are the groups of the *Duke of York*, the *Prince of Wales*, and *Revillagigedo*, (the last called after a Viceroy of Mexico,) between which are *Prince Frederick's Sound*, the *Duke of Clarence's Strait*, and other passages.

All the islands above mentioned are north of the parallel of 54 degrees 40 minutes, which is the latitude of the southernmost point of the Prince of Wales's Islands, and are therefore all, with the coasts of the continent in their vicinity, among the territories on which the Russians claim the exclusive right of making settlements, in virtue of their treaties with the United States and Great Britain, as before stated at page 3.

Between the 52d and 54th parallels, extends a large island, of triangular shape, which will be found on the map, bearing the name of *Queen Charlotte's*, or *Washington's Island*. Its western coast was discovered by the Spaniards in 1774; from which time to 1787 it was considered, like all the other islands of the Archipelago, as forming part of the continent. In the last mentioned year, Captain Dixon, commanding the merchant ship *Queen Charlotte*, of London, becoming convinced that it was an insulated territory, bestowed on it the name of his vessel; but it was first circumnavigated in the summer of 1789, by Captain Gray, in the sloop *Washington*, of Boston, who, without knowing any thing of Dixon's voyage, called the country *Washington's Island*. It was the favorite resort of the early American fur-traders in the north Pacific; and the manuscript Journal of Captain Ingraham, who commanded the brig *Hope*, of Boston, in that sea, from 1791 to 1793, contains minute descriptions and charts of several ports, particularly on its eastern side, which are not noticed in any published accounts or maps. The limits of this sketch do not admit of minute descriptions, or many interesting facts relative to the island in question might be related on the authority of Ingraham. He describes the soil and climate as being well adapted for agricultural purposes, particularly in the vicinity of *Cummashawah Bay*, a fine harbor on the east coast, in latitude of 53 degrees 3 minutes; and of *Hancock's River*, on the north side, called by the Spaniards *Port Estrada*, which was after it had been surveyed and named by the captain of the brig *Hancock*, from Boston.

Pitt's, *Burke's*, and the *Princess Royal* groups, are composed of many small islands, situated very near the continent, east of *Queen Charlotte's* islands. On one of these, called *Dundas Island*, the *British Hudson's Bay Company* have a trading-post.

The largest and southernmost island in the northwest Archipelago, is that called *Quadra and Vancouver's Island*, extending, in its greatest length, from northwest to southeast about 200 miles, between the parallels of 48 $\frac{1}{2}$ and 51 degrees, and separated from the continent on the south and east by the arm of the sea called the *Strait of Fuca*. The spot on this

island most worthy of note is *Nootka Sound*, an extensive bay communicating with the Pacific in latitude of 49 degrees 34 minutes, and affording excellent harbors for vessels in many places, particularly in *Friendly Cove*, on the north side, about ten miles from the ocean. This place was for many years the chief rendezvous of the fur-traders on the north-west coast; and some of the most important events in the history of that part of the world occurred there, as may be seen in the 6th and 7th chapters of this memoir. The name of *Nootka* was first applied by Cook, who believed it to be that employed by the natives; no word has, however, since been found in use among them more nearly resembling *Nootka* than *Yuquott*, their name for *Friendly Cove*. A few miles southeast from *Nootka* is another bay called *Chyoquot*; and further in the same direction, at the entrance of the Strait of *Fuca*, is a third called *Nittinat*, in which are many islands.

The *Strait of Fuca* extends between the island last described and the continent, from *Cape Flattery*, directly eastward, about one hundred and twenty miles, and thence northwest about two hundred and fifty miles, communicating with the ocean in the north through an entrance, called by the Americans *Pintard's*, and by the British *Queen Charlotte's Sound*. The southern part of the strait is about forty miles in width; the part running northeast is in some places nearly as wide, but generally much narrower, and is filled with islands. This passage was discovered, in 1592, by *Juan de Fuca*, a Greek pilot, who declared that he had sailed through it into the Atlantic; his statement was, however, disproved in 1792 by *Vancouver*, *Galiano*, and *Valdes*, who surveyed it together, and determined that it was only a great sound. The island which it separates from the continent, in that year received its present long and inconvenient appellation, by agreement between *Vancouver* and the Spanish commandant, *Quadra*.

VIII. The parts of the continent contiguous to these islands have received from British navigators many names, such as *New Norfolk*, *New Cornwall*, *New Hanover*, and *New Georgia*; all of which have become obsolete. The country north of the 58th parallel is almost unknown. Two large rivers, the *Peace River* and the *Turnagain*, flow from it eastward through the Rocky Mountains into the *Mackenzie*, which empties into the Arctic Sea; another river, called the *Stikine*, has also been lately discovered entering the Pacific east of *Duke of York's Island*, in latitude of 56 degrees 50 minutes, which is said to be three miles wide at its mouth and one mile wide thirty miles higher up.

The country on the Pacific, between the 49th and 58th parallels, is usually distinguished by the British fur-traders as *New Caledonia*; and, from all accounts, it resembles the northern part of Scotland in its ruggedness, its lakes, and its barrenness. Its principal lakes are *Stuart's*, *Babine*, and *Frazer's Lakes*, all situated between the 54th and the 56th parallels. *Babine Lake* communicates with the Pacific by a large stream called *Simpson's River*; *Frazer's* and *Stuart's Lakes* are head-waters of *Frazer's River*, which flows from them nearly due south about four hundred miles, and enters the ocean in latitude of 49 degrees. The soil of *New Caledonia* is everywhere sterile, very small portions only being fit for cultivation; and the climate, though much milder than that of the other countries of America between the same latitudes, is generally too severe for the production of the esculent grains and vegetables. The British *Hudson's*

Bay Company have several establishments for carrying on the fur trade in this country, of which the principal are *Fort Alexandria*, on Frazer's River, about three hundred miles from the sea, and *Fort Langly*, at the mouth of the same stream. From these, and other ports in New Caledonia, communications are maintained with Fort Vancouver, on the Columbia, by way of the rivers, and by steam and sail-vessels on the sea.

The *coast of Oregon* extends from the Strait of Fuca to Cape Mendocino: it will be hereafter particularly described.

IX. *Cape Mendocino* presents two points running out into the ocean, about ten miles apart, of which the southernmost, in latitude of 40 degrees 19 minutes, is the highest and the most prominent.

From it the *coast of California* extends southeastward, about one thousand four hundred miles, to Cape San Lucas. On this coast are several harbors, of which the principal will be described.

Port Bodega, communicating with the Pacific in latitude of 38 degrees 19 minutes, is supposed to be the harbor in which Drake lay with his vessel in 1579. Here the Russians made their first settlement in California in 1812. Their chief establishment at present is *Ross*, immediately on the ocean, about thirty miles farther north; it contains about four hundred inhabitants, and from it the northern factories receive their supplies of provisions.

Port San Francisco joins the Pacific, by a passage about two miles wide, under the parallel of 37 degrees 55 minutes. At a short distance from the sea it expands into a large bay, offering, as admitted by all the navigators who have visited it, one of the finest harbors in the world, and possessing every requisite for a great naval establishment. It receives two rivers, the *Jesus Maria* and the *Sacramento*, at its northern extremity, and another called the *San Joaquin* from the south. The Sacramento is navigable for small vessels to the distance of eighty miles from its mouth, beyond which little is known about its course; it is believed, however, to rise in the northeast angle of California, near the junction of the Snowy Mountains with the Rocky Mountains. This bay is much frequented by British and American whaling vessels, and it is, no doubt, destined to be the centre of an extensive commerce. Particular accounts of its numerous advantages may be found in the Journal of the Voyage made by Captain Beechey through the North Pacific in the years 1824-'25.

Monterey Bay is contained in a semicircular recess of the coast, opening westward, about twenty miles in width, between its northern point, *Cape Ano Nuevo* and *Cape Pinos* on the south. Just within Cape Pinos there is good anchorage for vessels, where they are protected from the prevailing northwest winds, and are only in danger from the violent gusts which sometimes blow from the southeast along the whole Californian coast.

Port San Diego, in latitude of 32 degrees 51 minutes, near which the Spaniards planted their first colony on the west coast of California in 1769, is a long arm of the sea, extending southeast from its mouth into the land, and defended against the billows by a sand-ridge.

The *Bay of San Jose*, near the 23d degree, immediately east of Cape San Lucas, at the southernmost part of the peninsula, is probably the same in which the Spaniards first anchored when California was discovered by them in 1535, and which received from Cortes the name of *Port Santa Cruz*. It is one of the places where the pearl-fishery has been most successful.

Near the Californian coast are many small settlements, which were originally established by missionaries of the Franciscan order from Mexico, and were intended chiefly for the purpose of civilizing and converting the natives. During the subsistence of the Spanish authority, these missions were fostered by the Government, and were maintained by means of supplies sent from Mexico; but, since the downfall of that Power, they have not only received little assistance from Mexico, but have, moreover, been taxed for the support of the republic, of which the Indian neophytes were declared to be citizens. These Indians are, however, unfortunately, among the most indolent and unintellectual of the human family; incapable of being affected by any other considerations than those addressed to their present and immediate hopes and fears. The missionaries treated them as children; and those who have been removed from under the care and authority of these priests have uniformly sunk at once into misery and vice. The Mexican population is little, if at all, better than the aboriginal; the soldiers and colonists sent there being generally criminals banished to this—the Botany Bay of the republic.

There is no rain on the coast of California from March to November; during the other months the rains are generally incessant, though in some years very little falls. The dews in summer are, however, so heavy as to prevent the destruction of vegetation. Near the sea, the temperature is at all times salubrious and agreeable, the heat of the sun in summer being moderated by constant breezes; but farther inland it is said to be most oppressive. Agriculture has been, as yet, little practised in this country; the inhabitants subsisting almost entirely on the meat of the wild cattle which cover the plains. The soil and climate appear to be favorable to the growth of every vegetable substance necessary for the subsistence and enjoyment of man; but no large portion of the territory will probably be found productive without artificial irrigation.

Of the interior of California little is known. The northern part, or continental portion, called *New California*, is said to be traversed by mountain-ridges, between which are extensive plains; some covered with grass, forming prairies, others sandy and destitute of vegetation, and others again being marshes. It appears to be certain that very little of the water which falls on this country from the clouds finds its way directly to the sea; as the line of mountains which borders the coast is traversed only by a few inconsiderable streams, besides those emptying into the Bay of San Francisco.

The peninsula, or *Old California*, is about seven hundred miles in length, and one hundred and thirty in breadth where it joins the continent, under the 33d parallel; farther south its breadth is less, not exceeding fifty miles in some places. The whole territory consists of mountains; its climate is hot and dry, the soil is barren, and the inhabitants are few and miserable, deriving their support almost exclusively from the sea.

The *Gulf of California*, or *Sea of Cortes*, or *Vermillion Sea*, which separates the peninsula from the main land of Mexico on the east, is about seven hundred miles in length, varying in breadth from sixty to one hundred and twenty. At its northern extremity it receives two large rivers—the Gila, flowing from the east; and the Colorado, which rises in the north among the Rocky Mountains, about the 40th degree of latitude, near the sources of the Lewis, the Platte, the Arkansas, and the Rio del Norte. The northern part of the territory, on the eastern side of the

gulf, is called *Sonora*, and the southern part *Sinaloa*; they together form one department of the Mexican republic. The harbor of *Guaymas* in Sonora, near the 28th degree of latitude, is said to be one of the best in America, and the town has a large and increasing trade; at the entrance of the gulf, on its eastern side, is another rising commercial place, called *Mazatlan*; and farther south is *San Blas*, among the principal ports of Mexico on the Pacific. The old Mexican towns of *Culiacan*, on the river of the same name a little north of Mazatlan, and *Chiametla*, between the latter place and San Blas, are now nearly deserted.

X. We next proceed to take a—

GENERAL VIEW OF THE PRINCIPAL MOUNTAIN-CHAINS OF NORTH AMERICA.

It has been already said, that the whole western coast of North America is bounded by a continuous chain of mountains; and it may now be added, that the whole interior of the continent, to a considerable distance from the Pacific, is traversed by lofty ridges, separated from each other by valleys or plains of small extent. Of these interior ridges, the principal in every respect is that known by the general name of the *Rocky Mountains*, forming the northern portion of the great chain of highlands which stretches from the Arctic Sea to the Strait of Magellan, dividing, except in a few places, the territories drained by streams flowing into the Atlantic, from those whose waters enter the Pacific. Throughout its whole course, this chain lies nearer to the western shores of the continent than to the eastern, and therefore much the greater quantity of the water which America supplies to the ocean is discharged into the Atlantic.

The general course of the Rocky Mountain ridge is from north-north-west to south-southeast. Between the 58th degree of latitude and the 48th, it is nearly parallel to the Pacific coast, from which its distance is about five hundred miles; from the 48th degree to the 40th, the coast runs due south, so that the distance between it and the ridge is constantly increasing, and on the 40th parallel exceeds seven hundred miles. The name of Rocky Mountains is not applied to any part of the chain south of the last-mentioned latitude; the parts north of the 50th degree are sometimes called the *Chipewyan Mountains*.

The highest points in the Rocky Mountains, and probably in North America, if not in the whole western continent, are those about the 52d degree of latitude, near the northernmost sources of the Columbia river. Mr. Thompson, the astronomer of the Hudson's Bay Trading Company, has measured several of these peaks, of which, one called *Mount Brown* is estimated by him at sixteen thousand feet, and another, *Mount Hooker*, at fifteen thousand seven hundred feet above the ocean level. It has been stated that the same gentleman has recently found other points farther north, which he considers to be more than ten thousand feet higher than either of those above mentioned. About the 42d parallel are also many lofty peaks, particularly among the *Wind-river Mountains*, a spur or offset, which extends southeast from the main chain, and from which flow many of the head-waters of the Missouri and the Yellow Stone Rivers. North of the 56th degree the ridge diminishes in height, and near the Arctic Sea it is only a line of hills.

Near the 42d degree of latitude, three other extensive ridges are united to the Rocky Mountains; one on its eastern side, running towards the

Mexican Gulf, and forming the eastern wall of a great valley or basin, through which flows the river *Bravo del Norte*; another, stretching southwest to and through the peninsula of California, between which and the Rocky Mountains is a vast region, drained principally by the rivers *Colorado* and *Gila*, emptying into the northern extremity of the Californian Gulf; the third ridge is that commonly called the *Snowy Mountains*, running westward to the Pacific, in which it terminates at Cape Mendocino, and completely separating Oregon, or the country of the Columbia, on the north, from California on its southern side. From the place of union of these chains also flow the head-waters of the Bravo, emptying into the Mexican Gulf—of the Colorado—of the Lewis, the principal southern branch of the Columbia which falls into the Pacific—and of the Missouri, the Yellow Stone, the Platte, and the Arkansas, all of which are discharged into the Mississippi.

Near the place of union of these chains is a remarkable depression of the Rocky Mountains, called the *Southern Pass*, affording a short and easy route for carriages between the head-waters of the south branch of the Platte, on the east, and those of the Colorado, on the west; from which latter, is another pass through the mountains, northward, to the Lewis River. There are other depressions of the great chain farther north, between the Yellow Stone, on the one side, and the Salmon River and Flathead branches of the Columbia, on the other; but they offer much greater difficulties to the traveller than the Southern Pass, which is, and will probably continue to be, the principal avenue of communication between the United States and the territories of the Far West.

In latitude of 53 is the great cleft, from which the Columbia flows, on one side, to the Pacific, and the Athabasca, on the other, to the Mackenzie emptying into the Arctic Ocean. Farther north, the Peace and the Turnagain Rivers, which rise near the Pacific, pass through the Rocky Mountains into the Mackenzie.

Respecting the *Snowy Mountains*, very little exact information has been obtained. They appear to run in an unbroken line, from Cape Mendocino to the Rocky Mountains, between the 39th and the 42d parallels of latitude, and to be united with the other ridges extending northward and southward. Whether they are to be considered as a distinct chain, or as formed by the union of branches from the others, is a question interesting only to the geologist; certain it is, that they present a complete barrier between California and the country of the Columbia.

XI. The remainder of this sketch will be devoted entirely to the consideration of—

OREGON, OR THE COUNTRY OF THE COLUMBIA.

Oregon, considered as comprehending the territory drained by the *Columbia* river, together with the seacoasts of that territory, lies within the following natural boundaries: *on the east*, the Rocky Mountains, extending about nine hundred miles, from the 54th parallel to the 41st; *on the south*, the Snowy Mountains, in their whole length about seven hundred miles, from the Rocky Mountains to Cape Mendocino, on the Pacific, near the 40th degree of latitude; *on the west*, the Pacific Ocean, from Cape Mendocino, about five hundred miles due north, to Cape Flattery, at the entrance of the Strait of Fuca, near the 48th degree of latitude; and *on*

the north, the Strait of Fuca, from Cape Flattery, about one hundred and twenty miles eastward, and thence by a line running northeast, along the summit of the highlands separating the waters of the Columbia from those of Frazer's River, to the Rocky Mountains, which it would reach about the 54th degree of latitude. Such are the natural boundaries of the territory drained by the Columbia, the surface of which may be estimated at about three hundred and fifty thousand square miles.

The coast of Oregon on the Strait of Fuca is about one hundred and twenty miles in length, eastward from Cape Flattery, where the strait joins the Pacific under the parallel of 48 degrees 23 minutes. The shores are composed of low sandy cliffs, overhanging beaches of sand or stones; from them the land ascends gradually to the foot of the mountains, which rise abruptly to a great height within a few miles of the sea. The only harbor immediately on the strait is *Port Discovery*, situated near the southeast angle, which Vancouver pronounces perfectly safe and convenient for ships of any size; it runs southward from the strait into the land, and is defended from the violence of the waves by *Protection Island*, which stretches partly across its entrance on the north. A few miles farther east a long arm of the sea, called *Admiralty Inlet*, penetrates the continent, southward from the strait, more than one hundred miles, terminating near the 47th degree of latitude in a bay named by Vancouver *Puget's Sound*; *Hood's Canal* is a branch of this inlet, extending southwestward, and many smaller branches are given off on each side. The country surrounding Admiralty Inlet is described by Vancouver as beautiful, fertile, and in every respect agreeable; and the bay, with its numerous arms stretching into the interior, must offer great advantages for commercial intercourse hereafter. The Hudson's Bay Company has trading-posts on these waters, of which the principal is *Fort Nasqually*, at the southernmost part of Puget's Sound.

On the Pacific, the coast of Oregon extends five hundred miles in a line nearly straight from north to south, presenting in its whole length but two places of refuge for vessels. The northernmost of these is *Bullfinch's* or *Gray's Bay*, discovered in May, 1792, by Captain Robert Gray, of Boston; it is situated in latitude of 46 degrees 58 minutes, and offers a secure anchorage for small vessels, sheltered from the sea by sandy spits and bars. "It appears to be of little importance as a port, in its natural state," says Vancouver, "as it affords but two or three situations where boats can approach sufficiently near the shore to effect a landing;" yet should the country become settled, this and other disadvantages may, perhaps, be corrected by artificial means. The other harbor is the *mouth of the River Columbia*, about thirty miles south of the former, which was also discovered by Captain Gray, and received from him the name of his ship; it will be described particularly hereafter. *Port Trinidad*, so called by the Spaniards who anchored there in 1775, is an open roadstead in latitude 41 degrees 3 minutes, entirely unprotected from the ocean, and, according to Vancouver, unworthy to be called a harbor. Several small rivers fall into the Pacific south of the Columbia, of which the principal are the *Klamet* and the *Umqua*, both discharging their waters near the 43d parallel. Vessels drawing not more than eight feet water may enter the Umqua; at the mouth of which the Hudson's Bay Company have a trading-factory.

On this coast are several capes; none of which, however, project far

into the ocean. The most remarkable is *Cape Blanco*, discovered by the Spanish navigator Aguilar in 1803, and named by Vancouver in 1792 *Cape Orford*; it lies nearly under the 43d parallel, and is the extremity of a line of highlands which separates the valley of the Umqua, on the north, from the Klamet, on the south. The only island between Cape Flattery and Cape Mendocino, which has been thought worthy of a name, is one close to the continent, near the latitude of $47\frac{1}{2}$ degrees, called by the Spaniards *Isla de Dolores*, or *Isle of Grief*, in commemoration of the murder of some of their men on the contiguous main land; it afterwards received the appellation of *Destruction Island*, from a similar loss there sustained by a British vessel in 1787.

XII. The territory drained by the *Columbia* presents a constant succession of mountain-ridges and valleys, or plains of small extent. The principal ridges are two in number, besides the Rocky Mountains, running nearly parallel to each other and to the coasts; and the country is thus divided into three great regions, which differ materially in climate, soil, and productive powers. The *first region*, or *low country*, is that between the coast and the chain of mountains nearest to the sea; the *second region* is between the mountains nearest the sea and the middle ridge, called the Blue Mountains; and the *third region*, or *high country*, is between the Blue Mountains and the Rocky Mountains. All these divisions are crossed by the *Columbia*, the main stream of which is formed in the middle region, by the union of several branches flowing from the Rocky Mountains, and receiving in their course supplies from innumerable smaller tributaries draining the intermediate countries.

The chain of mountains running nearest the Pacific, southward from the Strait of Fuca, has received many names, no one of which appears to have been generally adopted. It is called the *California Mountains*; the *Klamet Mountains*, from the Indian nation which occupies a part of the territory on its western side; and the *Cascade Mountains*, from the cascades or cataracts formed by the *Columbia*, in passing through the ridge. Mr. Kelly, a patriotic American citizen, has proposed to call it the *President Range*, and has accordingly assigned to the seven highest peaks, respectively, the names of the Chief Magistrates of the United States, from Washington to Jackson, in succession.* These mountains are of considerable elevation, and many of their summits are visible from a great distance at sea, especially the most northern, called *Mount Olympus*, near Cape Flattery. Mr. Wyeth speaks thus rapturously of the view of them from the top of one of the Blue Mountains: "The traveller going west, sees the high points of the California Mountains, about one hundred and sixty miles distant, some of which rise about sixteen thousand feet above the level of the Pacific. All other views in America sink into littleness in comparison with this. From one spot, I have seen seven of

* Kelly's *Mount Washington* is the same called by Vancouver *Mount Hood*, rising due east of the mouth of the *Columbia*, at the distance of about one hundred miles; *Mount Adams* is the *Mount St. Helen's*, of the same navigator, under the 45th parallel; *Mount Jefferson* received that name from Lewis and Clarke, in 1805; it is the lofty peak in latitude of 44½ degrees, which the British fur-traders have thought proper to call *Mount Vancouver*; *Mount Madison* is the *Mount Maclaughlin* of the British maps; *Mount Monroe* is in latitude of 43 degrees 20 minutes; *Mount John Quincy Adams* is in 42 degrees 10 minutes; *Mount Jackson* is a stupendous pinnacle, under the parallel of 41 degrees 40 minutes, called by the British *Mount Pitt*.

the high points of this range, extending from north to south, their perfect whiteness and steep conical shape causing them to appear like huge sugar-loaves."*

The distance from the coast to the foot of this chain is in some places one hundred miles, in others much less. The intervening country is crossed in various directions by low ridges connected with the principal chain, some of which run parallel to it, while others stretch towards the ocean. Between these ridges are valleys, of which the two most extensive lie immediately at the base of the great chain, and are drained by rivers flowing into the Columbia; the waters from the others falling directly into the Pacific. Of the two rivers which empty into the Columbia, the northern, called the *Covilitz*, has been imperfectly examined, and little has been reported concerning it. The southern, described by Lewis and Clarke as the *Multonomah*, but now more generally known as the *Wallamet*, has been traced more than two hundred miles due south, from its entrance into the Columbia, through a valley which is said to be the most delightful and fertile part of Northwest America.

The climate of this region is more favorable to agriculture than those of the other parts of Oregon, although it is certainly adverse to great productiveness. The summer is warm and very dry. From April to October, while the westerly winds prevail, rain seldom falls in any part of Oregon; during the other months, when the south wind blows constantly, the rains are almost incessant in the lower region, although sometimes the dry season there continues longer. Farther from the Pacific, the rains are less frequent and abundant; and near the Rocky Mountains, they are reduced to a few showers in the spring. In the valleys of the low country snow is rarely seen, and the ground is not often frozen, so that ploughing may generally be carried on during the whole winter. In 1834 the Columbia was frozen for thirteen days, but this was principally in consequence of the accumulation of ice from above. "This country," says Mr. Wyeth, "is well calculated for wheat, barley, oats, rye, pease, apples, potatoes, and all the roots cultivated in the northern States of the Union; Indian corn does not succeed well, and is an unprofitable crop. The yield of wheat, with very poor cultivation, is about fifteen bushels of the best quality to the acre. Horses and neat cattle succeed tolerably well; the winter being mild, they are enabled to subsist upon the produce of the open fields. Hogs live and multiply, but cannot be made fat on the range of the country. The agriculture of this region must always suffer from the extreme dryness of the summer. The products which ripen earliest sustain the least damage, but those which come late are often injured."

Of the soil of this region, the same acute observer says: "The uplands are tolerably good, but the cost of clearing the enormous growth of timber on them would be beyond their worth; it is too thick and heavy to allow of crops being obtained by girdling the trees; and it must be removed or burnt, the labor of which is beyond the conception of those acquainted only with the forests of the United States. There are, however, prairies sufficiently numerous and extensive for the cultivation of the next century, which, being chiefly on the second bottoms of rivers, are extremely fertile, and above inundation." The forests in this part of

* Letter from Nath. Wyeth, in the report of the committee of the House of Representatives on the Oregon Territory, presented February 16, 1838. See page 196 of this memoir.

America are, from all accounts, magnificent. Ross Cox describes a fir growing near Fort George, or Astoria, on the Columbia, about eight miles from the sea, which measured forty-six feet in circumference at ten feet from the ground, one hundred and fifty-three feet in length before giving off a branch, and not less than three hundred feet in its whole height. Another tree, of the same species, is said to be standing on the banks of the Umqua, the trunk of which is fifty-seven feet in circumference, and two hundred and sixteen feet in length, below its branches. Cox adds, that "prime sound pines, from two hundred to two hundred and eighty feet in height, and from twenty to forty feet in circumference, are by no means uncommon."

XIII. The *Blue Mountains* extend from north to south, though the whole territory of the Columbia, between the Rocky Mountains and the chain which borders the coast. Their course is not so regular or clearly defined as those of the other chains; and they appear to be broken into several ridges, some of which run towards the Rocky Mountains on the east, while others join the westernmost chain. These mountains are steep and rocky, generally volcanic, and some of them covered with eternal snow; they are crossed by both branches of the Columbia, which also receives several tributaries from the valleys on their western sides.

The *middle region of Oregon*, between the mountains nearest the coast on the west and the *Blue Mountains* on the east, is more elevated, more dry, and less fertile, than the *low country*. It consists chiefly of plains, between ridges of mountains, the soil of which is generally a yellow sandy clay, covered with grass, small shrubs, and prickly pears. Timber is very scarce; the trees, which are small, and of soft useless woods, such as cotton-wood, sumach, and willow, being only found in the neighborhood of the streams. The climate during the summer is universally represented as most agreeable and salubrious; the days are warm, and the nights cool; but the want of moisture in the air prevents the contrast of temperature from being injurious to the health. The rains begin later in the year, and end sooner, than in the lower country, and they are less constant and heavy. There is little snow in the southern valleys; farther north it is more common.

Few attempts at cultivation have been made in this region, and they have not been, upon the whole, successful. Wyeth conceives that "the agriculture of this territory must always be limited to the wants of a pastoral people, and to the immediate vicinity of the streams and mountains; and irrigation must be resorted to, if a large population is to be supported in it. This country, which affords little prospect for the tiller of the soil, is perhaps one of the best for grazing in the world. It has been much underrated by travellers who have only passed by the Columbia, the land along which is a collection of sand and rocks, and almost without vegetation; but a few miles from the Columbia, towards the hills and mountains, the prairies open wide, covered with a low grass of a most nutritious kind, which remains good throughout the year. In September there are slight rains, at which time the grass starts; and in October and November there is a good coat of green grass, which remains so until the ensuing summer; and about June it is ripe in the lower plains, and, drying without being wet, is like made hay; in this state it remains until the autumn rains again revive it. The herdsman in this extensive valley (of more than one hundred and fifty miles in width) could at all times

keep his animals in good grass, by approaching the mountains in summer, on the declivities of which almost any climate may be had; and the dry grass of the country is at all times excellent. It is in this section of the country that all the horses are reared for the supply of the Indians and traders in the interior. It is not uncommon that one Indian owns some hundreds of them. I think this section, for producing hides, tallow, and beef, is superior to any part of North America; for, with equal facilities for raising the animals, the weather in winter, when the grass is best, and consequently the best time to fatten the animals, is cold enough to salt meat, which is not the case in Upper California. There is no question that sheep might be raised to any extent, in a climate so dry and sufficiently warm, where very little snow or rains falls. It is also, I think, the healthiest country I have ever been in, which, I suppose, arises from the small quantity of decaying vegetable matter, and there being no obstruction from timber to the passing winds."

XIV. The *third* and last natural division of Oregon is the *high country*, included between the Blue Mountains on the west and the Rocky Mountains on the east. The southern part of this region is a desert, of steep rocky mountains, deep narrow valleys, called *holes* by the fur-traders, and wide plains, covered with sand or gravel, generally volcanic, which can never be rendered capable of supporting more than a very small number of inhabitants. The distinguishing features of this territory are, *its extreme dryness*, and *the great difference in temperature between the day and the night*. It seldom rains, except during a few days in the spring; there is little snow in the valleys in winter, though a great deal falls occasionally on the mountain tops; and no moisture is deposited in dews. Mr. Wyeth saw the thermometer, on the banks of Snake River, in August, 1832, mark eighteen degrees of Fahrenheit at sunrise, and ninety-two degrees at noon of the same day; and he says that a difference of forty degrees between sunrise and noon is not uncommon. Such circumstances are alone sufficient to render any attempts at cultivation in this region entirely fruitless; and a great portion of the surface is moreover so strongly impregnated with salts of various kinds, that plants could not flourish in it, even were a sufficiency of heat and moisture regularly supplied.

In this region, nevertheless, are situated the sources of all the principal branches of the Columbia, the northernmost of which rises near the 54th parallel, and the southernmost near the 42d; they, of course, receive their waters from the mountains, as very little can be furnished by the valleys. There are also many lakes in this part of America, some of which communicate with the Columbia; the others have no outlets, and their waters are therefore necessarily salt.* The largest of these collections of salt water,

* Whenever water runs on or through the earth, it finds salts, which it dissolves, and carries with itself to its recipient. If that recipient have no outlet either above or under the surface of the earth, by which it communicates with some lower recipient, and thus its waters are not taken from it except by evaporation, the salt carried into it by streams must necessarily be constantly accumulating there, as evaporation does not abstract a single saline particle. If the facts here stated be admitted as true, the deductions cannot be denied; and it is believed that no case can be cited in contradiction of either. In like manner, the surfaces of great plains or valleys, from which the water is not carried off either by streams or by infiltration, are always impregnated with salt. Of this, the high plains of Mexico, and the valleys immediately west of the Rocky Mountains, offer examples; the soil of the parts not regularly drained being so salt as to render vegetation impossible, even where all the other requisites are furnished in abundance. The reverse is not always true; nevertheless, the saltiness of a *large* body of water, or of a *large* extent of ground, affords strong reasons for suspecting that there is no regular drain from it into a lower recipient.

is that called by the Indians *Lake Youta*, and represented on the old Spanish maps as *Lake Timpanogos*, situated in one of the valleys or hollows produced by the interlocking of the Snowy Mountains with the other chains, near the Rocky Mountains. Very little is known as to the extent and position of this lake, except that it is very large, that it is surrounded by high mountains, and that it receives on its northern side a considerable stream, called the *Bear River*. Captain Wyeth places its northern extremity in latitude of 42 degrees 3 minutes. In one of the maps attached to Mr. Irving's account of Captain Bonneville's Adventures in the Far West, that point is represented under the parallel of 42 degrees 50 minutes; while in the other map illustrating the same work, it is placed still farther north by half a degree. In the map annexed to this memoir, *Lake Youta* is made to extend from $40\frac{1}{2}$ to $41\frac{1}{2}$ degrees, on the authority of Arrowsmith; which position appears more conformable than any other with the best accounts.

The northern part of the upper region about the Clarke River is less barren than that which has been just described; the valleys are wider, the rains more frequent, and the soil is freed from salt by the numerous streams which traverse it.

The country east of the Rocky Mountains, for more than two hundred miles, is almost as dry and barren as that immediately on the western side; offering no means of support for a population, except in the vicinity of the rivers, which flow through it from the great chain into the Mississippi. The interposition of this wide desert-tract between the productive regions of the Mississippi and those of the Columbia, must retard the settlement of the latter countries, and exercise a powerful influence over their political destinies.

XV. The *Columbia River* now remains to be particularly noticed, and it will be traced from the sources of its principal confluent to the ocean.

The northernmost stream of the Columbia is *Canoe River*, which rises near the 54th degree of latitude, and near the 52d is joined by two other streams, at a place called by the fur-traders *Boat Encampment*. Of the two streams which join *Canoe River*, one flows from the south along the base of the Rocky Mountains; the other rises in a great gorge of that chain, under the parallel of 53 degrees, its head being a small lake, within a few feet of which is another, whence the waters run into the Athabasca, one of the branches of the Mackenzie. Of this gorge, Cox says: "The country around our encampment presented the wildest and most terrific appearance of desolation. The sun, shining on a range of stupendous glaciers, threw a chilling brightness over the chaotic mass of rocks, ice, and snow, by which we were environed. Close to our encampment, one gigantic mountain, of conical form, towered majestically into the clouds, far above the others; while at intervals, the interest of the scene was heightened by the rumbling noise of a descending avalanche." The ground about this spot is higher than any other in North America, and probably on the whole western continent.

After a course of about two hundred miles due south from the point of union of the three streams above mentioned, the Columbia receives *Macgillivray's River*, and a little lower down *Clarke's*, or the *Flathead River*, both flowing from the Rocky Mountains. Clarke's river is nearly as large as the Columbia, above the place of their junction; its sources are situated within a short distance of those of the Missouri, and, as the interven-

ing ridge is not very high, it will doubtless form one of the great channels of communication between the eastern and the western sides of the continent. In its course it spreads out into a lake, about thirty-five miles long and five or six broad, which is situated in a rich valley, surrounded by lofty snow-clad mountains.

The Clarke rushes down into the Columbia, over a ledge of rocks, a little before the passage of the latter through the Blue Mountains, where it forms the *Kettle Falls*. Just below these falls, on the south side of the river, in latitude of 48 degrees 37 minutes, is situated *Fort Colville*, one of the principal establishments of the Hudson's Bay Company; the country around which is fertile and agreeable, producing wheat, barley, oats, Indian corn, potatoes, peas, and various garden vegetables, in abundance. Thence the river flows due west, receiving in its course the *Spokan* from the south-east, about one hundred miles, to its junction with the *Okanagan*, a large stream from the north, where the Hudson's Bay Company have another fort, called *Fort Okanagan*. This place was first occupied by the Astoria, or Pacific Fur Company, in 1811; from it the Columbia runs south to the latitude of 46 degrees 8 minutes, and there joins the Lewis, or Snake, the great south branch of which will now be in like manner traced from its sources.

The head-waters of the Lewis River are in the angle formed by the Rocky and the Snowy Mountains, between the 42d and the 44th degrees, near the sources of the Colorado, the Platte, the Yellow Stone, and the Missouri. Thence it flows westward along the foot of the Snowy Mountains to the Blue Mountains, through one ridge of which it passes near the 43d degree of latitude, making there the *Salmon*, or *Fishing Falls*. It then runs northwestward to its junction with the Columbia, receiving on its way the *Malade*, the *Wapticacos*, or north branch, and the *Kooskoossee*, or *Salmon River*, from the east, and the *Malheur*, the *Burnt River*, and *Powder River* from the west, besides numerous smaller streams on each side. The Salmon River is believed to be that on and near which the party sent from the United States, in 1811, to form an establishment at the mouth of the Columbia, experienced the dreadful sufferings depicted by Mr. Irving in his *Astoria*.

The Columbia, below the junction of its two great branches, receives the *Walla-walla*, the *Umatalla*, *John Day's River*, and the *Falls River* from the south, and then passes through the range of mountains nearest the Pacific, under the 46th parallel of latitude. At the mouth of the *Walla-walla* is *Fort Walla-walla*, or *Nezpercés*, belonging to the Hudson's Bay Company, near which is some land tolerably well adapted for cultivation. Below this river the Columbia descends considerably, forming many rapids before entering the mountains. The *Falls* are represented by Wyeth as impassable at low water, but passable at high water both up and down. Five miles below them are the *Dalles*, or narrows, where the river rushes through a space not more than one hundred and fifty feet wide, walled in by basaltic columns on both sides; and thirty-six miles lower, are the *Cascades*, which are falls impassable at all times. The tide comes up to the foot of the cascades, and the navigation is good for vessels drawing not more than fourteen feet to this point, which is one hundred and twenty-five miles from the ocean.

At the distance of about one hundred miles from the Pacific, on the north side of the Columbia, and a quarter of a mile from it, stands *Fort*

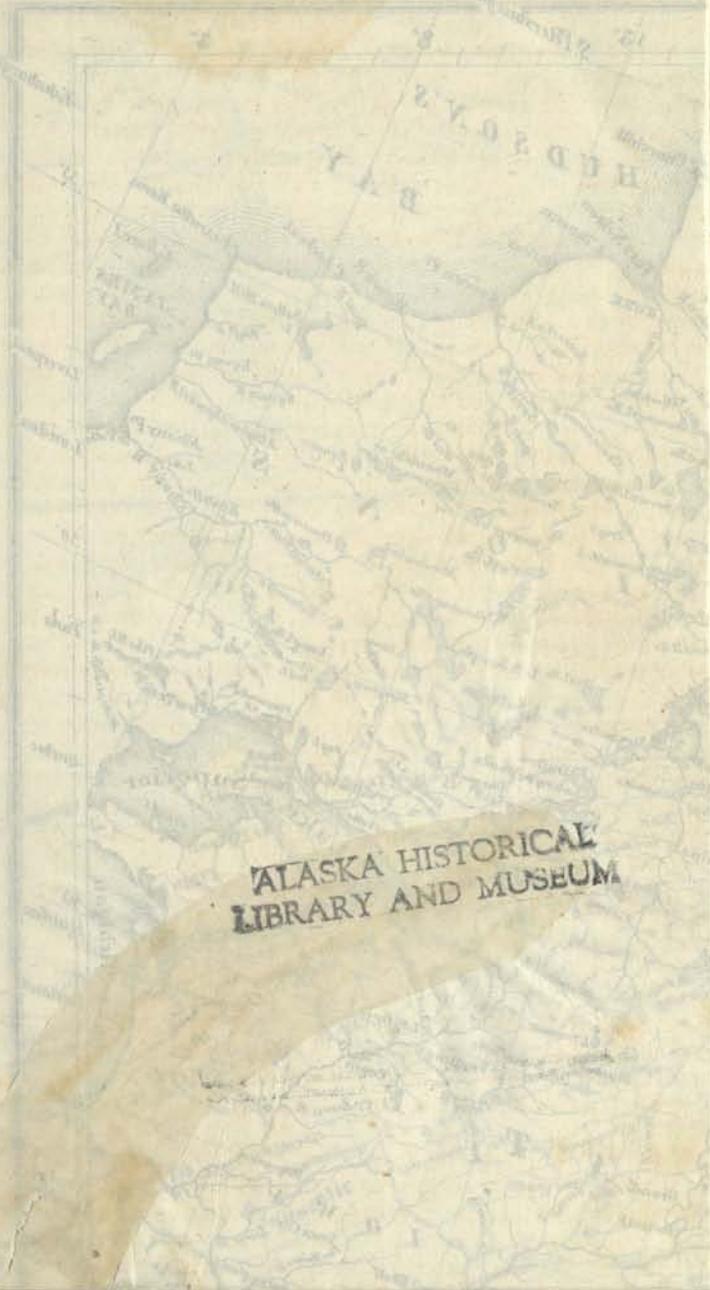
Vancouver, the principal establishment of the Hudson's Bay Company west of the Rocky Mountains. It consists of a number of wooden buildings within a stockade, serving as dwelling-houses, stores, magazines, and workshops; and near it are other small buildings inhabited by the laborers, together with a saw-mill and grist-mill. The whole number of residents at the place is about eight hundred, of whom a large proportion are Indians or half-breeds. Several hundred acres of land near the fort are under cultivation, producing wheat, barley, oats, pease, potatoes, &c., in abundance; and the stock of cattle is also considerable.

The *Multonomah*, or *Wallamet*, enters the Columbia in the south, about twenty miles below Vancouver. It is navigable for small vessels to the distance of twenty miles from its mouth—or, rather, from its mouths, for it divides into two branches before entering the Columbia, and thus forms a long narrow island, on which Captain Wyeth endeavored unsuccessfully to establish an American trading-factory in 1835. At the head of the navigation is a fall, where the river crosses a ridge of hills; before reaching which, it flows through prairies of the richest ground, varying in breadth from a few feet to several miles. In this delightful valley the Hudson's Bay Company have formed a settlement for its retiring servants; and another has been made by American citizens, under the direction of Methodist missionaries, which is said to be in a prosperous condition. A large body of emigrants to this place sailed from New York in the latter part of 1839; and other persons are said to be now in that city preparing for their departure for the same point.

Astoria, the first settlement made on the Columbia by the Americans in 1811, is on the south side of the river, eight miles from its mouth; it consists at present of only a single house, occupied by the Hudson's Bay Company, and called *Fort George*.

The Columbia, twenty-five miles from the sea, varies in width from seven miles to one, and that part of the river has been, in consequence, sometimes considered as a bay or inlet; this view is, however, contradicted by the fact, that the water continues to be fresh and potable to the immediate vicinity of the Pacific, except when the stream is very low, or the wind has long blown violently from the west. The river enters the Pacific between two points of land: one, on the north, called *Cape Disappointment*, or *Cape Hancock*, in latitude of 46 degrees 18 minutes; the other, called *Point Adams*, being seven miles southeast from the former. From each of these points a sand-bar runs into the water; above which the waves of the Pacific, on the one side, and the torrents of the Columbia, on the other, meet with terrific violence, producing a most formidable line of breakers. These circumstances render the entrance and departure of vessels hazardous at all times, and almost impossible when the winds are high. The depth of the water, between the bars, is thirty feet at the lowest; no vessel drawing more than fourteen feet can, however, proceed far up the river, on account of the irregularities of the channel.

This river, like the others in Northwest America, abounds in fish, particularly in salmon, which ascend all its branches up to the Blue Mountains, and form the principal means of subsistence for the natives of the first and middle regions. Of those natives, the limits of the present sketch do not admit a detailed description; they are supposed to be in number about twenty thousand, all savages incapable of civilization.



ALASKA HISTORICAL
LIBRARY AND MUSEUM

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1495.

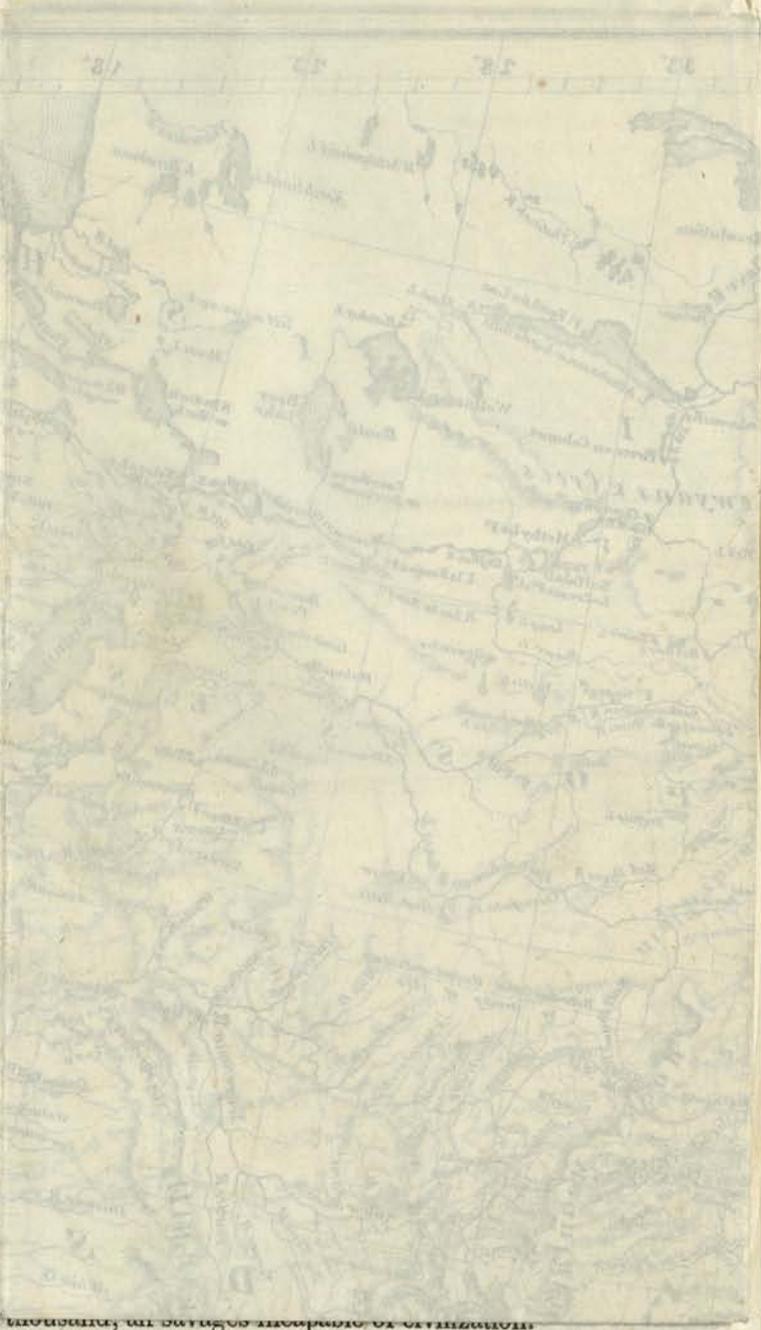
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MEMOIR,
HISTORICAL AND POLITICAL,
ON THE
NORTHWEST COAST OF NORTH AMERICA,
AND
THE ADJACENT TERRITORIES.

CHAPTER I.

Preliminary observations—Early attempts of the Spaniards to explore the western coasts of North America—Voyages made by authority of Hernan Cortes—Discovery of California by Becerra, in 1535—Voyage of Cortes in the Gulf of California—Discovery of the west coast of California by Ulloa, in 1539—Expeditions of Coronado and Alarcon—Voyage of Cabrillo, in 1542—Establishment of direct intercourse by the Pacific, between Mexico and India—Visit of Francis Drake to the northwest coast in 1579.

THE territories first seen by Europeans on the western side of the Atlantic were naturally supposed to be parts of Asia, or to lie in the immediate vicinity of that continent, the eastern limits of which were then unknown; and, as the circumference of the earth was moreover, at that time, considered to be much less than it really is, hopes were entertained among the maritime nations of Europe that some route for their ships to India, safer and shorter than any around the southern extremity of Africa, would be speedily discovered. 1493.

It was under the influence of such expectations that the united Spanish Sovereigns concluded with the King of Portugal the celebrated Treaty of Partition, founded on the bull issued in 1494, by Pope Alexander VI. Agreeably to this treaty, the Spaniards were to make no attempts to communicate with India by sea through eastern routes, which became in a manner the property of Portugal; while, on the other hand, they were to possess exclusive control and use of every western channel of intercourse with those countries, which might be discovered. This and other important questions of jurisdiction having been thus definitively settled between the two greatest maritime Powers of Europe, under the guaranty of the highest authority then recognised among civilized nations, each of the parties to the treaty continued its researches within the limits assigned to it. 1495.



EAC-SIMILE of a Medal struck at Boston in 1787 on occasion of the departure of the vessels COLUMBIA and WASHINGTON for the North West Coast of America, taken from one of the original Medals, deposited by the HON. C. CUSHING, in the Library of the Department of State of the United States.

THE
NORTH-WEST-COAST
 or
 NORTH AMERICA
 and
 adjacent Territories

Compiled from the best authorities under the direction of Robert Greenhow to accompany his Memoir on the North-west Coast Published by order of the Senate of the United States drawn by David H. Burr.

Note. The names of places on the border of the Map show their respective Latitudes.



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1498. In these examinations, the Portuguese were the most successful. They soon found their way by the Cape of Good Hope to India, where they firmly established their pre-eminence; while the Spaniards were vainly exploring the Atlantic coasts of the New World, in search of some opening through which they might penetrate with their ships into the ocean bathing the southern side of Asia. At length, in 1513, Vasco Nuñez de Balboa, the Governor of the Spanish colony of Darien, on the Atlantic, after a short march across the mountains overlooking that place, arrived on the shore of a sea, which was supposed to be no other than the long-sought Southern ocean; and, as the proximity of this sea to the Atlantic was at the same time demonstrated, farther encouragement was afforded for the hope that the two great waters would be found united in a position the most favorable for the prosecution of the desired objects. The researches of the Spaniards were, in consequence, directed particularly towards the isthmus of Darien; and were conducted with zeal, until the fact of the entire separation of the oceans in that quarter was determined.
1519. In the mean time, however, Fernando Magalhaens, or Magellan, a Portuguese in the service of Spain, discovered the strait which has ever since borne his name, and, having passed through it with his ships, continued his voyage westward to India. The grand geographical question, as to the possibility of circumnavigating the earth, was thus solved; but not in a manner satisfactory to the Spaniards. The strait of Magellan was intricate, and beset by dangers of every kind; and it was itself almost as distant from Europe as India by the eastern route. Moreover, the sea intervening between the new continent and Asia proved to be much wider than had been supposed; and, in every part of it, which was traversed by vessels for many years after its discovery, the winds were found to blow constantly from eastern points.
1520. These circumstances, as they successively became known, contributed to depress the hopes of the Spaniards, with regard to the establishment of their dominion in India; other events, however, occurred at the same time, which consoled them in part for the disappointment, and fixed their attention upon the New World.
- 1517
to
1532. While Magellan's voyage was in progress, the rich and populous empire of Mexico was discovered, and it was soon after conquered by the Spaniards, under Hernan Cortes. Within the ensuing ten years Peru and Chili were likewise subjected to the authority of the Spanish monarch; and the silver of America began to be considered as ample compensation for the loss of the spices and diamonds of India. The brilliant results of these extraordinary enterprises attracted from Europe crowds of adventurers, all eager to acquire wealth and distinction by similar means, who, uniting in bands under daring leaders, traversed the new continent in various directions, seeking rich nations to plunder. Fortunately for the cause of humanity, these expeditions were fruitless, so far at least as regards the object for which they were undertaken; on the other hand, much information was speedily acquired by means of them, respecting the geography of coasts

and regions, which would not otherwise have been explored, perhaps, for centuries.

Among those who were at this period engaged in endeavoring to discover new kingdoms in America, and new passages between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, the most zealous and persevering was Hernan Cortes. Scarcely *had he effected the establishment of the Spanish authority in Mexico, ere he commenced preparations for exploring the adjacent seas and countries; in expeditions of which nature he employed a great portion of his time, as well as of his private fortune, during the whole period of his residence in that kingdom. In prosecution of his plans, the interior, as well as the coasts on both sides of the region connecting Mexico with South America, were minutely explored, until it had been ascertained that no wealthy nations occupied those territories, and that the two seas were entirely separated by land throughout the whole extent. This arduous task having been accomplished, the enterprising conqueror of Mexico directed his attention towards the northwest.

1517
to
1532.

At that period, the most northern settlements of the Spaniards in the American continent were: on the Atlantic side, Panuco, situated near the spot now occupied by the town of Tampico, within a few miles of the Mexican Gulf; and, on the Pacific, Culiacan, a small place near the eastern side of the entrance to the Gulf of California. Northward of these settlements, which were both in the vicinity of the tropic of Cancer, nothing was known of the continent, except with regard to some isolated portions of its eastern coasts.

It should here be observed, that the accounts which have descended to us of all voyages performed before the middle of the last century, and of all Spanish voyages to a much more recent period, are very defective, especially as regards geographical positions. Seldom, indeed, is it possible to identify a spot by means of the descriptions contained in those accounts. This arises, in the first place, from the circumstance that such narratives were usually written by priests, or other persons unacquainted with nautical matters, who paid little attention to latitudes and bearings. In the next place, the instruments employed in those days for determining the altitudes and relative distances of heavenly bodies were so imperfect, both in plan and in execution, that observations made with them on land, and under the most favorable conditions of atmosphere, led to results which were far from accurate; while at sea, when there was much motion in the vessel, or the air was not absolutely clear, those instruments were useless. To these causes of error are to be added the want of proper methods of calculation, as well as of knowledge of various modifying circumstances, such as refraction, aberration, &c. Hence, it followed that the statements of latitude, given in the accounts above mentioned, are of little value as indicating the positions of places, and are at best only approximative; while those of longitude, being,

* Letter of Cortes to Charles V., written from Mexico, in 1523.

1531. when given at all, deduced merely from the notes of the vessel's course and rate of sailing, are entirely worthless. It is scarcely necessary to add that this uncertainty as to the geographical situations of places produced confusion with regard to names; and, accordingly, we find that there are few remarkable spots on the northwest coast of America, discovered before the middle of the last century, which have not at different times been distinguished by many different appellations.

Respecting the voyages of discovery, made by order of Cortes in the Atlantic seas, little is to be found on record; and no notice of them is required for our present purposes. The first expedition, under his auspices, towards the northwest, took place in 1532, and terminated most disastrously.

1532. This expedition was commanded by Diego Hurtado de Mendoza, a relation of Cortes, who sailed from Acapulco in a small ship, accompanied by another under Juan de Mazuela; they advanced together along the southwest coast of Mexico, as far north as the 27th degree of latitude, and were there separated by a storm: after which nothing more was heard of the vessel commanded by Mendoza. The other ship, under Mazuela, was obliged, after the storm, to put back to the river of Culiacan, the nearest Spanish port, where she was deserted by the greater part of her crew. Those who remained then endeavored to carry her to Acapulco; but she was stranded on the shore of the province of Jalisco, near the place where San Blas now stands; and her crew, with the exception of three, were murdered by the savages. The vessel was subsequently seized and rifled by Nuño de Guzman, the chief of a roving band of adventurers, who, assuming the title of Governor of Jalisco, pretended to act for the Sovereign of Spain, independently of Cortes.

1533. A year having elapsed after the departure of these vessels, without any news being received of them, Cortes despatched two others in the same direction, under Hernando de Grijalva and Diego de Becerra, who sailed together from Tehuantepec on the 30th of October, 1533.

Grijalva, being soon separated from his companion, took a westward course, and reached a group of small islands at the distance of a hundred and fifty miles from the main land, (now called the Revillagigedo islands;) after which he returned to Mexico, without having effected any other discovery.

Meanwhile, Becerra, likewise sailing westward from Tehuantepec, found land almost immediately under the tropic of Cancer, and anchored in a small bay, where his men, having obtained some valuable pearls, became anxious to fix themselves for a time. This Becerra refused to permit; and he was preparing to continue his voyage, when a mutiny took place, in the course of which he was murdered, and the command was assumed by Fortunio Ximenes, the pilot. In pursuance of their plan, the mutineers then landed, and began to construct habitations on the shore of the bay; but, while thus engaged, they were surprised by a body of savages, who killed nearly the whole of them. The survivors escaped with the vessel, and succeeded in navigating her over to

the little port of Chiametla, on the coast of Jalisco, where she was also seized by the lawless Nuño de Guzman. 1533.

It may be mentioned, at once, that the land thus discovered by Becerra was the southern extremity of the peninsula of California. The bay in which his ship was lying at the time of his assassination is supposed to be that now called the bay of La Paz, and sometimes the bay of San Jose.*

When Cortes became assured of the seizure and spoliation of his vessels by Guzman, he prosecuted that person before the *Audiencia*, or royal court of justice of Mexico, which immediately decided in his favor. The pretended Governor of Jalisco, however, proved refractory, and refused to make restitution; whereupon, the conqueror assembled a body of troops, and marched at their head to Chiametla, in order to recover his vessels, and re-establish his authority in that country. On his approach, Guzman fled, with his adherents, to the interior; and Cortes having been joined at Chiametla, agreeably to his orders, by three vessels, determined to proceed with them in person to the new country discovered by Becerra in the west, which was said to be so rich in pearls and precious stones. 1534.

He accordingly embarked with his forces at Chiametla, and on the 3d of May, the day of the *Invention or Finding of the Holy Cross*, agreeably to the Roman Catholic calendar, he reached the bay in which Becerra had been murdered. In honor of this day, the name of *La Santa Cruz* (the Holy Cross) was bestowed upon the country, as well as on the bay; and possession having been solemnly taken of the whole in the name of the Sovereign of Spain, preparations were commenced for the establishment of a colony on the spot. These arrangements being completed, Cortes took his departure with two vessels, to examine the coasts of the new territory towards the north and east, for the purpose of assuring himself whether or not it was united to the American continent. 1535. April 15.

Of the voyage made by Cortes in the arm of the sea between California and the continent, the accounts are so confused and contradictory that it is impossible to ascertain his route. It appears, however, that, although he crossed this sea several times, he did not reach its northern extremity. After some time spent in this manner, during which his vessels were frequently in danger of destruction from storms, and their crews were suffering from want of provisions, he at length returned to Santa Cruz, where he found the colonists in the utmost distress from famine and privations of all sorts. Under these circumstances, he resolved to go back to Mexico, in order to procure supplies; which he accordingly did, leaving the colony in charge of his lieutenant, Francisco de Ulloa.

On arriving at Acapulco, in the beginning of 1536, Cortes learned that, during his absence from Mexico, he had been superseded 1536.

* The accounts of these voyages are derived from Herrera's History of the Spanish Empire in America, and from Navarrete's Introduction to the Journal of the voyage of the *Sutil* and *Mexicana*.

1536. in the government of that country by Don Antonio de Mendoza, a nobleman of high rank, who had already made his entrance into the capital as Viceroy. The conqueror thus saw himself, in a moment, despoiled of his power, in the territory which had been, through his exertions, added to the Spanish dominions; and the blow was the more severe, as his private property had been almost entirely expended in his endeavors to make new discoveries. He was, however, not to be depressed by these difficulties; and as he still possessed the right, in his quality of Admiral of the South Sea, to prepare and despatch vessels upon the Pacific, he immediately resolved to engage in another expedition towards the northwest, where he hoped to find the means of retrieving his fortunes. He accordingly recalled Ulloa and the colonists from Santa Cruz; and having with difficulty succeeded in raising the necessary funds, he equipped three ships for the contemplated voyage, which was not commenced until 1539.

1539. The command of this expedition was intrusted to Francisco de Ulloa, Cortes being obliged to remain at Mexico in order to attend to some important suits at law, in which he had become involved. Ulloa quitted Acapulco on the 8th of July, 1539, and, after losing one of his ships in a storm near the coast of Culiacan, he sailed with the two others towards the west, as far as the harbor of Santa Cruz, which, as well as the surrounding country, began by this time to be called *California*.*

To ascertain the extent of this country, and whether it was connected with America or with Asia, or was detached from both those continents, were the first objects of the voyage; in pursuance of which, the Spanish navigator directed his course from Santa Cruz northward, through the arm of the ocean separating California from the main land of Mexico on the east. In this course he proceeded, examining both shores, until he had convinced himself that the two territories were united near the 33d degree of latitude. He then returned southward to Santa Cruz, through the same arm of the ocean, to which he gave the appropriate name of *Mar de Cortes*, (Sea of Cortes.) This great gulf has since received a variety of appellations, of which that principally used by the Spaniards is *Mar Vermejo*, (Vermillion Sea.) Among all other nations, it is known as the Gulf of California.

Having thus ascertained the continuity of California with America in the northeast, Ulloa next proceeded to examine the western sides of the new country. With this view, he sailed from the harbor of Santa Cruz, around the southern extremity of the land which is now called Cape San Lucas; thence he advanced along the coast, northward, struggling almost constantly against the violent northwest winds which prevail in that part of the Pacific, until he reached the 30th degree of latitude. By the time of his arrival at that parallel, many of the men in both vessels were disabled by sickness, and the stock of provisions was much reduced;

1540,
Mar. 25.

* With regard to the origin or the signification of the word California, many speculations have been offered, none of which are either satisfactory or ingenious.

in consequence of which, it was determined that one of the vessels should go back to Mexico, carrying the sick and the news of their discoveries, while Ulloa should remain in the other for the purpose of examining the coast still farther. The necessary arrangements having been accordingly made, the two vessels parted at the Isle of Cedars, (now called *Isla de Cerros*, or Isle of Mountains,) situated near the coast, in the 28th degree of latitude. The vessel called the *Santa Agueda*, bearing the sick and the despatches, reached Acapulco in safety before the end of May, 1540. Whether or not Ulloa ever returned to Mexico, is not known with certainty.* Thus terminated the last expedition of discovery made by authority of Hernan Cortes.

1540.

April 5.

In the mean time, the Viceroy, Don Antonio de Mendoza, who succeeded Cortes in the government of Mexico, had also become interested in the examination of the coasts and countries north of that kingdom; his attention having been thus directed by the accounts of some persons who had made a long and toilsome peregrination across those regions.

These persons, Alvaro Nuñez, (better known in history as *Cabeza Vaca*, or Bull-head,) two other Spaniards, and a negro, had landed, in 1527, near Tampa Bay, in East Florida, among the adventurers under Panfilo Narvaez, who invaded that country in search of mines or nations to plunder; and after the destruction of their comrades by starvation, shipwreck, and the arrows of the savages, had wandered for nine years through forests and deserts, until, at length, they reached Culiacan, near the Gulf of California, in 1536. Although these adventurers had themselves seen no signs of cultivation or wealth in the territories thus traversed, yet they had received from the savages, on their way, many confused accounts of rich and populous kingdoms situated still farther northward; and the Viceroy, having heard their statements, thought proper to endeavor to ascertain the truth of the reports. For this purpose he was induced, by the advice and solicitation of his friend, the celebrated Bartolomé de las Casas, to employ two Franciscan friars, in place of the soldiers who were usually sent on such expeditions; in order that the natives might be in this manner preserved from the violence which military men would not fail to exercise, if opportunity should be offered for the gratification of their cupidity.

1527 to
1536.

The friars, Marcos de Niza and Honorato, with the negro who had accompanied Cabeza Vaca, and some Indians, accordingly departed from Culiacan on the 7th of March, 1539. What route they took it is impossible now to discover. The reverend explorers, however, returned before the end of the year, (without the negro,) bringing accounts of countries which they had visited in the northwest, abounding in gold and precious stones, and in-

1539.

Mar. 7.

* Our knowledge of Ulloa's voyage is derived chiefly from the narrative of Francisco Preciado, one of the officers of the *Santa Agueda*, which is interesting, though by no means exact. It may be found in Italian, in the Collection of Ramusio, vol. iii, page 233; and in English, though badly translated, in the reprint of Hakluyt, vol. iii, page 503.

1539. habited by a population more numerous and more civilized than either Mexico or Peru.

According to the letter* addressed to the Viceroy by friar Marcos, upon his return, these rich and delightful countries were situated beyond the 35th degree of latitude, in the vicinity of the sea, and were separated from those previously known to the Spaniards by extensive tracts of forest and desert, through which it would be necessary to pass in order to reach the golden region. The friar describes with minuteness his route, as well as the situation, extent, and divisions of the new countries; dwelling particularly on the magnificence and greatness of a city called *Cibola*, the capital of a province of the same name, which he describes as containing more than twenty thousand large stone houses, all richly adorned with gold and jewels. The people of this place, as the letter says, were at first hostile to the strangers, and had killed the negro; but, in the end, they had evinced a disposition to embrace Christianity, and to submit to the authority of Spain; in consequence of which, the friars had secretly taken possession of the whole country for their Sovereign, by setting up crosses in various parts.

These, and other things of the like nature, gravely related by ecclesiastics, who professed to have witnessed what they described, were admitted as true by the Viceroy; and he accordingly prepared, without delay, to conquer these new countries, which were considered as belonging of right to his Catholic Majesty, as well as to convert their inhabitants to Christianity. For these purposes, he raised a body of soldiers and missionaries, who were to pursue the route described by friar Marcos, under the command of Francisco Vasquez de Coronado, the governor of the territory immediately north of Mexico, called New Galicia. At the same time, in order, if there should be occasion, to support these forces, a small squadron was sent along the western coast, towards the north, under the direction of Fernando de Alarcon.

1540. Cortes also claimed the right, as Admiral of the South Sea, to attempt the conquest of these countries by means of a naval armament; and a violent dispute in consequence arose between the two chiefs. The conqueror, however, had expended all his disposable funds upon the equipment of the ships† which he had sent out under Ulloa, before the return of friar Marcos from the north; and he had, therefore, only to console himself with the hope that those vessels might accidentally have reached the shores of the golden land before its invasion by the forces of the Viceroy. In this expectation he was disappointed, as already shown. This extraordinary man, soon after the conclusion of Ulloa's voyage, returned to Spain, where he passed the remaining seven years of his life in vain efforts to procure restitution of his prop-

* See Ramusio, vol. iii, page 297; and Hakluyt, vol. iii, page 438.

† Herrera says that Ulloa was sent by Cortes to subdue the countries discovered by friar Marcos. This is, however, an error, if the dates given by him and the other historians of that period be correct.

erty and honors, in the vast and valuable dominions which he had rendered subject to the crown of Castile. 1540.

* Fernando de Alarcon, the commander of the naval forces sent by Mendoza for the conquest of Cibola, sailed from the harbor of Santiago, on the west coast of Mexico, with two ships of war, and advanced northward along that coast to the extremity of the Californian gulf, where he found the entrance of a large and rapid river. Having embarked, with a portion of his crew, in boats, upon this river, to which he gave the name of *Nuestra Señora de Buena Guia*, (Our Lady of Safe Conduct,) he ascended one of its branches, (probably that now called the *Colorado*,) to the distance of eighty leagues from its mouth. Throughout this whole distance he found the stream broad and rapid, and the country on either side rich and thickly peopled, though occupied only by savages. In reply to the inquiries made by him respecting Coronado's party, and the rich territories of which they were in search, he received a number of confused stories of kingdoms abounding in gold and precious stones, and inhabited by civilized nations; of rivers filled with crocodiles; of droves of buffaloes; of enchanters, and other wonderful or remarkable objects. At the extremity of his course up the river, he received what he considered definite information respecting Cibola, and was even assured that he might reach that country by a march of ten days into the interior. He, however, suspected some treachery on the part of those who gave such assurances; and fearing lest he should be cut off in case he proceeded farther onwards, he descended the river to his ships, and returned to Mexico before the end of the year. His report to the Viceroy displays great self-conceit, and violent animosity against Cortes and Ulloa. Mendoza was, however, so little satisfied with his conduct, that he was, immediately after his return, dismissed from the service.

May 9.

Aug. 26.

The land forces sent under Coronado exhibited much greater perseverance in their search for the rich kingdoms believed to be situated in the northwestern part of America. According to the letter of their general,† who appears to have been a person of sober and resolute character, this body of soldiers and priests, after leaving Culiacan, followed the route described by the two friars, and found the forests and deserts mentioned in their narrative. Having toiled through these dreary regions, however, they had ample cause to distrust the other statements of the reverend discoverers. They indeed reached a country called Cibola, situated nearly in the position assigned by the missionaries to their golden land; but they there saw before them only a half-cultivated territory, thinly inhabited by a people not absolutely barbarous, but yet entirely destitute of that wealth and refinement which had been attributed to them in the reports made to the Viceroy. The magnificent cities were small Indian villages, the

April 22.

August.

* Letter of Alarcon to the Viceroy, in Ramusio, vol. iii, page 303; and in Hakluyt, vol. iii, page 505.

† Ramusio, vol. iii, page 300; Hakluyt, vol. iii, page 447.

1510. largest not containing more than two hundred houses; and the immense quantities of precious metals and stones dwindled down into "a few turquoises," and "some little gold and silver, supposed to be good." In fine, as Coronado says in his despatch written from Cibola, "the reverend father provincial had told the truth in nothing which he said respecting kingdoms, provinces, and cities, in this region; for we have found all quite the contrary."
- The Spaniards, although they were thus disappointed in their hopes of plunder, yet did not like to return empty-handed to Mexico, and petitioned their leader to allow them to settle in Cibola, which was a pleasant and agreeable country. To this request, however, Coronado would not assent; and he could only be prevailed on to continue the march northward for some time longer, in search of other rich countries, which were said by the people of Cibola to lie in that direction. Of the remainder of their journey after quitting Cibola, we have a very imperfect account. It appears that they rambled for two years through the region between the Pacific and the great dividing chain of mountains, deriving their subsistence chiefly from the flesh of the buffaloes, which were there found in large numbers. The northern limit
1541. of their wanderings was a country called by them *Quivira*, near the ocean, and under the 40th degree of latitude, inhabited by a kind and intelligent people, from whom the Spaniards learned that the coasts were occasionally visited by ships laden with rich goods and adorned with gilded images.* With information of
1542. this nature the adventurers returned to Mexico in 1542, to the great disappointment of Mendoza, who doubtless expected more real results from the labor and expense bestowed by him on the equipment and pay of the body.
1541. Before the return of Coronado's party from the northwest,† the Viceroy had prepared another naval armament, which was to proceed in that direction, from one of the ports on the Pacific, under the command of Pedro de Alvarado, one of the most celebrated heroes of the conquest. But, just as it was about to depart, a rebellion broke out among the Indians of the province of Jalisco; and the forces which had been assembled for the expedition on the ocean were all required to re-establish the Spanish authority in the disturbed territories. In the course of the campaign which ensued, Alvarado was killed by a kick from his horse; and the difficulties in Jalisco continuing, Mendoza could not carry into effect his views with regard to the countries northwest of Mexico until the following year.
1542. The disturbances in Mexico having been‡ at length quieted, two of the vessels which had been prepared for the expedition to the North Pacific were placed under the command of Juan Rodriguez de Cabrillo, a Portuguese navigator of considerable reputation at that day. These vessels sailed together from the port
- June 27.

* In this account there is nothing improbable. Japanese vessels have been found upon the northwest coasts of America twice since 1814.

† Herrera, decade 7, book 2, chapter 11. ‡ Herrera, decade 7, book 5, chapter 8.

of Navidad, in Jalisco; and, after a short passage, reached the harbor of Santa Cruz, whence they proceeded around Cape San Lucas, in order to explore the west coast of California, which had been discovered two years before by Francisco de Ulloa. Without attempting to trace minutely the progress of Cabrillo along this coast, or to enumerate the various bays, capes, and islands visited by him, scarcely any of which can now be identified, suffice it to say that, by the middle of November, he had advanced as far north as the 40th degree of latitude; having been, like Ulloa, incessantly opposed by violent northwesterly winds. From this height the Spaniards were driven back to a harbor, which they had before entered and named *Port Possession*, supposed to be in the small island of San Bernardo, near the main land under the 34th parallel. Here Cabrillo sunk under the fatigues to which he had been subjected, and died, leaving the command of the ships to the pilot, Bartolomé Ferrer, or Ferrelo. 1542.
July 2.
Nov. 15.

The new commander, being no less enterprising than his predecessor, resolved, if possible, to attain some of the objects of the expedition before returning to Mexico. He accordingly sailed from Port Possession; and, after having been several times driven back, at length, on the 1st of March, he found himself, by observation, in the 44th degree of latitude. Here the crews of both vessels were suffering from cold, fatigue, and want of proper nourishment; in consequence of which, it was resolved that the attempt to proceed farther northward should be abandoned. Agreeably to this resolution, the navigators directed their course towards the south, and arrived in safety at Navidad on the 14th of April, 1543. March 1.

It is not easy, from the accounts which we possess, to ascertain precisely what was the most northern point on the American coast seen by the Spaniards in this expedition. Navarrete,* after examining the journals and other papers relating to the voyage, which are still preserved in the Archives of the Indies, pronounces that the 43d parallel of latitude is to be considered as the northern limit of the discoveries made by Cabrillo and Ferrelo. The same writer has also remarked, that the latitudes assigned in those documents to all the places visited by the ships, which can now be identified, are about a degree and a half too high. Conformably with this observation, it would appear that a promontory, named by Ferrelo the Cape of Risks, (*Cabo de Fortunas*,) in commemoration of the perils encountered in its vicinity, may be that situated in the latitude of 40 degrees 20 minutes, which afterwards received the name of *Cape Mendocino*.

While the expeditions thus made under the authority of the Viceroy Mendoza were in progress, Hernando de Soto and his band of adventurers were performing their celebrated march† through the region north of the Mexican Gulf, which was then known by the general name of Florida. Without attempting to 1538
to
1543.

* Introduction to the Journal of the Sutil and Mexicana, page 34.

† There are several accounts of this expedition; among which, the best known are those by Garcilasso de la Vega, and by an anonymous Portuguese.

1538 delineate the course of their wanderings, suffice it to say that
to they traversed, in various directions, the vast territories now com-
1543. posing the southern and southwestern States of the American
Union, and then descended the Mississippi from a point near the
mouth of the Ohio to the Gulf, over which they made their way in
boats to Panuco. From the accounts of the few who survived
the fatigues and perils of this enterprise, added to those of Alvaro
Nuñez and Vasquez de Coronado respecting the countries which
they had severally visited, it was considered absolutely certain
that neither wealthy nations nor navigable passages between the
Atlantic and the Pacific oceans were to be found north of Mexico,
unless beyond the 40th degree of latitude. Having arrived at
this conclusion, the Spaniards desisted from their efforts to ex-
plore the northwest division of America, and did not renew them
until nearly fifty years afterwards. In the mean time, circum-
stances had occurred which served to show that the discovery of
any means of facilitating the entrance of ships from Europe into
the Pacific would be deleterious to the interests of Spain in the
New World.

Before the middle of the sixteenth century, the Portuguese had
established their dominion over a large portion of the coasts and
islands of the East Indies, between which and Europe they were
carrying on an extensive and valuable trade by way of the Cape
of Good Hope. The Spaniards, in the mean time, viewing with
feelings of jealousy and vexation this advancement of the power
and wealth of their rivals, had endeavored likewise to obtain a
footing in southern Asia, for which purpose naval armaments had
been despatched thither from Spain, through the straits of Magel-
lan, and also from the ports of Mexico on the Pacific. These
expeditions had, however, proved unsuccessful. The squadron
1542. sent from Mexico in 1542, under Admiral Villalobos, crossed the
Pacific in safety, and reached the group of islands, since called
the Philippines, of which possession was taken for the King of
Spain. The forces of Villalobos were, however, soon dispersed,
and none of his vessels returned to Mexico.

1564. In 1564 the Spaniards made another effort to establish them-
selves in the East Indies, the issue of which was more fortunate.
The Philippine islands were in that year entirely subjugated
by Miguel de Legaspi, who had been sent for the purpose with a
squadron from the port of Navidad, on the west coast of Mexico;
moreover, a discovery was effected during this expedition, which
proved highly important, and without which, indeed, the other
results would have been of little value. Until that period, no one
had ever crossed the Pacific from Asia to America; all who had at-
tempted to make such a voyage having endeavored to sail di-
rectly westward, through the part of the ocean lying between the
tropics, where the winds blow constantly from eastern points.
Three of Legaspi's ships, however, by taking a northeastern
course from the Philippines, entered a region of variable winds,
and were thus enabled to reach the vicinity of the Californian
coast, about the 40th parallel of latitude, from which the prevail-
ing northwesterly winds soon carried them to Mexico.

1564

to

1579.

The Spaniards thus gained—what they had so long desired—a position in the East Indies; and all doubts as to the practicability of communication with those countries, by means of the Pacific, were completely dissipated. Various other obstacles to the navigation of that ocean being in like manner removed about the same period, the commercial intercourse between the Spanish provinces in America and in Asia rapidly increased. Large ships sailed regularly from Acapulco, laden with precious metals and European merchandise, for Manilla and Macao, from which places they brought back the silks and spices of the Indies, either for consumption in Mexico, or for transportation to Spain; while an extensive trade in articles no less valuable was carried on between Panama and the ports of Chili and Peru. The voyages made for these purposes were in general long, but comparatively safe; and as the Pacific was for some years free from all intrusion on the part of other nations, little care or cost was bestowed upon the defence of the vessels, or of the towns on the coast.

The ships proceeding from Acapulco to Manilla were carried, by the invariable easterly or *trade winds*, directly across the ocean, to their port; in returning, they frequently made the land on the northwest coast of America, the most prominent points of which thus became, in the course of time, tolerably well known. The accounts of two or three of these return voyages have been preserved; but the information obtained from them is of little use, in consequence of their want of exactness. In Hakluyt's Collection may be found a letter,* addressed in 1584 to the Viceroy of Mexico, by Francisco Gali, or Gualle, containing a description of his passages from Acapulco to Macao, and thence back to Acapulco; on which letter great stress is laid by Navarrete and other writers, as showing the extent of Spanish discoveries in the North Pacific during the sixteenth century. Gali there relates that he left Macao on the 24th of July, 1584, and, proceeding by the usual northern route, reached the American coast, in sight of which he sailed for a long distance before arriving at Acapulco. Where he first saw the land of America, the letter does not precisely state. After describing his course from the vicinity of Japan, east and east-by-north, he says: "Being by the same course, upon the coast of New Spain, under *seven-and-thirty degrees and a half*, we passed a very high and fair land, with many trees, wholly without snow, &c. From thence, we ran southeast, southeast-by-south, and southeast-by-east, as we found the wind, to the point called *el Cabo de San Lucas*, which is the beginning of the land of California on the northwest side, lying under two and twenty degrees, being five hundred leagues distant from Cape Mendocino." No mention is made of any land seen north of $37\frac{1}{2}$ degrees; Navarrete, and after him Humboldt, however, insist that Gali reached the vicinity of the American continent, under the parallel of *fifty-seven and a half degrees*; and that the first land

1584.

* Vol. iii, page 526, of the reprint. The letter is "translated out of Spanish into Dutch, verbatim, by John Huyghen Van Linschoten," and from Dutch into English.

1584. seen by him was the western side of the largest island of King George the Third's group. This assertion is supported by no evidence; and is irreconcilable with the account given by the navigator in his letter, the genuineness of which is not denied.*

1595. Torquemada, in his *History of the Indian Monarchy*, (vol. i, page 717,) mentions the voyage of a ship called the *San Augustin* along the western side of California, in 1595, under the command of Sebastian Rodriguez Cermeñon, who had been directed to examine the coast in search of a place suitable for the establishment of a colony and marine depot; nothing, however, is stated respecting the course of the ship, except that she was lost in the bay of San Francisco. We have accounts of two or three other visits made by Europeans to this part of America during the sixteenth century, which will be noticed hereafter.

1560
to
1578. While the commerce of the Spaniards in the Pacific was thus increasing, their Government was adopting those measures of restriction and exclusion, which were maintained with so little relaxation during the whole remaining period of its supremacy in the American continent. The great object of its policy was to secure to the monarch and people of Spain the entire and perpetual enjoyment of all the advantages which could be derived from the territories claimed by them in virtue of the Papal cession of 1493; and, with that view, it was considered absolutely necessary, not only to prevent the establishment of foreigners in any part of those territories, but also to discourage the rapid advancement of the Spanish provinces themselves in population, wealth, or other resources. Agreeably to these ideas, the settlement, and even the exploring of new countries in America, were restrained; colonies were rarely allowed to be planted near the coasts, unless they might serve for purposes of defence; and when voyages or journeys of discovery were made, the results were generally concealed by the Government. The subjects of all foreign nations were prohibited, under pain of death, from touching the section of the New World supposed to belong to Spain, or from navigating the seas in its vicinity.

Against these excluding regulations, the English, after they had thrown off their allegiance to the head of the Roman Catholic church, began first to murmur, and then to act. Their Government required from that of Spain an acknowledgment of their rights to occupy vacant portions of America, and to trade with such as were already settled; and these demands having been refused, Queen Elizabeth did not hesitate to encourage her subjects, openly as well as secretly, to violate laws which she declared to

* The only authorities with regard to Gali's voyage, cited by Navarrete, in addition to the letter from the navigator contained in Hakluyt, are two letters addressed by the Viceroy of Mexico to the King of Spain in 1585; the originals of which are preserved in the Archives of the Indies. These two letters are merely mentioned in a note. The account of the voyage given by Navarrete is, however, with the exception of the difference as to the highest degree of latitude reached by Gali, precisely the same as that contained in Hakluyt. Humboldt, as usual, copies Navarrete in all things relating to the discovery of the northwest coast. The question is of no importance at present.

be unjustifiable and inhuman. The Gulf of Mexico and the West Indian seas were, in consequence, soon haunted by bands of daring English, who, under the equivocal denominations of *free-traders* and *freebooters*, set at defiance all prohibitions with regard to commerce or territorial occupation, and frequently plundered the ships of the Spaniards, as well as the towns on their coasts. About the same time, the French Protestants began their attempts to form settlements in Florida; and the revolt in the Netherlands, which terminated in the freedom of the Dutch provinces, shortly after produced a formidable increase in the number of these irregular foes to the supremacy of Spain.

1560
to
1578.

The Pacific was for some years preserved from such hostile invasions by the dread of the difficulties and dangers of the passage through the straits of Magellan; and the Spaniards began to regard as bulwarks of defence those obstacles to communication between Europe and the western side of America, which they had previously been so desirous to remove or counteract. The reports of the extent and value of the trade in the Pacific, and of the riches accumulated at various places in its vicinity, did not, however, fail in time to overcome all apprehensions on the part of the English,* whose ships at length, in 1578, appeared upon that ocean, under the command of the most able and adventurous naval captain of the age. It is scarcely necessary to say that this captain was Francis Drake. As he is generally supposed to have, during the voyage here mentioned, effected important discoveries on the northwest coasts of America, it will be proper to notice his movements in that quarter of the world particularly; and to determine, if possible, how far such suppositions are based upon authentic proofs. The most material facts on the subject, as collected from the only original evidence† which has yet been made public, are the following:

1578.

Francis Drake sailed from Plymouth in December, 1577, with five small vessels, which had been procured and armed by himself and other private individuals in England, ostensibly for a voyage to Egypt, but really for a predatory cruise against the dominions and subjects of Spain. The Governments of England and Spain were then, indeed, at peace with each other; but mutual hatred, arising from causes already alluded to, prevailed between the two nations, and the principles of general law or morals were not at that period so refined as to prevent Queen Elizabeth from favoring Drake's enterprise, with the real objects of which she was doubtless well acquainted.

1577.
Dec. 13.

For some months after leaving England, Drake roved about the Atlantic, without making any prize of value; and then, having refitted his ships on the eastern coast of Patagonia, he succeeded

1578.

* The first attack made by the English on the Spaniards, in the Pacific, took place in 1575. In that year, a party of freebooters, headed by their captain, John Oxenham, crossed the isthmus of Panama, and built a vessel on the south side, in which they made several valuable prizes; they, however, at length fell into the hands of their enemies, and were all, with the exception of five boys, put to death at Panama.

† See Appendix A to this memoir.

1578.
Sept. 5. in conducting three of them safely through the dreaded straits of Magellan, into the Pacific. Scarcely, however, was this accomplished, ere the little squadron was dispersed by a storm; and the chief of the expedition was left with only a schooner of a hundred tons burden, and about sixty men, to prosecute his enterprise against the power and wealth of the Spaniards on the western side of America.

December. Notwithstanding these disheartening occurrences, Drake did not hesitate to proceed to the parts of the coast occupied by the Spaniards, whom he found unprepared to resist him either on land or on sea. He accordingly plundered their towns and ships with little difficulty; and so deep and lasting was the impression produced by his achievements, that, for more than a century afterwards, his name was never pronounced in those countries without exciting feelings of horror and detestation.

1579.
April. At length, in the spring of 1579, having completed his visitation of the American coast by the plunder of the town of Guatulco, near Acapulco in Mexico, Drake considered it most prudent to direct his course towards England; and, fearing that he might be intercepted by the Spaniards if he should attempt to re-pass the straits of Magellan, he determined to cross the Pacific to the East Indies, and thence to continue his voyage around the Cape of Good Hope, to his country. With this view, he left Guatulco on the 16th of April; but, instead of proceeding directly westward, which would have been his true line of navigation, he, for some reason not clearly shown in the accounts of his expedition, sailed towards the north, and on the 2d of June following had reached the 42d parallel of latitude. There his men began to suffer from cold; and his farther progress appeared to be difficult, if not impossible, on account of the violence and constancy of the north-west winds. Under these circumstances, (whether from accident or intentionally is not certain,) he fell in with the American coast, and anchored near it. The place, however, proving insecure, he quitted it without landing, and sailed along the shore to the south, until he found a safe and commodious harbor about the 38th degree of latitude, in which he remained with his vessel from the 17th of June to the 23d of July.

June 17
to
July 23. This period was spent by the English in repairing their vessel, and making other arrangements for the long voyage in prospect. The natives of the surrounding country, who came in crowds to the shore of the harbor, at first exhibited signs of hostile intentions. They were, however, soon conciliated by the kind and forbearing conduct of the strangers; and their respect for Drake increased to such an extent, that, when they saw him about to depart, they earnestly entreated him to remain among them as their king. The naval hero, though not disposed to undertake in person the duties of sovereignty over a tribe of naked savages, nevertheless "thought meet not to reject the crown; because he knew not what honor and profit it might bring to his own country. Wherefore, in the name and to the use of her Majesty Queen Elizabeth, he took the sceptre, crown, and dignity of the country into his hands; wishing that the riches and treasure thereof might

so conveniently be transported for the enriching of her kingdom at home." The investiture accordingly took place with due ceremony; Drake bestowing upon the country thus legitimately added to the English dominions the name of *New Albion*, and erecting on the shore of the bay a monument with an inscription commemorative of the transfer. 1579.

The preparations for continuing the voyage having been completed, Drake quitted his new made fellow-subjects, to their great regret, on the 23d of July, and, steering directly across the Pacific, reached the vicinity of the Philippine Islands in sixty-eight days; thence he pursued his course through the Indian seas, and around the southern extremity of Africa into the Atlantic, and arrived in England, with his booty undiminished, on the 25th of September, 1580. July 23. Sept. 30.

With regard to the harbor on the northwest coast of America, in which the English repaired their vessel, nothing can be learned from the original accounts of their expedition, except that it was situated between the 38th and the 39th parallels of latitude; and that a group of small islands was found in the ocean, at a short distance from its mouth: whence we are led to conclude that it was either the *Bay of San Francisco*, or another bay a few miles farther north, now called *Port Bodega*, to each of which this description applies. As to the extent of the portion of that coast seen by Drake, the accounts are at variance. In the earliest and apparently the most authentic relations and notices of his voyage, the 43d degree of latitude is given as the northern limit of his course in the Pacific; while in others, of later date, and more questionable authority, it is maintained that he examined the whole shore of the continent from the 48th parallel to the 38th. Burney, in his *History of Discoveries in the Pacific*, (vol. i, page 356,) has devoted several pages to the subject. He there pronounces that "*the part of the American coast discovered by Drake is to be reckoned as beginning immediately north of Cape Mendocino, and extending to the 48th degree of north latitude;*" and this opinion has been since almost universally adopted. There are, however, strong reasons for rejecting the decision of Burney, whose review of the evidences in this, as in all cases in which his countrymen were concerned, is entirely *ex parte*. An exposition of these reasons would require more space than could be with propriety allotted to it in the body of this history; it has therefore been consigned to the Appendix, [A,] and the conclusion only will be here presented, which is: *that in all probability, the English under Drake, in 1579, saw no part of the west coast of America north of the 43d degree of latitude, to which parallel it had been discovered by Cabrillo and Ferrelo, in 1543.*

The success of Drake's enterprise encouraged other English adventurers to attempt similar expeditions through the Strait of Magellan; and it likewise served to stimulate the navigators of that nation, in their efforts to discover northern passages of communication between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. Of their predatory excursions, none appear to have been attended with success, except that of the celebrated Thomas Cavendish, or Can- 1580.

1587. dish, who, during his circumnavigation of the globe, rendered his name almost as terrible to the Spaniards as that of Drake, by his ravages on the western coasts of America. In this voyage, Candish lay for some time near Cape San Lucas, the southern-
 Nov. 15. most point of California, and there captured the *Santa Anna*, a Spanish ship, richly laden, on her way from Manilla to Acapulco, which he set on fire after plundering her and landing her crew on the coast. The miserable persons, thus abandoned in a desert country, must soon have perished, had not the hull of their vessel, after the extinction of the fire by the waves, been driven on shore in their vicinity; this carcass they contrived to repair, so as to render it sea-worthy, and, embarking in it, they succeeded in reaching a Mexican port. Among them was *Juan de Fuca*, a Greek pilot, of whose subsequent discoveries on the northwest coast of America an account will be given in the next following chapter.

CHAPTER II.

Fabulous or uncertain accounts of voyages in the north Pacific—Apprehensions of the Spanish Government with regard to the discovery of northern passages between the Atlantic and the Pacific—Voyages of Fuca in 1592, and Vizcaino, in 1602—Establishments of the Jesuits in California—First colonies planted by the Spaniards on the western side of California, between 1769 and 1774.

DURING the latter years of the sixteenth and the first of the seventeenth centuries, the navigators of England were engaged in exploring the northwestern coasts of the Atlantic, in hopes of discovering some passage through which they might enter the Pacific, with less difficulty and loss of time than by sailing around the southern extremity of America. The Spanish Government was, as the historians of that period fully testify, much alarmed by these efforts of its most hated and most dangerous enemies to facilitate communications between the two seas; and the uneasiness thus occasioned was from time to time increased by rumors of the successful issue of voyages made for that purpose by subjects of various European nations.

The earliest of these rumors related to the discovery supposed to have been made by the celebrated Portuguese, Gaspar de Cortereal, in 1500, of a passage called the *Strait of Anian*, uniting the two oceans, north of that part of America which was, and still is, known by the general name of Labrador. Cortereal did certainly, about the year last mentioned, explore the coasts of Newfoundland and those of the continent in its vicinity; and it is possible that he may also have penetrated through Hudson's Strait into Hudson's Bay, which he would then most naturally have considered as a western ocean. Whatever may have been the origin or basis of the rumor respecting the discovery of the Strait of Anian,* the Spaniards and other European nations long continued to be persuaded of its truth. Expeditions were made in search of the passage; and nearly all of those who pretended to have accomplished northern voyages between the Atlantic and the Pacific, asserted that they had sailed by way of the Strait of Anian.

The number of persons who claimed the merit of discovering navigable passages through or around the northern parts of Amer-

1575
to
1638.

* The Strait of Anian was said to have been so named by Cortereal, after two brothers who sailed with him. The author of an article in the *London Quarterly* for October, 1816, conceives that the passage was more probably thus denominated, because the navigator "deemed it to be the eastern extremity of a strait, whose western end, opening into the Pacific, had already received that name." In order to show the value of this conception, it is only necessary to observe that Cortereal's voyage took place in 1500, and that the ocean on the western side of America was not discovered until thirteen years afterwards.

1575
to
1632.

ica at the period here referred to, appears to have been considerable. The chroniclers of the time have preserved the names of several; and although their stories are now known to have been as false as those respecting the acquisition of the philosopher's stone, or the elixir of life, yet some of them should be noticed, on account of the influence which they exerted upon the progress of research in the northwestern part of the New World.

The most celebrated fable of this class, is the one of which a Portuguese, named *Lorenzo Ferrer de Maldonado*, is the hero. He is said to have sailed from the Atlantic, in 1588, through a strait communicating with that sea near the 62d degree of north latitude, into the Pacific, which he entered by a very narrow opening situated under the 60th parallel; having, in the course of this navigation, been obliged to proceed as far north as the 75th degree. This supposed voyage is mentioned by several Spanish authors of the seventeenth century. It was however forgotten, and remained in oblivion, until 1790, when it was again brought before the world by an eminent French geographer, M. Buache, who endeavored to establish the truth of the most material parts of the statement, in a memoir read by him before the Academy of Sciences of Paris. In consequence of his observations, the Spanish Government ordered the commanders of the vessels which were in that year sent to explore the northwest coasts of America, to search for the western extremity of the strait. They did so, but in vain; and it is now certain that no such passage exists. With regard to the origin of the story, Navarrete informs us that a person named Maldonado, an unprincipled adventurer, who had written some works on geography, presented to the Council of the Indies, in Spain, a narrative or memoir of a voyage which he pretended to have made at the time, and in the manner above related, accompanied by a petition that he might be rewarded for his discovery, and intrusted with the command of forces, in order to occupy and defend the passage against other nations. Navarrete adds, that this proposition was rejected by the Council, but that the papers respecting it were retained, and are still preserved among the Archives of the Indies. In 1812, Signor Carlo Amoretti, of Milan, found in the Ambrosian library a Spanish manuscript, purporting to be a copy of this same narrative or memoir, and published a translation of it in French, with notes and commentaries in support of the assertions of the writer. Whether the said manuscript be indeed a copy of that presented by Maldonado to the Spanish Government, or not, is a question as yet unsolved; and it is, moreover, a question which may as well remain without solution, as the subject no longer possesses any claim to attention. Equally useless is it at the present day to inquire whether or not this Maldonado* made a voyage in the

* The question as to the truth of the story of Maldonado's voyage is discussed in the introduction to the account of the expedition of the *Sutil* and *Mexicana*, and in the *London Quarterly Review* for October, 1816. The article in the *Review* is well written, but filled with inaccuracies in all that relates to the Pacific. The writer considers the account translated by Amoretti to be the fabrication of some German.

north Pacific as far as Beering's Strait, the discovery of which has been ascribed to him, upon evidence the most slender, supported by presumptions the most gratuitous.*

1575
to
1632.

No less destitute of truth is the story of the expedition of Admiral *Pedro Fonte*, from Peru to the Atlantic, through northern seas and rivers; which is, however, to be referred to a much later date than that of the voyage of Maldonado, as it first appeared in a periodical work entitled "*Monthly Miscellany, or Memoirs of the Curious*," published at London in June, 1708.† According to this story, the admiral sailed from Callao in April, 1640, to the north Pacific, where he discovered a group of islands near the American continent, named by him *Islas de San Lazaro*. Among these islands he proceeded 260 leagues, and then, in the latitude of 53 degrees, he entered a river called by him *Rio de los Reyes*, which he ascended in a northeasterly direction, penetrating the interior of America, until he reached a great lake containing many islands. There he left his ships, and going (in boats, we are to infer) down another river which flowed from the lake eastwardly, he at length came to a sea, where he found a large ship at anchor. She proved to be a trading-vessel from Boston, in Massachusetts; and her commander, Shapley, informed the admiral that he had arrived at his actual position by a northern course from that port. Being thus convinced of the existence of an uninterrupted connexion by water between the two oceans, across the northern section of America, the Spaniards returned to their ships, and then sailed back to Peru, through the *Rio de los Reyes* and the Pacific.

1640.

The above sketch of the supposed expedition of Admiral Fonte will be sufficient for present purposes. The original account is long, and is filled with confused and trifling details, the inconsistencies in which should have prevented it from receiving any credit. It was, however, for some time generally believed to be true, or partly true; and its probability was maintained so lately as in 1797, by the scientific Fleurien, in his Introduction to the Narrative of Marchand's Voyage. The fact of the existence of a number of islands in the situation assigned to the Archipelago of San Lazaro, indeed, affords some reason for the assumption that the story may have been founded on discoveries really made in that part of the Pacific. Navarrete‡ treats the whole account as an absurd fabrication; and takes the opportunity to defend the Government of his country from the charge brought against it by

* Viz: upon a passage in the *Bibliotheca Hispana-Nova*, of Nicolas Antonio, published in 1672, to the effect that the author had seen in the possession of a bishop, a manuscript account of the *discovery of the Strait of Anian*, by Lorenzo Ferrer de Maldonado, in 1588. This passage, and an abstract of the relation of Maldonado, taken from Amoretti's publication, may be found in Burney's *History of Voyages in the Pacific*, vol. v, page 166: the abstract is in the appendix [B] to this memoir.

† The whole account of this pretended voyage may be found in Burney's *History of Voyages in the Pacific*, vol. iii, page 185; and in Dobbs's *History of Hudson's Bay*. The story belongs to the class of fictions now commonly called *hoaxes*.

‡ Introduction to the Narrative of the Voyage of the *Sutil* and *Mexicana*, page 76.

Fleurieu, of concealing the results of attempts made by its orders to explore unknown seas and regions.

One other account of a supposed voyage from the Pacific to the Atlantic remains to be noticed; which should not, however, be classed with those above mentioned, although it is certainly erroneous as regards the most material point, and was probably known to be so by the original narrator. All the information as yet obtained respecting this voyage may be found in a note* or declaration written by Michael Lock, an English merchant or agent in the Levant trade, and published under his name, in 1625, in the celebrated geographical and historical collection called "the Pilgrims," by Samuel Purchas.

1592.

From Mr. Lock's declaration, it appears that, in 1596, he met at Venice an aged Greek, calling himself *Apostolos Valerianos*, who stated, that he had been employed for more than forty years, under the name of *Juan de Fuca*, as seaman and pilot in the Spanish service; that he had been one of the crew of the Manilla ship *Santa Anna*, plundered by Cavendish near the coast of California, in 1587, on which occasion he had lost property of his own to the value of sixty thousand ducats; and that he had subsequently, in 1592, acted as pilot in a voyage, made by order of the Viceroy of Mexico, in search of "the Straights of Anian, and the passage thereof into the North sea." In this voyage, as he said, "he followed his course west and northwest, along the coasts of Mexico and California, as far as the 47th degree of latitude;" between which parallel and the 48th, he entered "a broad inlet of the sea, and, sailing therein more than twenty days, he found the land trending some time northwest and northeast, and north, and also east and southeast, and very much broader sea than was at the entrance; and he passed by divers islands in that sailing. Being entered thus far into the said straight, and being come into the North sea [the Atlantic] already, and finding the sea wide enough everywhere, it being about thirty or forty leagues broad at the mouth of the straights where he entered, he thought he had well discharged his office, and, not being armed to resist savages, he set sail, and returned homeward again to Acapulco." The Greek added, that neither the Viceroy of Mexico nor the Spanish Government had rewarded him for this service, "and understanding of the noble mind of the Queen of England, and of her wars maintained so valiantly against the Spaniards, and hoping that her Majesty would do him justice for his goods lost by Captain Candish, he would be content to go to England and serve her Majesty in a voyage for the perfect discovery of the northwest passage into the South sea, and would put his life into her Majesty's hands, to perform the same, if she would furnish him with only one ship of forty tons burthen, and a pinnace; and

*"A note made by me, Michael Lock the elder, touching the strait of sea commonly called Fretum Anian, in the South sea, through the northwest passage of Meta Incognita."—*Purchas's Pilgrims*: London, 1625, vol. iii, p. 849. The whole account will be found in the appendix [C] to this memoir.

that he would perform it, from one end of the straights to the other, in thirty days time." 1592.

Mr. Lock goes on to say that he had endeavored, in consequence, to interest the Government of his country in the affair; and had held correspondence on the subject with various eminent persons in England, as also with Juan de Fuca, from whom he gives the copy of a letter stating his readiness to engage in the proposed enterprise. The English Government, however, showed no willingness to favor the project; considering the whole story, probably, as a fabrication on the part of the old Greek for the purpose of advancing his own interests. The hundred pounds required in order to bring him to London could not be raised; and when Mr. Lock last heard of him, he was dying in the island of Cephalonia, in 1602.

These are the most material circumstances relative to Juan de Fuca, and his supposed discoveries in the northern seas, as recorded by Mr. Lock, and transmitted to us with the respectable endorsement of Purchas. Several English writers of the same period allude to the subject, but they afford no additional particulars; and nothing whatsoever has hitherto been obtained from any other source, tending to prove directly that such a voyage was made, or that such a person as Juan de Fuca ever existed. The account appears to have obtained no credit in England; and to have been almost unknown out of that kingdom, until after the publication of the journals of the last expedition of Cook, (1785,) who conceived that he had, by his examinations on the northwest coast of America, ascertained its entire falsehood. Subsequent discoveries in that part of the world have, however served to establish a strong probability in favor of the general correctness of the old Greek's assertions; inasmuch as they show that his geographical descriptions are as nearly conformable with the truth as those of any other navigator of his day. Thus Fuca says that between the 47th and 48th degrees of latitude he entered a broad inlet of sea, through which he sailed for twenty days, the land trending northwest and northeast, and north, and east and southeast; and that in his course he passed by numerous islands. Now the fact is, that, between the 48th and 49th parallels, a broad inlet of sea extends from the Pacific eastward, apparently penetrating the American continent, to the distance of about one hundred miles; after which, it turns north-west-by-west, and, continuing in that direction about two hundred and fifty miles farther, crossed and divided by many islands, it again communicates with the Pacific.

The discrepancies here to be observed are few and slight, and are certainly all within the limits of supposable error on the part of the Greek, especially when his advanced age, and the circumstance that he spoke only from recollection, are considered; while, on the other hand, the coincidences are too great and too striking to be fairly attributable to chance. Of those who have examined the subject, some have rejected the whole account given by the pilot as false; others, on the contrary, maintain not only that he performed the voyage as stated, but that he was even convinced of

1592. his having reached the Atlantic in the course of it. A mean between the two opinions* seems to be the most reasonable conclusion. It should be admitted that Fuca entered the strait now bearing his name, and that he may have passed entirely through it; but that he, an experienced navigator, should have conceived that by sailing *thirty leagues east, and then eighty leagues northwest-by-west*, he had arrived in the Atlantic, is wholly incredible.

This will suffice with regard to the voyage of Fuca, the truth or falsehood of which is, at the present day, a question of little or no moment.

Some reports of the discovery of a northern passage between the Atlantic and the Pacific, and of the existence of rich nations in that direction, induced the Spanish Government, about the year 1595, to order that measures should be taken to ascertain the facts on those subjects. The Count de Monterey, Viceroy of Mexico, accordingly fitted out three vessels, which were despatched from Acapulco in the spring of 1596, under the command of Sebastian Vizcaino, a soldier well acquainted with marine affairs. Nothing important, however, was gained by this expedition. Vizcaino did not proceed beyond the limits of the Gulf of California; and, being disappointed in his attempts to form establishments on the shores of that sea, he returned to Mexico before the end of the same year.

1599. Other and more peremptory orders for the immediate survey and settlement of the western coast of California were received Sept. 27. by the Viceroy of Mexico, from Madrid, in 1599; and he, in consequence, began preparations for an expedition, on a greater and more complete scale of equipment than any of those previously made in that direction. Two large ships and a small vessel were provided for the purpose at Acapulco, and furnished with all the requisites for a long voyage of discovery; and, in addition to their regular crews, a number of pilots, priests, draughtsmen, and other proper persons, were engaged, composing, together, says Torquemada,† “the most enlightened corps ever raised in New Spain.” The navigation was placed under the direction of Toribio Gomez de Corvan, as admiral; but the command of the whole force was intrusted to Sebastian Vizcaino, who bore the title of Captain General of California.

1602. The vessels sailed from Acapulco on the 5th of May, 1602, and, May 5. having reached the western side of California before the middle June 12. of the following month, the survey was immediately commenced from Cape San Lucas, the southern extremity of the peninsula.

* It is needless to quote the opinions of Forster or Fleurieu, as they both wrote before the publication of the Journals of Vancouver, by whom the passage now called the Strait of Fuca was explored. Navarrete considers the account of the pilot's voyage false, because he can find no mention of it among the Archives of the Indies, or in the old Spanish historians; and Humboldt, as usual, contents himself with adopting the conclusions of Navarrete.

† Monarquia Indiana, vol. i, page 694. Torquemada's account is abridged from the journal of Friar Antonio de la Ascension, the chaplain of the admiral's ship. It contains little respecting the movements of the other two vessels.

The prosecution of the undertaking was attended with great difficulties; the scurvy soon appeared in the squadron, and the Spaniards had their perseverance put to the test by the northwest winds, which almost constantly opposed their progress along the coast. Vizcaino, however, made the best use of the time which he was obliged to spend in harbors, by examining the shores and the adjacent inland territories; and he thus collected a large amount of valuable information on those subjects, in the form of notes, plans, and sketches, which are said to lie still mouldering among the archives of the Spanish Government.*

By the beginning of December, after their departure from Acapulco, the ships had advanced no farther north than the 32d degree of latitude, near which a good harbor was found, and named *Port San Diego*. *Proceeding onwards, they reached another harbor under the 37th parallel, combining, in the opinion of Vizcaino, every requisite for the maintenance of a colony, and for the supply and repairs of vessels on their way from India to Mexico. On this place he bestowed the name of *Monterey*, in honor of the Viceroy, to whom he immediately sent letters by one of his ships, urging the establishment of colonies and garrisons at several points indicated.

From Monterey, the remaining ship in which Vizcaino sailed with the admiral, and the small vessel commanded by ensign Martin de Aguilar, departed on the 3d of January, 1603, and by the 7th they had reached the vicinity of Cape Mendocino, when they were driven back by a violent gale, during which they were separated. The ship took refuge in the Bay of San Francisco, where search was made in vain for the wreck of the *San Augustin*, which had been lost there while on her voyage from Manilla, in 1595; † she, however, soon got to sea again, and, passing beyond Cape Mendocino, was for several days tossed about at random by the storms. On the 20th of January she was opposite a high white promontory, which received the name of *Cape Blanco de San Sebastian*, and was found by a solar observation to be in the latitude of 42 degrees. By this time there were but six persons on board capable of doing duty; and as the small vessel did not appear, Vizcaino, with the assent of the other officers, resolved to direct his course towards the south. This was accordingly done, and the ship entered Acapulco on the 21st of March, with only three effective men among her crew.

The small vessel, after her separation from the ship, sailed northward for some distance along the coast, as far as the latitude of 43 degrees, "where," says Torquemada, "the land forms a cape or point, which was called *Cape Blanco*, and from which the coast begins to run to the northwest; and near it was found a rapid and abundant river, with ash trees, willows, brambles, and

* Introduction to the Journal of the *Sutil* and *Mexicana*, page 68. A chart of the west coast of California, as far north as Cape Mendocino, was compiled from these documents, of which a copy may be found in the atlas of the work above mentioned.

† As before mentioned at page 34.

1603. other Castilian trees, on its banks; but it could not be entered on account of the strength of its current." From this point Aguilar turned to the south; his vessel reached Acapulco, but he and all the other officers, and many of the men, died of scurvy on the voyage thither.

Considerable doubts have been cast, and not without reason, upon the accuracy of the account of Aguilar's discoveries beyond Cape Mendocino. It is certainly incorrect on one point, for we know that the coast does not "begin to turn towards the north-west" at the 43d degree of latitude, or at any other point between Cape Mendocino and the 47th degree. Moreover, it is scarcely credible that Aguilar should, at so stormy a season, and with so inefficient a crew, have ventured so near to a lee shore, entirely unknown to him, as to be able to distinguish, *without a glass*,* the species of the trees growing on it. The great river which he is said to have found about the 43d degree of latitude has not yet been identified; although several streams, none of them large, do certainly enter the Pacific near that parallel. The account of the discovery of this river has attracted much more attention than it merited, or than the unfortunate Aguilar (if he actually saw such a stream) could have anticipated, in consequence of an idle opinion expressed, or rather recorded, by Torquemada, that it might prove to be the long-sought Strait of Anian, or might lead to the wealthy city of Quivira, believed to exist in that part of the world. The Cape Blanco mentioned as the northern limit of Aguilar's progress along the coast, is supposed by Cook to be a remarkable promontory, situated under the 43d parallel, to which the English navigator, however, did not scruple to apply the name of *Cape Gregory*. In like manner, Vancouver has bestowed the appellation of *Cape Orford* upon another great projection from the continent, near the 42d degree, although he considered it to be identical with the Cape Blanco de San Sebastian of Vizcaino.

Upon comparing the accounts of this expedition with those of the voyage of Cabrillo, in 1542-'3, it will be seen that the same, or nearly the same, portions of the west coast of America, were observed on both occasions; and that Vizcaino, consequently, did no more than survey minutely what had been already discovered by his predecessors.

Vizcaino endeavored, after his return to Mexico, to prevail upon the Viceroy to establish colonies and garrisons at San Diego, Monterey, and other points on the coast which he had surveyed, for the purpose of facilitating the trade with India, as well as to prevent the occupation of that coast by other nations. His efforts being unavailing in Mexico, he went to Spain, where he finally obtained from King Philip III. royal orders for the execution of his projects. He, however, unfortunately died in Mexico in 1606. 1609, while engaged in preparing for the enterprise; and no farther measures were taken, either by individual Spaniards or by their

* The invention of the telescope took place in 1609.

Government, to settle the west coast of California, or to extend the limits of discovery in that direction, until 160 years afterwards. 1609.

This part of America remained, in the mean time, almost forgotten, except by persons engaged in the navigation from India to Mexico, who were obliged to make themselves acquainted with the situation of the principal headlands and islands* south of Cape Mendocino. One of these navigators brought to Mexico, in 1620, an account of a channel which he pretended to have discovered near the 43d parallel of latitude, connecting the Gulf of California with the Pacific; and, as this statement corresponded with that of the discovery of a great river at the same position by Martin de Aguilar, it was readily received as true. Accordingly, in all maps of this part of the world, published during the remainder of the seventeenth century, California is represented as an island, separated from the continent by a strait.† The error was corrected in 1700 by Father Kuhn, (or Kino, as the Spaniards write his name,) a German Jesuit, who explored the region about the northern extremity of the gulf. 1620.

Shortly after the period of Vizcaino's expedition, the French, the English, and the Dutch, successively established colonies on the Atlantic side of North America, as well as in the West Indies, where the English and French already held some possessions; and geographical discoveries were also about the same time made by the navigators of those nations, which were, or appeared to be, seriously prejudicial to the interests of Spain in the New World. Thus, Henry Hudson ascertained the existence of the great interior sea north of Canada, from which it was confidently expected that some passage to the Pacific would be speedily found; and Lemaire and Van Schouten entered that ocean through the open sea, south of the promontory, which, in honor of their native city in Holland, they called Cape Horn. The navigation between the Atlantic and the Pacific was so much facilitated by the latter 1607.

* In a work printed at Manila in 1712, called "Navegacion Especulativa y Practica," minute directions are given for sailing along this part of the American coast.

† In the curious map of North America, at page 854 of the 3d volume of Purchas's Pilgrimage, published in 1625, the sea is represented between California and the continent, as far north as the 45th degree. On this map are laid down, by name, Cape Blanco, Cape San Sebastian, and many other points discovered by Vizcaino. In the geographical and historical atlas of Mitchell and Senex, published at London in 1721, California appears as an island, extending from Cape San Lucas to the 45th degree of latitude; the northernmost part of the island is called Nova Albion. North of it are placed a number of small islands, near the continent, with the names of Quisiento, Colubra, Wanguino, Maquino, &c., affixed to them. Whence were these names derived?

A veteran buccanier, Captain Coxton, who flourished in the latter part of the 17th century, asserted that he had, in 1688, discovered a river emptying into the Pacific from the American continent, north of Cape Mendocino, up which he had sailed into a great interior sea called the *Lake of Thoyaga*, containing many islands, inhabited by a numerous and warlike population. This lake may be found on several old maps of that part of North America; for instance, in the atlas of Mitchell and Senex, above mentioned. Northwest America was indeed at that time the *terra incognitissima*. Bacon laid the scene of his *Allantis* there; and *Brobdignag*, according to the very exact account of its discoverer, Captain Lemuel Gulliver, was situated immediately north of the Strait of Fuca, about the 50th parallel of latitude. The position of *Utopia* (or *no where*) is not clearly expressed in the narrative of Master Ralph Hythloday; but it seems to have been near California.

1600. discovery, that voyages to the western side of America were no longer considered as dangerous enterprises; and the Spanish commerce on those coasts was almost ever afterwards harassed by pirates, or *quasi* pirates, of various classes and denominations. The Gulf of California was, during the seventeenth century, the principal resort and rendezvous for these depredators, especially for those from Holland, who, under the name of *Pichilings*, kept the inhabitants of the southern coasts of Mexico in constant anxiety.

For the purpose of protecting these coasts from such inflictions, as well as of obtaining advantage from the pearl-fishery on the eastern side of California, several attempts were made by the Government, as well as by individuals and companies in Mexico, to establish garrisons, colonies, and trading-posts in that peninsula.*

1616 to 1684. Of the expeditions thus made, it is needless here to relate the particulars, as they are unconnected with the principal subject of this memoir; suffice it to say, that they all terminated unfortunately, from want of funds, from the barrenness of the country and the hostility of its inhabitants, and, above all, from the indolence and viciousness of the persons sent out as colonists. The last of these expeditions made by command of the Spanish Government was under the direction of Don Isidro de Otondo, who, in 1683, conducted from Mexico a number of soldiers, settlers, and priests, of the order of the Jesuits, and distributed them at various points on the western side of the Californian gulf; the colonies, however, all disappeared within a few months after they had been planted, and it was then resolved by a council of the principal authorities of Mexico that the reduction of California by such means was impracticable.

1685. The Jesuits who had accompanied Otondo in his expedition, while concurring with the council in its opinion, nevertheless insisted that the object might be attained by another course, viz: by the conversion to Christianity and civilization of the natives of that part of America, which task they offered themselves to undertake. Their proposition met with little encouragement from the heads of the government in Mexico. Being, however, not disheartened, the fathers perambulated the whole kingdom, preaching and exhorting the authorities and the people to aid them in the prosecution of an enterprise so pious and so politic. By such means, and by the co-operation of their brethren in Spain, they

1697. raised a small fund, and finally, in 1697, procured royal warrants authorizing them to undertake the reduction of California for the King, and to do every thing which might be necessary for that purpose, *at their own expense*. On receiving these warrants, Father

Oct. Salvatierra, the principal missionary, sailed with a few soldiers and laborers to the land which was to be the scene of their operations, where he was soon joined by Fathers Kuhn, (or *Kino*, as

* Accounts of these expeditions may be found in the History of California, by Father Venegas; and in Navarrete's Introduction to the Journal of the Sutil and Mexicana.

the Spaniards call him,) Picolo, Ugarte, and others, all men of education and courage, zealously devoted to the business before them. 1697.

On arriving in California, the Jesuits had to encounter the same obstacles and difficulties which had rendered vain all previous attempts to form establishments in that region. They were attacked by the natives, to whose enmity several of the fathers fell victims; their own men were insubordinate, and were generally more inclined to fish for pearls, than to engage in the regular labors required for the support of settlers in a new country; and their operations were for some time confined within the narrowest limits, by the want of funds. Their brethren and friends in Spain occasionally obtained orders for small sums from the Government for their use; but the Mexican treasury, on which these orders were drawn, was seldom able to meet them when presented,* and the value of the assistance thus afforded was in all cases much diminished before it reached those for whom it was intended.

By perseverance and kindness, however, the Jesuits triumphed over all these difficulties. Within a short time after their entrance into California, they founded several stations or missions; and before the middle of the last century, their establishments extended, at short distances apart, along the whole eastern side of the peninsula, from the mouth of the Colorado in the north, to Cape San Lucas. Each of these stations contained a church, a small fort, and a storehouse; and it formed the centre of a district, in which the Indians were induced, by the most gentle means, to labor regularly for their own support, to live at peace among themselves, and to receive instruction in the doctrines of the Roman Catholic religion. To these ends were the efforts of the fathers exclusively directed, immigration from other countries being always discouraged by them. That their exertions in this way were calculated to produce temporary good, cannot be denied, as the individual objects of them must have been rendered more happy and comfortable than they would have otherwise been; but it appears to be equally certain, that neither the Jesuits nor any other missionaries have ever succeeded in fitting a Californian Indian to become a useful member of society. 1697 to 1768.

These missionaries, likewise, exerted themselves assiduously in acquiring a knowledge of the geography, natural history, languages, &c., of the country which they had taken under their charge; and so far as regards the middle and eastern parts of the peninsula, and the region farther north, watered by the Colorado and the Gila, nearly all the information which we now possess has been derived through the labors of the Jesuits. Respecting the western side of the peninsula they added little or nothing to the stock of knowledge, all their efforts to examine that portion having been unsuccessful. One of the most material points as-

* It appears, from the History of California, by Venegas, (part 3, section 4.) that in 1702 the Mexican treasury was exhausted by the expenses of expeditions for the conquest of Texas, and for establishing forts and garrisons at Pensacola, and other places on the north coast of the Gulf of Mexico.

1697
to
1768. certained by them was the fact of the connexion of California with the American continent, which, after having been doubted or denied for almost a century, was completely established by Father Kuhn, an indefatigable German, in 1700.

The results of these researches were communicated to the world, from time to time, through the medium of a periodical publication, entitled "*Lettres Edifiantes et Curieuses, écrites des Missions Etrangères,*" (Edifying and Curious Letters written from the Foreign Missions,) which was conducted at Paris by Jesuits, for several years, from 1716. But the most complete account of California,* to 1750, is to be found in the *Natural and Civil History* of that country, generally attributed to Father Miguel Venegas, though now known to have been composed chiefly by another priest of the order, named Andres Marcos Burriel. Respecting this work, which appeared originally at Madrid in 1757, and has been since translated into all the principal European languages, it may be here observed, that the portions dedicated to the labors of the Jesuits are highly interesting, and that they bear with them the marks of truth; but that the notices of events which occurred prior to the entrance of the missionaries into the country are often at variance with those given by the older writers, and sometimes evidently erroneous. The observations of the author upon the policy of the Spanish Government towards its American dominions are replete with wisdom, and indicate more liberality, as well as boldness on his part, than could have been reasonably expected, considering the circumstances under which he wrote and published.

The Jesuits received, as before mentioned, little assistance from the Spanish Government in the prosecution of their plans with regard to California. That Government, indeed, was not only at all times disinclined to favor projects from which no immediate increase of its revenues or political strength could be anticipated, but was also particularly jealous and mistrustful as to the proceedings of the Jesuits in the New World. Suspicions were entertained at Madrid that those proceedings were not dictated solely by philanthropic and religious motives; but that the body aspired to the separation and exclusive control of many portions, if not of the whole, of the Spanish empire in America. These suspicions became stronger as the influence of the Jesuits increased; the power possessed, or believed to be possessed, by their order, however, preserved them for some time from any direct open attack on the part of the Government. At length, in 1767, a royal decree was issued by King Charles III. for their expulsion from his dominions; it was executed without difficulty,† and the

* "*Noticia de la California y de su Conquista, sacada de la historia manuscrita del Padre Miguel Venegas, y de otras noticias.*" ("Account of California, and of its conquest, drawn from the manuscript history of Father Miguel Venegas, and from other sources.") The English translation, published in 1759, is miserable.

† A large military force was sent from Mexico, for the purpose of dislodging the Jesuits in California. Gaspar de Portola, the commander of this expedition, is said to have been much ashamed and mortified on finding that his efforts were directed only against a few old priests, and their half-starved simple Indian converts.

missionaries in California were obliged, at a moment's warning, to quit forever the establishments which they had so long and so sedulously been engaged in rearing. 1767.

In 1769, immediately after the expulsion of the Jesuits from California, the Spaniards established the first colony and garrison on the western coast of that territory. This measure was effected in prosecution of a scheme of reform and defence, which had been devised at Madrid, with the view of rendering the trans-Atlantic dominions of Spain more profitable to the mother country, and more dependent upon its authority; as well as of securing them against apprehended encroachments of foreign nations. 1769.

Since the days of Sebastian Vizcaino, who had so strenuously recommended the settlement of this part of America, the Spanish power had, from a variety of causes, been constantly declining. On the Atlantic side of the New World several valuable territories, which had long been occupied by the subjects of his Catholic Majesty, as well as others to which his claims were less obvious, had passed into the hands of his bitterest foes; and although his authority was still undisputed on the western side of the continent, yet his pretensions to the exclusive dominion of the Pacific had become obsolete. The buccaneers had led the way into that ocean. They were followed by the armed squadrons of Great Britain and Holland, with one or other of which nations Spain was almost incessantly at war; and, during the short intervals of peace, came the exploring ships of those Powers and of France, whose voyages of discovery were always regarded by the Court of Madrid as ominous of evil to its American colonies. 1603 to 1769.

The results of these exploring expeditions were communicated to the world without delay, and in the most full and authentic manner possible; the journals of the respective navigators being published immediately after their return, illustrated by charts, tables, and drawings, affording accurate ideas of the objects and events described. New channels of commercial intercourse were thus opened to all; and new principles of national law, adverse to the subsistence of the monopolies enforced by Spain, were gradually introduced and adopted by the other maritime Powers of Europe.*

After the peace of 1763, the exploring voyages of the French and British were more frequent, and were conducted in a manner which gave to them distinctly the characters of political movements. The irritation and jealousy which they occasioned at Madrid were still farther increased upon the establishment of colonies, by each of the abovementioned nations, among the islands of the Falkland group, at the very threshold of the Pacific. The French Government, indeed, soon withdrew its subjects from 1764 to 1766.

* "Sir Benjamin Keene, one of the ablest foreign ministers this country ever had, (he was ambassador from Great Britain to the Court of Madrid from 1754 to 1757,) used to say, that if the Spaniards vexed us in the first instance, we had means enough to vex them without infringing upon treaties; and the first step he would recommend would be, to send out ships of discovery to the South seas."—*Lord Lansdowne's speech in Parliament on the Convention with Spain; delivered December 13, 1790. Parliamentary History, vol. xxvii, page 944.*

1764 those islands, at the request of the King of Spain; the British
 to cabinet, however, disregarded all hints and remonstrances respect-
 1766. ing its alleged encroachments upon the territories of his Cath-
 olic Majesty, and there were strong indications of designs on its
 part to invade other portions of those territories in a similar man-
 1763 ner. The exploring ships had confined themselves to the south-
 to ern and intertropical parts of the ocean; there was, however, no
 1768. reason for expecting that they would not in time advance towards
 the shores of the north Pacific, where their presence could not
 but be injurious to the interests and security of the Spanish do-
 minions.

1768. Serious grounds for apprehensions on the part of the Spanish
 Government were also afforded by the Russians, whose dis-
 coveries and settlements on the northernmost coasts of the Pacific
 were about that time beginning to attract the attention of other
 European nations. Of these proceedings little was known with
 certainty, except that the Russians had built vessels on the east-
 ern side of Asia, and had discovered extensive territories beyond
 the sea which bathes those shores. Whether the territories thus
 found were islands, or parts of Asia or of America, and whether
 those continents were or not united in the north, were questions
 then undetermined. The fact that this ambitious and enterpris-
 ing Power had formed establishments on the Pacific, was suffi-
 cient to create alarms at Madrid; which were rendered more seri-
 ous by the knowledge, afterwards obtained, that new armaments
 on a large scale were in preparation at Kamschatka.

1765. In order to avert the evils thus supposed to be impending, the
 Spanish Government devised a series of measures, which were to
 be successively applied as circumstances might seem to indicate
 or to allow. Of these measures, one of the principal objects was
 the occupation and settlement of the vacant territories of Amer-
 ica bordering upon the ocean; to effect which, endeavors were
 made without delay. In the beginning of 1768, orders were given
 to the Viceroy of Mexico to have those coasts explored as far
 northward as it might be practicable to advance; and at the same
 time to establish colonies upon them, sufficiently near each other
 for mutual support, in case of need, against savages or foreigners.
 The execution of these orders was committed chiefly to Don
 Jose de Galvez, a high officer of the Council of the Indies, who
 had been sent to Mexico in 1765 to superintend the application of
 the new measures in the northern section of Spanish America.

1768. The west coast of America had at that time been discovered
 only as far north as the 43d degree of latitude—that is to say,
 as far north as Sebastian Vizcaino had sailed in 1603; and all the
 information concerning it, being derived from the accounts of the
 old navigators, amounted to little more than descriptions of har-
 bors and promontories south of that parallel. Upon examining
 the manuscripts of Vizcaino relating to his voyage, notices and
 charts were found of several places upon this coast, which he
 considered well adapted for settlements; and, in consequence of
 his recommendations, it was determined by the Viceroy and Gal-
 vez that the first establishments should be made at the spots

which had received from this discoverer the names of *San Diego* 1768.
and *Monterey*.

Great difficulties were to be overcome in order to carry this determination into effect. Few persons could be found in Mexico willing to subject themselves to the fatigues and privations attending the settlement of a new country; and it was not easy to procure on the Pacific side of the kingdom such vessels as would be required for the transportation of men and materials to the designated points on the northwest coast. At length, however, before the close of the year, a small number of persons, consisting of priests, soldiers, and colonists, were assembled at one of the missionary stations on the eastern coast of California, called *La Paz*, from which place they began their march through the peninsula, for *San Diego*, in two parties, respectively conducted by Gaspar de Portola, the governor of the new province, and Fernando de Rivera, a captain in the army.

The arms, ammunition, provisions, and materials for the colonies were sent around to *San Diego* in two vessels, one of which, the *San Antonio*, reached that place on the 11th of April, 1769; April 11.
the other vessel, the *San Carlos*, was driven far out to the westward, and was unable to enter her destined port until the end of the same month. Of a third vessel, the *San Jose*, which had also been despatched for the west coast, nothing was ever heard. The parties of emigrants who had proceeded by land from *La Paz*, under Portola and Rivera, successively arrived during May; and a convenient spot having been selected on the shore of the harbor, a town was laid out and buildings were commenced. May.

Portola, being anxious in like manner to found a settlement at Monterey before the winter, set off for that place in June, with a portion of the emigrants and soldiers; leaving directions at *San Diego* that a vessel, which was expected with supplies from Mexico, should be despatched to meet him at the other harbor. This expedition was not successful. The Spaniards, marching along or near the coast towards the north, overshot Monterey, and at the end of October found themselves on the shores of the Bay of *San Francisco*, which they recognised by means of the high white cliffs at its entrance. Turning towards the south, they found a port corresponding with that described by Vizcaino under the name of Monterey; but the cold weather had set in, and, the vessel not appearing with the supplies, they were obliged to retrace their steps to *San Diego*, where they arrived on the 24th of January, 1770.* June 14.
Oct. 30.
Nov. 28.

In the spring of 1770 the *San Antonio* returned to *San Diego* 1770.

* An account of the establishment of the first colonies on the west coast of California was drawn up by Don Miguel Costanso, the engineer of the expedition, and published at Mexico in the latter part of 1770; but it was immediately suppressed by the Government. Fortunately, however, a copy of the work was carried to England, where a translation was made from it and published in 1790. This translation is accompanied by other useful articles with regard to the northwest coast, and by several maps and plans of harbors in that part of America. The work is in the library of Congress. Much information on the same subject is also afforded by Father Francisco Palou, in his Life of Father Junipero Serra, a Franciscan friar, who was the chief of the missionaries to California in 1768.

1770. with supplies from Mexico, in consequence of which Governor Portola determined to make another effort to form an establishment at Monterey. He accordingly marched for that place, where he was joined by the vessel with the supplies before the end of May; and having succeeded in completing the most necessary arrangements for the shelter and support of the settlers during the winter, he himself proceeded to Mexico to superintend the despatch of emigrants to the colonies.

June 10. It was in prosecution of this plan for securing the unsettled territories of America adjoining the Spanish dominions from occupation by foreigners, that Don Francisco Bucareli, the Governor of Buenos Ayres, in June, 1770, forcibly expelled the British colonists from their establishment, called Port Egmont, in the Falkland Islands. This event occasioned serious difficulties between the Governments of Great Britain and Spain, and preparations for war were made upon both sides; negotiations were, however, at the same time carried on, and the affair was at length arranged without recourse to arms, in a manner not wholly unsatisfactory to Spain. The history of these transactions has never yet been fully communicated to the world. From what has been published officially, added to the information obtained from various* other sources, the circumstances appear to have been as follows:

Sept. 12. As soon as the news of the expulsion of the settlers reached London, the British Secretary of State, Lord Weymouth, addressed to the Court of Madrid demands for the immediate disavowal on its part of the acts of the Governor of Buenos Ayres, and for the restitution of the islands in the condition in which they were before those acts took place. To these demands the Spanish Government at first gave evasive answers, endeavoring to change the question at issue into one respecting the right of sovereignty over the islands; but the British ministry refused to treat upon this subject until the disavowal and restitution had been made as required; and preparations for large armaments were begun throughout Great Britain. The Spanish ambassador at London next declared himself empowered by his Sovereign to state that no *particular orders* had been given to the Governor of Buenos Ayres with regard to the Falkland Islands, although that officer had acted agreeably to his *general instructions and oath* in expelling the British; and that Port Egmont should be restored as demanded. This offer was, however, also rejected as unsatisfactory by Lord Weymouth; and war appeared inevitable.

Dec. In this conjuncture, the King of Spain applied to his cousin Louis XV. of France for aid, agreeably to the Family Compact, in order that he might resist the demands of Great Britain. France was, however, at that time in a very disturbed state; in

* Parliamentary History, vols. xvi and xxviii; Dodsley's Annual Register for 1771, page 248; Belsham's History of Great Britain, vol. v, pages 368 to 371—particularly a note at the last cited page. The account given by this writer is perhaps the clearest which has yet been presented. See also an article on the Character of Lord Chatham, in the Edinburgh Review, No. 136, for July, 1838, page 448.

consequence of which, Louis declined entering as a party into the dispute, though he at the same time tendered his good offices as a mediator between the two Powers.* To this offer the Spanish Government acceded; and the King of France was thereupon immediately requested to take the whole matter under his charge, and to make any arrangement which he might consider proper for the interests and honor of Spain. In the mean time, a change had occurred in the composition and views of the British ministry. Lord Weymouth, being unwilling to recede from his first demands, and finding his colleagues averse to a war with Spain, had retired from office, and his successor, Lord Rochford, was ready to compromise the affair. The offer of mediation on the part of France was, therefore, accepted by the Court of London; and a definitive arrangement of the dispute was effected on the day of the meeting of Parliament.

1770.

Dec. 18.

1771.
Jan. 22.

On that day the Spanish ambassador at London, Prince Masserano, presented to Lord Rochford a *Declaration*, in the name of the King of Spain, to the effect that his Catholic Majesty, being desirous to maintain peace with Great Britain, disavowed the acts of violence committed by the Governor of Buenos Ayres, and engaged to restore to his Britannic Majesty and his subjects "the port and fort of Egmont in the Falkland Islands, with all the artillery, stores, and effects, precisely as they were before the 10th of June, 1770;" but at the same time it was declared that this disavowal and engagement "*cannot nor ought in anywise to affect the question of prior right of sovereignty of the Falkland Islands.*" The Earl of Rochford, in return, presented an *Acceptance*, in which, after recapitulating the paragraph of the *Declaration* relating to the disavowal and engagements to make restitution, he stated that "his Britannic Majesty would look upon the said declaration, together with the performance of said engagement, as a satisfaction for the injury done to the Crown of Great Britain;" *he, however, made no allusion whatever to the reservation respecting the right of sovereignty to the territory restored.*

In execution of this engagement, the British colonists were replaced at Port Egmont, as soon as it had been restored to the condition in which it was before the seizure; they were, however, withdrawn in 1774, by order of their own Government, and the Falkland Islands having thus been freed from the presence of all other Europeans, were occupied by the Spaniards, who retained them until South America became independent. This abandon-

1774.

* The celebrated treaty between the Monarchs of France and Spain, called the *Pacte de Famille*, was signed at Paris on the 15th of August, 1761. By the first article, their Majesties declare that "the two Crowns will henceforth consider every Power as their common enemy, which shall become the enemy of either of them;" by the second article, they "reciprocally guaranty, in the most absolute and authentic manner, all the estates, lands, islands, and places which they possess in any part of the world." Other articles fix the amount of "the first succors which the Power requested shall be obliged to furnish to the Power requesting." This treaty was virtually annulled by the National Assembly of France, in August, 1790; having been almost a dead letter during the whole period in which it was supposed to have been in force.

1774. ment by Great Britain of a territory which had formed the subject of such serious difficulties between her Government and that of Spain, was justified by the British ministry on the ground that no advantages were derived or expected from the colony sufficient to compensate the costs of maintaining it. The Spaniards, however, have always asserted, and their assertion is supported by the opinions of distinguished British historians and statesmen, *that the evacuation of the islands took place in execution of an express though secret engagement to that effect, entered into by Lord Rockford at the time of the arrangement of the dispute.**

The Spanish Government considered the result of this dispute as advantageous, upon the whole, to the security of its American possessions; regarding the concessions made by itself as more than compensated by the indirect admission of its assumed rights of sovereignty over the unsettled territories adjoining those dominions. Indeed, those concessions were little else than diplomatic courtesies. The spot occupied by the British colonists was restored only to be soon after abandoned; and Bucareli, notwithstanding the censure cast upon him in the disavowal of his conduct, was continued in command at Buenos Ayres until that evacuation took place, after which he was raised to the lucrative and dignified station of Viceroy of Mexico.

The same opinions with regard to the concessions of the Spanish King prevailed very generally in Great Britain, as soon as they were made known. The arrangement was severely criticised, and the ministry were reprehended† for concluding it, both in and out of Parliament; and the consciousness that these opinions were just, rendered the British Government more severe and uncompromising in its exactions from Spain upon the occasion of the dispute respecting Nootka Sound in 1790. The similarity of the circumstances which led to these two disputes, and the identity of the principles maintained by each party at both periods, rendered it proper to introduce the foregoing accounts and observations respecting the difficulties between Spain and Great

* Governor Pownal, in the debate in Parliament, March 5th, 1771, (see Parliamentary History, vol. xvi, page 1394,) on his motion for censuring the ministry on account of the arrangement with Spain, says: "Without some such idea as this, namely, that as soon as reparation is made to our honor for the violent and hostile manner in which we were driven off the island, and as soon as we are put in a situation to evacuate it on our own motion, it is tacitly understood we are to cede it—without some such idea as this, the whole of the negotiation is inexplicable and unintelligible." To this no reply was made on the part of the ministry.

† In the debate in the House of Peers upon the address approving the arrangement with Spain, Lord Chatham used this language: "There never was a more odious or more infamous falsehood imposed upon a great nation. It degrades the King; it insults the Parliament. His Majesty has been advised to affirm an absolute falsehood. My Lords, I beg your attention; and I hope to be understood when I repeat that it is an absolute falsehood. The King of Spain disowns the theft, while he leaves him unpunished and profits by his theft." In the protest against the arrangement entered into in the House of Lords by Lords Chatham, Lansdowne, and other eminent members, it is averred that in the declaration and acceptance "no claim on the part of his Majesty to the right of sovereignty to any part of the island ceded to him has been advanced; and any assertion whatsoever of his Majesty's right of sovereignty has been studiously avoided from the beginning to the end" &c. See Junius's letter of January 30, 1771; and Johnson's Defence of the Ministry, which is generally supposed to have been dictated by Lord North.

Britain in 1770; otherwise they would have been out of place in this memoir. 1774.

The issue of this dispute served to impress the Spanish Government still more strongly with the conviction of the necessity of occupying the vacant coasts adjoining its American provinces, either effectively, or in such a manner as to afford at least the semblance of right to the exclusive possession of them. Efforts with this view were accordingly made on the shores of Texas, Mosquito, Patagonia, and California; and were continued at a great expense, though with little success, until 1779, when the war between Spain and Great Britain occasioned their suspension. 1771 to 1779.

The settlements of the Spaniards on the west coast of California were, and continued to be until within a few years past, little more than missionary stations under the direction of Franciscan friars; some of them were, however, styled *Presidios*, in virtue of their possessing mud forts garrisoned by a few miserable soldiers. The most northern of these establishments was that on the Bay of San Francisco, founded in 1776; the residence of the Governor was, and still is, at Monterey.*

The British Government, on its part, although abandoning the Falkland Islands, still persevered in endeavoring to have the Pacific minutely explored. For this purpose, Captain Cook was despatched on his second voyage around the world, from which he returned in 1775; having in the mean time made many important discoveries, and completely disproved the rumors, based upon the declarations of the Spanish navigator Quiros in 1607, respecting the existence of a habitable continent south of the Pacific and Indian Oceans. 1772.

In 1774 and 1775 the northwest coast of America was explored by Spanish navigators between the 43d degree of latitude, the limit of preceding discoveries from the south, and the 58th; and in 1778 and 1779 the remaining portions, as far north as the Arctic Sea, were examined by the British, under Cook and his successors in command. Before relating these important occurrences, it will be convenient to present a view of the discoveries which had been made by the Russians in the northernmost parts of the Pacific, as the objects and movements of the other two nations, with regard to this section of the world, will thereby be rendered more easily intelligible. 1774 to 1779.

* For statistical accounts of these establishments, as they existed at the beginning of the present century, see Humboldt's Essay on New Spain.

CHAPTER III.

Voyages of discovery and trade in the northernmost parts of the Pacific made by the Russians from Kamschatka and Ochoisk, between 1728 and 1779—Voyages of Beering and Tschirikof—Establishment of the fur trade between Asiatic Russia and the opposite coasts and islands of America—Voyages of Synd, Krenitzin, Levassheff, and Benyowsky.

BEFORE the beginning of the eighteenth century, the coasts of Asia bordering upon the Pacific, north of the 40th degree of latitude, were as little known as those of America beyond the same parallel. At that time, the only information respecting the former territories was derived from the reports of Martin Geritzen de Vries, a Dutch navigator, who had in 1643 explored the seas north of Japan as far as the 48th degree, and had doubtless entered the gulf bounded by the Kurile Islands and Kamschatka on the east, which is now called the Sea of Ochotsk. In the best maps,* published as lately as 1720, Jesso, the most northern of the Japanese islands, is represented as part of the continent of Asia; while the Kurile group are laid down as a continuous territory, under the name of *the Company's land*, separated from Jesso by a passage called the *Strait of Vries*.

1696.

Such was the state of geographical knowledge with regard to the northeastern coasts of Asia in 1696, when the Cossacks, who had been sent by Peter the Great, Czar of Russia, to explore and conquer the northern parts of that continent, discovered Kamschatka, and penetrated to the shores of the Pacific. Within the ensuing fifteen years, Kamschatka and the whole region intervening between it and Europe were definitively attached to the Russian empire.

From these conquests the Russians acquired, among other advantages, an extension of their commercial intercourse with China, which thus in a short time became very important. The principal articles of export to that country were the skins and furs† of animals, which were obtained either in Siberia and Kamschatka, or by way of England from Hudson's Bay; in return, the Russians brought from China its teas, silks, porcelain, and other precious commodities. This commercial intercourse was effected by means of caravans passing over land to and from certain points

* See historical and geographical atlas of Mitchell and Senex, published at London in 1620.

† Furs have been at all periods highly prized in China as objects of comfort and luxury. In the northern provinces they are used as defences against cold; while throughout the empire they constitute an important part of the dress of every rich noble or ostentatious person. "With the least change of air," says Krusenstern, "the Chinese immediately alter their dress; and even at Canton, which is under the tropic, they wear furs in the winter."

in each empire; and when we consider the immense distance, and the difficulties of the journey between the commercial cities of European Russia and those of China, it becomes evident that none but objects of great value, in comparison to their bulk, could have been thus transported with profit to those engaged.

The possession of these vast regions only served to inspire the ambitious Czar with designs for the extension of his authority over other portions of the earth. Finding his dominions limited by the ocean in the east, he was anxious to know what territories lay beyond that barrier, and whether it would not be possible for him to invade from that quarter the establishments of the French, the British, or the Spaniards in America. Influenced by such views, he ordered that vessels should be built in Kamschatka, and equipped for voyages of discovery to be made agreeably to instructions which he himself drew up; while, in the mean time, other vessels should proceed from Archangel eastward, to explore the Arctic or Icy Sea and the northern coasts of Asia.

At the period when this plan was arranged by Peter the Great, it was not known whether Asia and America were united by land in the north, or were separated by means of a connexion between the Pacific and the Icy Sea; nor had it indeed been ascertained that the waters which bathed the shores of Kamschatka communicated directly with the Pacific, although this was considered most probable from the traditions that large ships had been wrecked upon those shores. The solution of these great geographical questions was the first object proposed by the Czar in the expeditions; the next being to discover the most practicable means of reaching the possessions of other European nations in America.

Various circumstances prevented the execution of any of these projects during the lifetime of Peter. His widow and successor, Catherine, however, resolved to carry them into fulfilment; and a small vessel was at length, in 1728, built and equipped at the mouth of the river of Kamschatka, on the eastern side of that peninsula, for a voyage agreeably to the instructions of the Czar. The command of the expedition was intrusted to Vitus Beering, a Dane, who had been selected for the purpose by Peter on account of his approved courage and nautical skill; his lieutenants were Alexei Tschirikof, a Russian, and Martin Spanberg, a German, both of whom afterwards rose to eminence as navigators.

Beering sailed from Kamschatka on the 14th of July, 1728, and took a northward course along the Asiatic shore, which he traced as far as the latitude of 67 degrees 18 minutes. There he found the coast turning almost directly eastward, and presenting nothing but rocks and snow as far as it could be perceived, while no land was visible in the north or the east. From these circumstances, the navigator concluded that he had reached the north-eastern extremity of Asia, and that the waters in which he was then sailing were those of the Icy Sea. Conceiving, therefore, that he had attained the objects of his voyage in this direction, and fearing that if he should proceed farther he might be obliged to winter in this desolate region, for which he was unprepared,

1696.

1711.

1725.

1728.

July 14.

August 15.

1728. he returned to Kamschatka, where he arrived in safety on the
Sept. 2. 2d of September. In this voyage Beering had twice, without knowing it, passed within a few miles of the American continent, through the narrow strait upon which his name was, fifty years afterwards, generously bestowed by Cook.

1729. In the succeeding year Beering sailed again from Kamschatka, and, taking an eastward course, endeavored to find the American continent. Ere he had advanced far in that direction, however, he was assailed by violent adverse winds, which forced him around the southern extremity of the peninsula into the Sea of Ochotsk. After this repulse, he went to St. Petersburg, and engaged in no other expedition of discovery for twelve years.

1729. While Beering was thus remaining inactive at the Russian capital, the existence of a direct communication between the Pacific and the sea which bathes the shores of Kamschatka was ascertained, first by the shipwreck of a Japanese vessel on the eastern side of that peninsula in 1729, and ten years afterwards by the voyages of two Russian vessels, under the command, respectively, of Martin Spanberg and William Walton, through the passages between the Kurile Islands to Japan. Within the same period, also, the continuity of the Pacific with the Atlantic through the Icy Sea, which the discoveries of Beering had given reason to suspect, was rendered nearly if not absolutely certain by means of expeditions, partly by land and partly by sea, along the northern coasts of Europe and Asia; all the attempts, however, made at that time, and since, to pass with vessels around those coasts, from ports in Europe to the Pacific, proved abortive. Moreover, a Russian, named Krupisheff, had sailed, in 1732, from Kamschatka northward, as far as the extreme point of the Asiatic shore reached by Beering in his first voyage; thence he had been driven by storms towards the east, upon the coast of an extensive and mountainous territory which was supposed to be, and undoubtedly was, a part of America. Thus the great geographical questions proposed by the Czar Peter were determined, and the practicability of a communication by sea between the Russian dominions in Asia and the Spanish possessions in America was satisfactorily proved.

1740. These discoveries encouraged the Empress Anne, who occupied the throne of Russia when they were completed, to persevere in endeavoring to extend her authority farther eastward; and she accordingly commissioned Beering in 1740 to superintend another expedition from Kamschatka in search of America. For this purpose two vessels were built in the Bay of Avatscha, on the southeast side of Kamschatka, which had been selected for the establishment of a marine depot; they were larger and more fully equipped than any of those employed in preceding voyages of discovery in that quarter, and scientific men were engaged in France and Germany to accompany Beering, so that precise information might be obtained on all points connected with the seas and territories to be explored. Before the preparations were all made, the Empress Anne died; but her successor, Elizabeth, the daughter of Peter the Great, immediately declared in favor of the enterprise, and, no delays being experienced, the vessels were

both ready for sea by June, 1741. On the 4th of that month they sailed from the Bay of Avatscha; the larger being commanded by Beering, and the other by Tschirikof, who had accompanied the Dane in his other voyages. On leaving the harbor, the vessels took a directly eastern course, and thus continued in company until the 21st of June; on that day they were separated during a storm, after which they never again met. 1741.

The only regular accounts which we have of Beering's voyage, after his separation from Tschirikof, are contained in the Journal of Steller, the surgeon and naturalist of the ship.* This journal is by no means sufficiently precise upon points of navigation and geography; in consequence of which, it has been impossible to identify many of the spots described by him as discovered during the voyage, although the general course of the vessel may be traced.

From these accounts we learn that Beering, after parting with Tschirikof, continued on his course eastward, without meeting with any thing worthy of note until the 15th of July; on which day, land was seen in the north, near the 60th degree of latitude. The part first descried was the summit of a mountain, the extraordinary elevation of which may be surmised from the fact that it became visible at the distance of more than eighty miles. As they sailed towards this point, the Russians perceived successively other lofty peaks, and then ridges of mountains, all covered with snow, and stretching along the coasts, as well as into the interior of the country, to the utmost limits of the view; and, upon drawing nearer to the land, they found a large river emptying into the sea, the current of which was felt several miles from its mouth.† July 15.

These evidences of the extensiveness of the territory, together with its geographical position, were sufficient to convince the Russians that they had at length reached the American continent. Many of the officers immediately expressed to the commander their wishes that he would pursue the discovery towards the southeast, in which direction the coast appeared to turn; but Beering was then laboring under severe illness, and was anxious to arrive in Kamschatka before the winter, in consequence of which he gave orders that they should take a western course. On the 20th of the month they anchored in a narrow passage between the continent and a small island, on which latter they landed in search of water. There they found several huts, which appeared to have been recently abandoned by their occupants, and various implements similar to those used in Kamschatka; none of the natives, however, were to be seen, and the Russians, having obtained a supply of water, set sail again on the following day. July 19.
July 20.
July 21.

* Steller's Journal was first published in the original German by Professor Pallas in 1795; before which time, all that was known of Beering's voyage to America was contained in a meagre and incorrect abstract of this Journal in Muller's Collections of Russian History. A translation of the most material parts of the account may be found in Coxe's History of Russian Discoveries, page 20.

† No such river has been since found in that part of America.

1741. According to Steller, the name of *St. Elias* was bestowed by the Russians on the most prominent point of this island, in honor of the patron of the day on which they reached it. The old accounts of the expedition, however, state that Beering gave that name to the lofty mountain which had first attracted his attention. Steller is more probably correct, as the 20th of July is the day of Saint Elias, agreeably to the calendar of the Greek church. The stupendous peak rising on the northwest coast of America, near the 60th degree of latitude, and distinguished on our maps as *Mount Saint Elias*, received that appellation in 1778 from Cook, who considered it to be, as it doubtless was, the same observed by Beering in 1741. Vancouver, who examined this coast minutely in 1794, was convinced that the place in which the Russians first anchored is on the eastern side of the entrance to a bay, now generally known as *Beering's*, and sometimes called *Admiralty Bay*.

July 21. From the island on which they had first touched, the Russians proceeded towards the west; frequently seeing land in the north, but seldom going near enough to enable them to distinguish its

Aug. 3. character. On the 3d of August, in the latitude of 56 degrees, a chain of high mountains appeared ahead, stretching across the horizon; and as they knew that Kamschatka was still far distant, they concluded that the land before them was either a great island, or a peninsula extending southward from the American continent. They in consequence altered their course to a southern one, in order thus to reach the latitude of 53 degrees, where they were sure of finding the sea open on the west as far as Avatscha. The distance was short, but they were so much impeded in their progress by contrary winds and currents, as well as by their fears of running upon shoals and small islands, that by the

Aug. 29. end of the month they had scarcely advanced fifty miles upon their way. By this time the crew began to suffer from sickness and fatigue, and, in order to give them rest and to procure fresh water, Beering again anchored near some islands, on which they remained ashore for several days. While they were lying at this

Aug. 31. place, the first death occurred among them; in commemoration of which, the group of islands received the name of the deceased sailor, and have ever since been known as *Schumagin's Isles*. Here, also, natives of America were first seen by the Russians; they resembled the Tschutzki, or aboriginals of northeastern Asia, in their features and habits; and it was remarked that they used implements of iron, which have since been found to be common among all the inhabitants of Northwest America.

Sept. After leaving Schumagin's Islands, the Russians discovered others,† extending in a chain westward, nearly in the course of the 53d parallel of latitude, which they passed without landing on them, being anxious to reach Kamschatka before the begin-

* They are in number twelve, and are situated near the latitude of 55½ degrees on the eastern side, and not far from the southern extremity of the great peninsula of Aliaska.

† The Fox Islands, called Unalashka, Unimak, &c.

ning of the stormy season. In this expectation they were disappointed. About the middle of September they were assailed by a furious tempest, and for several weeks were driven over the sea at random, while famine, disease, and despair were daily lessening their numbers. At length, on the 5th of November they again saw land in the latitude of 55 degrees; it proved to be an island, and on it they resolved, at all hazards, to pass the winter. With this view, they landed their stores and other necessaries, and began to construct habitations out of sails and spars; they soon, however, had an abundant supply of building materials from the wreck of their vessel, which was driven ashore and dashed to pieces by the waves.

On the 8th of December Beering expired, worn down by sickness and fatigue; and thirty of his men were successively consigned to their graves on the island before the ensuing summer. Nearly all these deaths were occasioned by scurvy, with which the whole crew were affected when they landed; the survivors were restored to health by the free use of fresh water, and supported themselves chiefly on the meat of sea and land animals, of which they killed great numbers during their stay. Upon the return of mild weather, they began to build a small vessel out of the pieces of the wreck, which they got ready for sea in August. On the 14th of that month they departed in their frail boat from the western side of the island; two days afterwards they made the coast of Kamschatka; and on the evening of the 21st they landed, forty-six in all, at the place from which they had sailed in the Bay of Avatscha. The island, where they had thus passed more than nine months, is a long and narrow slip of land, situated between the parallels of 55 and 56, about eighty miles from the east coast of Kamschatka; it has ever since been called *Beering's Isle*.

Such were the occurrences of Beering's last voyage. The other vessel employed in this expedition under Tschirikof, likewise pursuing an eastward course, came upon land on the 15th of July, in the latitude of 56 degrees. The territory thus discovered extended on the ocean from north to south; it was covered with high mountains, and its coasts were steep and rocky. As the weather was unfavorable for approaching the land, Tschirikof cast anchor at the distance of some miles from it, and sent ten men in a boat to make examinations; after some time, these men not returning nor making any signals from the shore, a second boat with six others of the crew was despatched in the same direction. Neither of these parties ever returned, nor was any thing learned respecting their fate; although their commander remained for several days cruising near the coast, in hope that they would make their appearance. This hope having entirely vanished, Tschirikof quitted the coast which he had discovered, and set sail for Kamschatka. His voyage homeward was attended with great difficulties, from constant storms, and from the sickness of his crew; at length, on the 8th of October, he reached the Bay of Avatscha, having lost twenty one men by scurvy, in addition to the sixteen whose fate was not determined.

1741,
Sept.

Nov. 7.

Dec. 8.

1742.

April.

Aug. 14.

Aug. 16.

Aug. 21.

1741.

July 15.

July 27.

Oct. 8.

1741. The land discovered by Tschirikof in 1741 must have been agreeably to his statement of its latitude and bearings, the western side of one of the islands contiguous to the American continent, which are now called on English maps *the Prince of Wales's Archipelago*. The inhabitants of these islands are fierce and treacherous, and have always displayed the most uncompromising animosity against foreigners; it is therefore most probable that the men sent ashore by Tschirikof were murdered as soon as they landed.

1741
to
1764. The discoveries effected by Beering and Tschirikof in this expedition were not considered by the Russian Government of sufficient importance to justify the immediate despatch of other vessels towards the American coasts; and accordingly no farther attempts were made by its orders to explore the north Pacific until 1766. In the mean time, however, accidental circumstances connected with Beering's voyage had turned the attention of private individuals in Kamschatka to the islands seen by that navigator on his return, and the part of the ocean in which those islands are situated had been thoroughly searched.

1742. It has been mentioned that the crew of Beering's vessel had, during the period passed by them on an island near Kamschatka, subsisted chiefly on the flesh of the land and sea animals which they found there in great numbers. The skins of these animals, particularly of the foxes and sea-otters, were preserved by the men, and carried in their boat to Kamschatka, where they were sold for such high prices that many persons were induced immediately to go to the island and procure farther supplies. In the course of the voyages made for this purpose, other islands were discovered, offering the same advantages; and the number of persons engaged in the search for furs was increased.

1741
to
1764. The trade thus commenced was for some time carried on by individual adventurers, each of whom, acting only for his own benefit, was alternately a seaman, a hunter, and a merchant. At length, however, some capitalists in Siberia employed their funds in the pursuit; and the expeditions to the islands were in consequence made on a more extensive scale, and were conducted with greater regularity and efficiency. Trading stations were established at particular points, where the furs were collected by persons left there for the purpose; and vessels were sent at certain periods, from the ports of Asiatic Russia, to carry the articles required for the use of the agents, or for barter with the natives of the islands, and to bring away the skins which had been procured.

The aborigines of the islands were a bold and savage race, whom it was found almost impossible to subdue or to conciliate; they attacked and murdered the strangers whenever an opportunity was offered, and the Russians appear to have treated them, in return, with great cruelty and oppression. In the smaller islands, the natives were soon extirpated or reduced to absolute slavery by the traders, who employed every means to force them to hunt and fish for the animals yielding the furs. The poor savages were required by their taskmasters to procure a certain num

1741
to
1764.

ber of skins during each season; for the delivery of which, and for their quiet behavior in the mean time, they were obliged to give up their children as hostages. In the larger islands, where the mountains afforded facilities for retreat or defence to the inhabitants, wars were constantly going on between them and the strangers.

In addition to the miseries and loss of human life thus occasioned, a large proportion of the persons engaged in the collection and conveyance of the furs were annually destroyed by cold, starvation, shipwreck, and especially by scurvy. The history of the first establishment of the Russians in this quarter of the world is, indeed, little else than a series of accounts of dreadful disasters and sufferings; and whatever may be our opinions with regard to the humanity of the adventurers, or the morality of their enterprises, we cannot but admire the courage and perseverance which they displayed in struggling against such appalling difficulties.*

The islands thus discovered and conquered by the Russian fur-traders were those between the 53d and the 55th parallels of latitude, extending in a regular line or chain from the vicinity of Kamschatka, eastward across the sea, to the extremity of the opposite American peninsula of *Aliaska*. They were at first known by the general name of *Aleyutsky*, or *Aleutian Islands*; at present, however, they are considered as divided into three groups, the most western of which retains the name of *Aleutian*, the middle group being called the *Andreanowsky*, and the most eastern the *Fox Islands*. The latter division includes Unalashka, Umnak, and Unimak, the largest and most important islands of the chain; at a short distance northeast from these are the *Schumagin Islands*, discovered by Beering, and named after one of his crew; and still farther in the same direction is *Kodiak* or *Kuktak*, the largest island in this part of the Pacific. Kodiak was the extreme point to which the fur-traders had penetrated in 1778; before that time the only portion of the American continent frequented by them was the coast of *Aliaska*, which they believed to be an island.

As the traders had no instruments for determining latitudes or longitudes with precision, their ideas of the relative situations of places in the north Pacific were exceedingly vague and incorrect. Their navigation was conducted in the most inartificial manner possible. A vessel sailing eastward from the Bay of *Avat-scha*, or the southern extremity of Kamschatka, could not proceed far without falling in with one of the islands of the Aleutian chain, which would serve as a mark for her course to another; and thus she might go on from point to point, until she reached the place of her destination. In like manner she would return to Asia; and, if her course and rate of sailing were observed with tolerable attention, there could seldom be any uncertainty whether she were north or south of the line of the islands. A great number

* The narratives of many of these expeditions of the Russian fur-traders may be found in Coxe's interesting "Account of Russian Discoveries." Krusenstern, in the narrative of his voyage to the north Pacific, states that at least one-third of the vessels employed in this trade were lost every year. See *postea*, chapter viii.

1741 of vessels were, however, lost every year, in consequence of this
to want of knowledge respecting the coasts, and want of means to
1764. ascertain positions at sea.

The Russian Government remained for some time unacquainted with the extent of this trade, and, indeed, with the existence of the islands discovered by its subjects. At length, in 1764, the Empress Catherine II. ordered that measures should be taken to procure exact information upon these points, as also with regard to the general direction of the west coasts of America, and their distance from those of her own dominions in Asia. This ambitious Sovereign had then just ascended the throne, and seemed determined to carry into fulfilment the designs of Peter the Great for the extension of the Russian empire beyond the Pacific.

1766. The first voyage made by order of Catherine II. for these purposes was that of Lieutenant Synd, who in 1766 and 1767 sailed through the seas northeast of Kamschatka. Very few particulars concerning his expedition have been published, from the circumstance, probably, that they were not calculated to reflect credit on the nation. By the accounts which have transpired, it appears that he proceeded northwardly, along the Asiatic shore, into the Arctic Ocean; and that he may have seen the American continent, about the 64th degree of latitude, as he was returning.

1768. In the following year, 1768, another expedition was commenced, for the purpose of surveying the islands discovered by the fur-traders. With this view, Captain Krenitzin and Lieutenant Levashef sailed from the mouth of Kamschatka river, each in command of a small vessel; and, after examining Beering's Island, and some others nearest the coast of Asia, they stretched across to the Fox Islands, among which they passed the winter. Before the ensuing summer nearly half the crews of both vessels had perished from scurvy; and when the navigators returned to

July 23. Kamschatka in the autumn of 1769, they had only ascertained approximately the positions of a few points in the chain of islands between that peninsula and Aliaska. It is, indeed, said that Krenitzin employed himself entirely in trading for furs, with which his vessel was laden when she came back from her voyage. The only valuable information derived by the Russian Government from this costly expedition was respecting the mode of conducting the fur trade in the islands; upon this subject the reports of Levashef were curious and interesting, and they served to direct the Government in its first administrative dispositions with regard to these countries.

The expedition of Krenitzin and Levashef was the last made by the Russians in the north Pacific, for purposes of discovery or investigation, before 1783. In 1771, however, took place the first voyage from the eastern coast of the Russian empire, to a port frequented by the ships of European nations; and, strange to say, this voyage was conducted under the *Polish flag!* In the month of May of that year, a small number of persons, chiefly Poles, who had been exiled to Kamschatka, succeeded in overpowering the garrison of Bolscheretsk, a place situated on the southwest

May 11. side of that peninsula, in which they were detained, and escaped

to sea in a vessel then lying in the harbor. They were directed in their enterprise by Count Maurice de Benyowsky, a Hungarian, who had been in the Polish service, and who afterwards wrote a history of his own life.* From his accounts, it appears that the fugitives, upon entering the Pacific, were driven northwardly along the coast of Asia, as far as the 66th degree of latitude, during which part of their voyage they also saw the American continent. At Beering's Island, which they visited, they found a number of fugitives like themselves, established in possession, under the command of a Saxon named Ochotyn; they also landed on several of the Aleutian Islands, where they discovered crosses with inscriptions, which had been erected by Krenitzin while on his expedition. Proceeding towards the south, they touched in succession at various places in the Kurile, Japanese, and Loochoo Islands, and in Formosa, and at length arrived in September at Canton. Benyowsky's accounts were at first discredited; they have, however, been since confirmed as regards the most material circumstances.

1771.

June.

Sept. 28.

In 1774, a work entitled "*A Description of the New Archipelago of the North, discovered by the Russians, beyond Kamschatka, by J. L. Strahlín, Councillor of State to the Empress of Russia,*" was published at St. Petersburg, under the immediate direction of the Government. Accounts coming from such a source were universally considered as authentic and accurate; the work was translated into all the principal languages of Europe, and it served as the basis for all maps and descriptions of the north Pacific Ocean until 1785. According to Strahlín, the American coast extended on the Pacific, from the southern extremity of California, in a line nearly due northwestward, to the 70th degree of latitude. Between the most northern part of this coast and the opposite shores of Asia were placed on his map a number of islands, several of which correspond in name with those of the Aleutian chain; but the positions there assigned to them were very different from those now known to be correct. Aliaska was represented as an island lying beyond the 55th parallel, and separated from each of the adjacent continents by a strait. In the large and beautifully engraved Latin map of the Russian Empire, by Treschot and Schmidt, published in 1776, on which the coasts of Asia are all laid down with great apparent precision, no land except the Aleutian Islands appears east of Kamschatka, within 25 degrees of longitude.

1774.

The errors of latitude in these maps amounted, in many cases, to ten degrees, and those of longitude were, as might have been expected, much greater. Indeed, until 1778, when Cook made his voyage through the north Pacific, the differences in longitude between places in that part of the ocean had never been estimated, except by the dead reckoning,† which, however carefully

* Memoirs and Travels of Count Mauritius Augustus de Benyowsky, written by himself. 2 vols. octavo: London, 1790.

† That is, "by keeping an account of the distance run by the log, and of her course steered by the compass, and rectifying these data by the usual allowances for drift, lee-way, &c., according to the ship's known trim."—*Falconer's Marine Dictionary*.

1774. observed, cannot afford accurate results; nor had any relation, which could be considered as nearly correct, been established between the meridians of a point on the Atlantic and of one on the north Pacific. The above remarks on the extent of the information with regard to the northwest coast of America possessed in 1774, by those who had taken the greatest pains to procure it, will serve to show more clearly the value of the discoveries effected by the Spanish and British navigators during the five years immediately succeeding that period. It may be added, that no further attempts were made by the Russians to increase their knowledge of this part of the world until 1783.

CHAPTER IV.

Voyages of discovery in the north Pacific, made by the Spaniards and the British, between 1774 and 1779—Voyages of Perez, Heceta, Bodega, and Cook—Journeys through the northern parts of America, made by Hearne and Carver.

In the preceding pages, it has been shown that, before 1774, the Spaniards had examined the western coast of America as far north as the 43d degree of latitude; and the Russians, sailing eastward across the Pacific, from their dominions in Asia, had discovered beyond the 55th degree many islands, as well as other territories, which were supposed to be parts of the first mentioned continent. Respecting the portion of the American coast included between these two parallels of latitude, no definite accounts had been obtained, although it was probably visited by European navigators during the latter years of the sixteenth century. The discoveries of the Russians had served to prove that the two great continents were entirely separated from each other by the ocean, but they had afforded little information as to the extension and limits of America in the northwest; and few of the conjectures based upon them have been confirmed by subsequent observations.

In 1774, the Spaniards attempted, for the first time since the days of Vizcaino, to explore this coast beyond the 43d degree of latitude. For that purpose, the corvette Santiago was despatched by the Viceroy of Mexico from San Blas, under the command of Juan Perez, an ensign in the Spanish navy, with Estevan Jose Martinez as pilot. They were ordered to proceed, if possible, as far as the 60th degree of latitude, and thence to examine the shores southward to Monterey.

Of this expedition a very imperfect account only can be presented. The Spanish Government carefully concealed all information respecting it until 1802, when a short sketch of the principal occurrences appeared in the Introduction to the Narrative of the Voyage of the Schooners Sutil and Mexicana, which was in that year published at Madrid, by authority of the King. In addition to this official notice, a few particulars have been communicated by Baron Humboldt, in his Essay on New Spain, as derived from the original Journal of Fathers Crespi and Peña, the chaplains of the Santiago, which he was permitted to inspect at Mexico. From these, the only sources of knowledge on the subject, the following account of the voyage of Perez has been drawn.

From San Blas, Perez sailed first to Monterey, and thence continued his voyage towards the north, keeping at a distance from the coast, in order to reach a high latitude before the cold weather should commence. The land next seen by him was near the

1774.

Jan. 25.

1774. 54th parallel, and must have been the north western part of Queen
 July 20. Charlotte's Island. After a cursory examination of this coast, he
 proceeded towards the south, occasionally seeing the land; and
 Aug. 9. at length, in the latitude of $49\frac{1}{2}$ degrees, he discovered and en-
 tered a bay, to which he gave the name of *Port San Lorenzo*.
 Here he traded with the natives, who surrounded his vessel in
 great numbers, offering the skins of animals in return for articles
 of iron, with which metal they were already acquainted. From
 this bay Perez sailed on the 10th of August; and as he arrived
 at Monterey on the 27th of the same month, it is not probable
 that he examined very minutely the coast lying between the two
 places. Martinez, the pilot of the ship, however, in 1789, asserted
 that a passage extending eastwardly between the 48th and 49th
 parallels had been found, and entered by his commander soon
 after quitting Port San Lorenzo; upon the strength of which as-
 sertion, Navarrete assigns to Perez the discovery of the arm of the
 sea now called the Strait of Fuca, and in his map bestows the
 name of *Point Martinez* on the cape at the southern side of its
 entrance.

From this account of the voyage of Perez, it will be seen that
 little information was obtained by him with regard to the north-
 west coast of America. If the latitude of Port San Lorenzo be
 correctly reported in the accounts of the expedition, (and we have
 no reason for supposing otherwise,) that bay must have been the
 same to which Cook, four years afterwards, gave the name of
King George's Sound, and which is now known as *Nootka Sound*.
 The Spanish Government, however, by concealing all accounts
 of the voyage of Perez until long after the publication of the jour-
 nals of Cook, deprived itself of the means of establishing the
 claims of its subjects to the merit of the discovery, which is al-
 most universally attributed to the British navigator.

1775. Immediately after the return of Perez, the Viceroy of Mexico,
 Don Antonio Bucareli, ordered that another expedition should be
 made to the north Pacific, for the purpose of examining the whole
 shore of the continent, from Cape Mendocino as far, if possible,
 as the 65th degree of latitude. With this view, the Santiago was
 placed under the command of Captain Bruno Heceta, Juan Perez
 going in her as ensign; and she was to be accompanied by the
 Sonora, a schooner of not more than thirty tons burden, of which
 Juan de Ayala was the chief officer, and Antonio Maurelle the
 pilot. From the Journal of Maurelle, as translated into English
 by the honorable Daines Barrington, and published at London in
 1781, nearly all that is known respecting the expedition has been
 derived. This Journal is confined almost entirely to the occur-
 rences on board of the schooner; concerning the movements of
 the Santiago, we have only a few indistinct notices, in the Intro-
 duction to the Narrative of the Voyage of the Sutil and Mexicana.
 The most material facts collected from these sources are the fol-
 lowing:

* The 10th of August is the day of San Lorenzo, (St. Lawrence,) according to the
 Roman Catholic Calendar.

The two vessels having been provisioned for a voyage of a year, sailed together from San Blas, in company with the schooner San Carlos, which was bound for Monterey. Ere the latter vessel had proceeded far from the land, her captain became delirious; in consequence of which, Juan de Ayala was ordered to take his place, Lieutenant Juan Francisco de la Bodega succeeding to the command of the Sonora. This circumstance is here mentioned, because, in nearly all the accounts of the voyage, Ayala is represented as the principal officer in command, whereas he in fact only accompanied the exploring vessels to the vicinity of Monterey.*

1775.
Mar. 16.

The exploring vessels, after parting with the San Carlos, made Cape Mendocino on the 7th of June, and on the 10th east anchor in a small cove just beyond that promontory, in the latitude of 41 degrees 3 minutes. At this place, which was named *Port Trinidad*, the Spaniards remained nine days, employed in refitting their vessels and taking in water. During this time, they held communications with the natives of the country, who appeared to be a mild and tractable race; and on their departure, they erected a cross near the shore, with an inscription setting forth the period of their visit, and the rights of their Sovereign to the surrounding territory, founded upon the discovery. This cross was seen standing by Vancouver, who landed there in 1793; the English navigator did not, however, consider the place as meriting the name of a *port*.

June 7.

On leaving Port Trinidad, the Spaniards kept at a distance from the land, beating against contrary winds, until the 9th of July, when, finding themselves in the latitude in which *Juan de Fuca* was said to have discovered a strait leading eastward through the continent, they sailed to the coast in order to ascertain the truth of the account. Proceeding in that direction, they soon saw the land, which, from its situation as described, must have been the southwest side of the great island of Vancouver and Quadra, at the entrance of the passage now called Fuca's Strait. They were, however, unable to examine this part of the coast, and were driven southward, to within eighty miles of the mouth of the Columbia, where they anchored, between the continent and a small island. Here they met with a severe misfortune; several of the crew of the schooner, who had been sent on shore in search of water, were surrounded by savages, and murdered immediately on landing; and the vessel was herself ex-

June 19.

July 9.

July 11.

July 13.

July 14.

* *Barrington's Miscellanies*, which contains the translation of Maurelle's Journal, is a rare work; and the notices of this expedition, contained in the various memoirs, reports, and reviews, concerning the northwest coasts of America, are nearly all taken directly or at second-hand from the abstracts of the Journal by Fleurieu, in the Introduction to the Narrative of Marchand's Voyage around the World, and in the instructions to La Pérouse. In these papers, Fleurieu has displayed much geographical knowledge, yet he has committed numberless errors; and his contempt for the Spaniards has led him, whenever an opportunity presented itself, or could be contrived, to disparage their proceedings. His accounts and criticisms with regard to the expedition, described by Maurelle, are filled with inaccuracies, and with unjust or illiberal charges against the Spaniards. Of his mistakes, the least important is his assignment of the command to Ayala.

1775. posed to danger from the attacks of the barbarians, who appeared in great numbers in canoes, and were with difficulty prevented from boarding her. In commemoration of this event, the island was called *Isla de Dolores*, (Isle of Grief.) Twelve years afterwards it received from the commander of the Austrian ship Imperial Eagle the name of *Destruction Island*, in consequence of the massacre of some of his men near the spot where the Spaniards had been cut off.
- July 15. After the occurrence of this disaster, as many of the crews of both vessels were moreover disabled by sickness, it was debated among the officers whether they should endeavor to proceed to the north, or return to Monterey. The commander, Heceta, was anxious to return; Bodega and Maurelle, however, notwithstanding the miserable condition of their little schooner and crew, insisted that they should persevere in their efforts to reach a higher latitude; and their opinion having been unwillingly adopted by their superior, the voyage was resumed on the 20th of July. On
- Aug. 4. the 4th of August the vessels were separated, and Heceta seized the opportunity of going to Monterey, while the schooner continued her course towards the north.
- Aug. 14. Ten days after leaving the schooner, Heceta, while sailing along the coast of the continent towards the south, discovered a promontory, called by him *Cape San Roque*, and immediately south of it, under the parallel of 46 degrees 16 minutes, an opening in the land, which appeared to be a harbor or the mouth of some river.* This opening, represented in Spanish charts printed before 1788 by the names of *Entrada de Heceta*, *Entrada de Asuncion*, and *Rio de San Roque*,† was, without doubt, the mouth of the Columbia river, which was thus, for the first time, seen by the natives of a civilized country.
- Aug. 18. Bodega and Maurelle, in their schooner, after parting with Heceta, proceeded towards the north as far as the latitude of 57 degrees, before they again saw the land. Under that parallel they discovered a lofty mountain in the form of a beautiful cone, rising from the ocean, and occupying nearly the whole of what appeared to be a peninsula, projecting westward from the coast of an extensive territory. In the angles between the supposed peninsula and the main land, were two bays, the northernmost of which was called *Port Remedios*, and that on the southern side *Port Guadalupe*, in honor of the two most celebrated places of pilgrimage in Mexico, situated near the capital. The mountain overhanging these bays received the name of *San Jacinto*, the saint on whose day it was discovered; and the appellation of *Cape Engaño* (Deception) was bestowed on its western extremity. There is no difficulty in identifying these spots, from the descriptions given by Maurelle, although they are distinguished on our English maps by other names; they are on the western side of the

* Journal of the Sutil and Mexicana, page 153; and Introduction to the same, page 94.

† The 15th of August is the day of the Assumption; and the 16th is St. Roque's (or St. Roch's) day, according to the Roman Catholic Calendar.

largest island of King George the Third's group, a little northward of the place where the Russian navigator, Tschirikof, saw the land, and where his men were lost in 1741. Mount San Jacinto is now generally known as *Mount Edgcomb*, and Cape Engaño as *Cape Edgcomb*; Port Remedios is the *Bay of Islands*; and Port Guadalupe is *Norfolk Sound*, called also by the Russians the *Gulf of Sitca*. These two bays communicate with each other by a narrow passage behind the mountain, which is thus completely insulated.

1775.

The Spaniards landed on the shore of Port Remedios, where they took possession of the country for their Sovereign with religious formalities, obtained some fresh water, and fought and traded with the natives, who appeared to have very distinct ideas of their own rights of property in the soil. The voyage was then continued towards the north, as far as the 58th degree. When the vessel had reached that latitude, nearly the whole of her crew were incapable of duty, while the increasing violence of the winds rendered additional exertions absolutely necessary. Under such circumstances, the officers found that it would be imprudent to persevere in their endeavors to advance, and they accordingly turned towards the south, resolving, however, to explore the coasts minutely in that direction.

Aug. 19.

Aug. 22.

Having taken this course, they searched along the shores as they went, for the passage or strait called the *Rio de los Reyes*, through which Admiral Fonté was said to have sailed into the Atlantic in 1640. "With this intent," writes Maurelle, "we searched every bay and recess of the coast, and sailed around every headland, lying to during the night, in order that we might not lose sight of this entrance; after which exertions, we may safely pronounce that no such strait is to be found." This conclusion was certainly correct, yet it was as certainly not established by the discoveries of the Spaniards in 1775. On that occasion, the search was confined to the part of the coast north of the 55th parallel; whereas, according to the account of Fonté's voyage, the *Rio de los Reyes* entered the Pacific under the 53d. Moreover, had the observations been as minute as Maurelle represents them, several passages would have been found leading towards the north and east, for the examination of any one of which more time would have been required than was devoted by the Spaniards to the whole search.

In the course of this examination, a bay, affording excellent harbors, and well secured against the ocean by islands, was discovered in the latitude of 55½ degrees, which, in compliment to the Viceroy of Mexico, was called *Port Bucareli*. It is situated on the southwestern side of the largest of the Prince of Wales's Islands, and is one of the few places on the northwest coast of America which still retain on our maps the names originally bestowed by their Spanish discoverers. From Port Bucareli the schooner sailed slowly southward, along the shores of the great islands which border the American continent, and were long after supposed to form part of it; and on the 19th of September she reached the spot where her men had been murdered

Aug. 24.

Sept. 19.

1775. two months before by the savages. Thence her voyage was continued, at some distance from the land, past the mouth of the Columbia; a little south of which she again approached the continent, and her officers endeavored to find the entrance of the great river said to have been seen by Martin de Aguilar, the pilot of one of Vizcaino's vessels, in 1603. The examinations with this view were commenced near a promontory, "resembling in form a round table," which* received the appellation of *Cape Mezari*, situated about thirty miles from the mouth of the Columbia; and were prosecuted to the vicinity of Cape Mendocino, without success. The Spaniards then bore away for the bay of San Francisco; and, while looking for it, they entered a smaller bay, situated farther north, to which Captain Bodega thought proper to give his own name. There they remained long enough to survey the shores; after which, they took their departure, and arrived at Monterey on the 7th of October.

Oct. 7. The expeditions of the Spaniards in the north Pacific, during the years 1774 and 1775, have been made the subjects of severe reflections and sarcasms by French and English writers; especially by Fleurieu, in his Introduction to the Account of Marchand's Voyage around the World, and his Notes to the Instructions given to La Pérouse. It must be acknowledged that little *exact* information respecting the northwestern side of America was derived by means of these expeditions; yet their results might have been important, by affording useful hints for the organization and conduct of future voyages. The great questions of the extension of the continent towards the north and west were left unsettled, and the delineation of the coasts, founded upon the journals and tables of the navigators, was imperfect and inaccurate; on the other hand, the eastern boundaries of the Pacific were approximately ascertained, as far north as the 58th degree of latitude; and several harbors were found, the positions of which were determined with tolerable precision. Perez and Heceta, indeed, displayed a cautiousness of disposition approaching to pusillanimity; but Bodega and Maurelle certainly vindicated the character of their nation for courage and perseverance, by their struggles to advance under the most appalling difficulties.

1777. In order to complete the examination of the northwest coast of America, the Viceroy, Bucareli, obtained from his Government the use of two small corvettes, which he was anxious to despatch in 1777; the funds required for their equipment were, however, so slowly collected that they were not ready for sea until two years afterwards. In the mean time, that coast had been visited by Captain James Cook, whose discoveries now claim our attention. Before proceeding to consider them, it should be observed that the Spanish Government carefully concealed from the world every circumstance relating to its establishments and researches

* This promontory is minutely described by Captain Clarke, who ascended it in January, 1806. See Lewis and Clarke's Travels, chapter 22.

on the shores of the north Pacific; and it was not until 1781, when Mr. Barrington published his translation of Maurelle's Journal, that any thing was known in Europe upon those subjects, except the fact that a voyage had been made about 1774 from Mexico to that part of the ocean. This should be borne in mind, in order that a just estimate may be formed of the value of the labors of Cook and his successors in command; none of whom were aware that any discoveries had been made by the Spaniards on the west coasts of North America, since those of Vizcaino in 1603.

Mention has been frequently made in this memoir of the efforts of the British to discover a northern passage for ships between the Atlantic and the Pacific oceans. These efforts were all directed towards the northwestern extremities of the Atlantic; and, in prosecution of them, the two great seas called *Hudson's Bay* and *Baffin's Bay* were first explored, about the beginning of the sixteenth century, by the navigators whose names they bear. It was soon afterwards ascertained, satisfactorily, that the desired communication could only be realized through the medium of one or the other of these bays; and, in order to encourage perseverance in the search for it, the whole region surrounding Hudson's Bay was granted by King Charles II., in 1669, to a society of London merchants, entitled the *Hudson's Bay Company*, with the understanding that they should endeavor to effect the discovery. As an additional means of promoting the attainment of this end, the British Parliament, in 1745, offered a reward of twenty thousand pounds to those of "*his Majesty's subjects who might find a passage for ships from Hudson's Bay to the Pacific.*"

Without presenting a detailed account of the various expeditions* made in consequence of these engagements and inducements, suffice it to say that, in 1768, nothing had been learned respecting the portion of the American continent and the adjacent seas west of the immediate vicinities of Hudson's and Baffin's Bays. Hudson's Bay had been explored completely by the fur-traders, as far north as the 67th degree of latitude, beyond which, however, it was known to extend; and although Baffin's Bay had been navigated to the 77th parallel, yet its shores had been but imperfectly examined. A channel for the passage of ships, between one of these bays and the Pacific, might therefore exist; or the Pacific, or some large river emptying into it, might be found within a short distance of places on the Atlantic side, accessible to vessels from Europe. The acquisition of Canada by Great Britain, in 1763, had rendered the determination of these questions more interesting to that Power, as there was no longer any danger that such discoveries could be employed to its disadvantage.

In order to arrive at some definite conclusion on those points, as well as for other purposes connected with commercial interests, the directors of the Hudson's Bay Company, in 1769, commis-

* A concise, though clear, and doubtless just account of these expeditions, and of their results, may be found in the Introduction to the Journals of Captain Cook's Third and Last Voyage, written by Doctor Douglas, Bishop of Salisbury.

1769. sioned Mr. Samuel Hearne, one of their agents, to explore the region westward and northward of Hudson's Bay, so as to ascertain, if possible, how far the land extended without interruption in those directions, and, consequently, how far a ship would necessarily have to pass in a voyage between the Atlantic and the Pacific. Agreeably to his instructions, Hearne set out* from *Fort Prince of Wales*, situated at the westernmost extremity of Hudson's Bay, in the latter part of 1769; between which period and July, 1772, he made three journeys on foot and in canoes, through the designated territories, examining them in various lines of march, to the distance of nearly a thousand miles from the place of his departure. In these expeditions, he discovered the *Great Slave Lake*, and many other similar collections of fresh water, from the most western of which issued streams flowing towards the north. One of the largest of these streams, called *Coppermine River*, was traced by him for a considerable distance, down to its termination, near the 68th degree of latitude, in a sea, which was certainly a division of the ocean, for the tides were observed in it, and the relics of whales in abundance were strewed on its shore. The traveller, moreover, assured himself that the portion of the continent which he had thus examined was not traversed by any channel or uninterrupted line of water forming a communication between the seas on its eastern and its western sides; and that, consequently, no passage could be effected from the Atlantic to the Pacific, in that direction, without sailing north of the mouth of the Coppermine.

The discoveries of Hearne were considered in Great Britain as highly important. The sea into which the Coppermine river emptied was supposed to be the Pacific;† and, as that ocean thus appeared to extend much farther towards the northeast than had been previously imagined, the hope of finding a direct communication between its waters and those of Baffin's Bay were proportionally increased.

Before relating what was done by the British Government in consequence of the information afforded by Hearne, it will be proper to notice another journey in the interior of North America, performed a short time previous, by Captain Jonathan Carver, of Connecticut. This gentleman set out from Boston in June, 1766; and, proceeding by way of Michilimackinac, passed the two following years in exploring the region west of the Great Lakes, which is watered by the upper Mississippi. Beyond this region he did not advance; and the only reason for mentioning his expedition here is, that, in the narrative of his adventures,‡ allusions are sev-

* The discoveries made by Hearne were communicated to the directors of the Hudson's Bay Company, and by them to the British Admiralty; no account of them was, however, given to the world until the publication, in 1784, of the Journals of Cook's Last Voyage, in the Introduction to which they are noticed. Hearne's Journals and Maps were finally published in 1795, after his death.

† Hearne estimated the latitude of the mouth of the Coppermine to be 72 degrees. We now know, from the observations of Franklin, that this river enters the Arctic Sea under the parallel of 67 degrees 51 minutes.

‡ Published at London in 1778. It attracted much attention at that time, and soon went through several editions. The work has been lately reprinted at New York.

eral times made to a great river flowing westwardly into the Pacific from the central part of the continent.

In the Introduction to his Narrative, Carver states that his objects were, "after gaining a knowledge of the manners, customs, languages, soil, and natural productions of the different nations that inhabit the back of the Mississippi, to ascertain the breadth of the vast continent (North America) which extends from the Atlantic to the Pacific ocean, in its broadest part, between the 43d and 46th degrees northern latitude. Had I been able to accomplish this, I intended to have proposed to the Government to establish a post in some of those parts about the *Strait of Anian*, which, having been discovered by Sir Francis Drake, of course belong to the English. This, I am convinced, would greatly facilitate the discovery of a northwest passage, or communication between Hudson's Bay and the Pacific Ocean." This extensive plan he was, however, unable to effect; having been obliged to turn back after having advanced as far as the St. Peter's River, and just as he was preparing to pursue his journey "by way of the *Lakes Du Phye, Dubois, and Ouinipique*,* to the head of the *Great River of the West, which falls into the Strait of Anian, the termination of his intended progress*." In summing up the information which he presents to the public, he lays great stress upon his "account of the heads of the four great rivers that take their rise within a few leagues of each other, nearly about the centre of the great continent, viz: "the *River Bourbon*, (Red River,) which empties itself into Hudson's Bay; the waters of the *St. Lawrence*; the *Mississippi*; and the *River Oregon, or River of the West, that falls into the Pacific Ocean at the Strait of Anian*."

This account is certainly incorrect, so far as regards the head waters of any stream flowing into the Pacific; and as Carver, though he frequently mentions the Oregon, gives no information concerning it more particular than that *it rises among the Shining Mountains, west of the source of St. Peter's River, and falls into the Pacific at the Strait of Anian*, he cannot in justice be considered as having thrown any light upon the geography of the western division of North America. As to the derivation or meaning of the word *Oregon*, he says nothing; and nothing satisfactory is, indeed, known about it. No such word is to be found in any vocabularies of Indian languages which have been examined in search of it; and there is little probability that it comes either from the *Oregano* or the *Orejon* of the Spaniards, or the *O'Regan* of the Irish. In fact, there is reason to suspect that Carver invented the name himself, and that he derived his idea of the river not from the Indians, but from the maps of the day, in most of which such a stream is laid down running from the vicinity of the Mississippi. It is certain that he copied the greater part of his accounts of the manners and customs of the *Nadowessie* Indians, (now called the *Sioux*), as well as their terms, from those given by Lahontan, nearly a century previous, respecting the sav-

1766
to
1768.

* *Rainy Lake, Lake of the Woods, and Lake Winnipeg.*

1766 to 1768. ages of Canada; as may be seen by comparing the chapters on marriage, on burial, on hunting, and on many other subjects in the two works, although he merely mentions the French traveler once or twice incidentally, and then in a very disparaging manner.*

Carver concludes his narrative by stating that a project had been formed in England, in 1774, by Richard Whitworth and other persons, of whom he himself was one, to cross the American continent with a large party, by way of the Oregon and Missouri Rivers to the Pacific, and then to examine the coasts of that ocean towards the north, in search of some passage leading to the Atlantic; but that the Revolution in America had caused the scheme to be abandoned.

1774. The British Government, however, soon afterwards endeavored to obtain a solution of the interesting question as to the existence of a northern passage between the two oceans; for which purpose it was arranged that ships should be simultaneously despatched to the north Pacific and to Baffin's Bay. Captain Cook, who about this time returned from his second circumnavigation of the earth, volunteered to conduct the expedition to the north Pacific; his offer was joyfully accepted, and he accordingly sailed from Plymouth on the 12th of July, 1776, in his old ship the *Resolution*, accompanied by the *Discovery*, under the command of Captain Charles Clerke.

1776.
July 12.

Captain Cook was instructed to proceed by way of the Cape of Good Hope and Otaheite, "to the coast of *New Albion*, endeavoring to fall in with it in the latitude of 45 degrees." He was there "to put into the first convenient port to recruit his wood and water and procure refreshments, and then to sail northward along the coast to the latitude of 65 degrees, or farther if not obstructed by lands or ice, taking care not to lose any time in exploring rivers or inlets, or upon any other account," until he had reached that parallel. At the 65th degree he was to begin his examination of the coast, in search of "a water passage pointing towards Hudson's or Baffin's Bays;" if he should find such a passage, he was to endeavor to make his way through it; should he, however, become convinced that no such communication existed, he was to visit the Russian establishments in that quarter, and to explore the seas north of them as far and as completely as he could. The direction not to commence the search for a passage to the Atlantic *south of the 65th parallel*, was founded on the proofs afforded by Hearne that the American continent extended uninterrupted beyond that latitude, and that, consequently, the stories of the voyages of Fuca and Fonté from the Pacific to the Atlantic were entitled to no credit.

The application of the name of *New Albion* to the western portion of North America showed that the British Government had

* In the interesting Account of Major Long's Expedition through the country of the upper Mississippi in 1823, vol. i, chapter 7, will be found some observations calculated to show that no dependence is to be placed on Carver's statements respecting that part of America, particularly as regards the St. Peter's River, which it is probable that he never ascended.

no intention to resign the rights supposed or pretended to have been acquired by Drake's visit to that region. In order to revive and fortify these claims, Cook was instructed, "with the consent of the natives, to take possession, in the name of the King of Great Britain, of convenient situations in such countries as he might discover, that had not been already discovered or visited by any other European Power, and to distribute among the inhabitants such things as will remain as traces of his having been there; but if he should find those countries uninhabited, he was to take possession of them for his Sovereign, by setting up proper marks and inscriptions as first discoverers and possessors." He was "strictly enjoined not to touch upon any part of the Spanish dominions on the western continent of America, unless driven thither by some unavoidable accident; in which case, he was to stay no longer than should be absolutely necessary, and to be careful to give no umbrage or offence to any of the inhabitants or subjects of his Catholic Majesty." With reference to the Russians he was directed, "if in his farther progress northward he should find any subjects of any European Prince or State upon any part of the coast, not to disturb them or give them any just cause of offence, but, on the contrary, to treat them with civility and friendship."

1776.

The preceding extracts from the instructions given to Cook in 1776 will be sufficient to explain the objects of his voyage to the north Pacific, and the views of the British Government with regard to the part of America bordering upon that division of the ocean. It should be observed, in addition, that those views were in every respect conformable with justice, with the existing treaties between Great Britain and other Powers, and with the principles of national law, then generally admitted in civilized countries.

When Cook sailed from England on this his last voyage, he expected to reach the north Pacific early in the summer of 1777; he was, however, detained by his researches in other parts of the ocean during the whole of that year, and did not arrive upon the northwest coast of America until the 7th of March, 1778, when he made the land about a hundred miles north of Cape Mendocino. For several days afterwards he was prevented by violent storms from advancing as he wished towards the north, and was driven along the coast to some distance in the contrary direction. The wind then becoming favorable, he took the desired course, and on the 22d of the month his ships were opposite a projecting point of the continent, situated a little beyond the 48th parallel, to which he gave the name of *Cape Flattery* in token of his improved prospects. In this part of his voyage he recognised the Cape Blanco of Aguilar, near the 43d parallel, but he thought proper to bestow on it the name of *Cape Gregory*. The mouth of the Columbia was passed by him, without its being noticed, during a stormy night.

July 12.

1778.

Mar. 7.

Mar. 13.

Mar. 22.

The coast immediately south of Cape Flattery was carefully examined in search of the strait through which Juan de Fuca was said to have sailed from the Pacific to the Atlantic in 1592. In the account of that voyage, the entrance of the strait is placed

1778. between the 47th and 48th degrees of latitude; and the land being found by Cook to extend uninterruptedly across that space, he did not hesitate to pronounce that no such passage existed. This assertion has been subsequently confirmed; had the English navigator, however, traced the outline of the coast on the other side of Cape Flattery, he would there have discovered an arm of the ocean, apparently penetrating the continent towards the east, through which he might have proceeded with his ships for many days ere he could have been assured that the story of the Greek pilot's voyage was not true in all its most essential particulars.

This arm of the sea was passed unnoticed by Cook, who continued his voyage from Cape Flattery, northward across its entrance, and along the shore of what he supposed to be the continent, as far as the latitude of $49\frac{1}{2}$ degrees. Under that parallel he found a spacious and secure bay offering every facility for the repair of his vessels and the refreshment of his men, in which he

Mar. 29. cast anchor on the 29th of March, bestowing upon it, at the same time, the name of *King George's Sound*. This name he shortly after changed to that of *Nootka Sound*, under the impression (which appears to have been incorrect) that *Nootka** was the term employed to distinguish the bay, by the natives of the surrounding territory.

April. The English remained at Nootka Sound four weeks, engaged in preparations for the difficulties which they expected to encounter. During this period they communicated freely with the natives of the country, who, though universally represented as the most thievish, treacherous, and ferocious of the human race, were upon this occasion rendered useful, and even obliging, by the kind and conciliatory conduct of the strangers. A regular interchange of commodities was also established between the parties, the seamen giving their old clothes, buttons, knives, and other trifles, in return for the skins of sea-otters and seals, which were found in abundance on those coasts.

Cook has recorded in his Journal many curious particulars illustrative of the character and habits of these savages, and he has also noticed some circumstances which appeared to show that they had held intercourse with Europeans before his arrival among them. Thus he remarks that they manifested no surprise at the sight of his ships, and were not startled by the reports of his guns; they had tools and weapons of iron, and ornaments of brass, which latter, at least, could not have been made by persons unacquainted with the arts; and one of their chiefs had hanging around his neck *two silver table-spoons of Spanish manufacture*. Yet the navigator was convinced, from inquiries, that no ships besides those under his command had been seen at Nootka, and that none of the inhabitants had ever communicated directly with the Spaniards or any other civilized people. Their indifference with regard to his ships he attributed to their "natu-

* The name of *Uquot*, or *Yucuatl*, applied by the natives of this region to a part of the sound called Friendly Cove, is the only word in their language which resembles *Nootka*.

ral indolence of temper and want of curiosity;" and he concluded that they obtained their iron and other metals from the European colonies in America, through the agency, "perhaps, of several intermediate nations." 1778.

Under these circumstances, Cook finally considered himself justified in claiming the merit of the first discovery of Nootka Sound, and it has since been almost universally conceded to him. The Spanish Government and writers, however, insist that this place is no other than the *Port San Lorenzo*, entered and so named by Juan Perez, during his voyage along this coast, four years previous to the arrival of the English in the north Pacific. In the account of that voyage, at page 70, we have shown upon what evidence this assertion is founded; and it cannot be denied that many of the facts observed by Cook, at Nootka, tend to confirm the probability of its correctness. To attempt to determine the question satisfactorily in favor of the Spanish navigator, would be at the present day an unprofitable employment.

Cook sailed from Nootka Sound on the 26th of April, with the intention of proceeding as speedily as possible to the 65th degree of latitude, where he was to begin the examination of the American coasts, in search of a passage to the Atlantic. The land next seen by him was the beautiful peak which he called *Mount Edgcumb*, but which had received from Bodega and Maurelle in 1775 the name of *Mount San Jacinto*; and two days afterwards he beheld rising from the shore two stupendous piles of rocks and snow, on the southernmost of which the appellation of *Mount Fairweather* was bestowed, while the other, lying nearly under the 60th parallel, was recognised as the *Mount Saint Elias* described in the accounts of Beering's last voyage. From the foot of Mount Saint Elias the coast was observed to turn to the west, instead of continuing in a northward direction, as it was represented in the latest charts of the Russians. Cook thereupon resolved to commence his survey at that point, hoping that he should soon find some strait or arm of the ocean, through which his ships might pass around the northwestern extremity of the continent into the sea discovered by Hearne. April 26.
May 2.
May 4.

With this view the English advanced slowly along the shore from Mount Saint Elias to a considerable distance westward, and thence southward as far as the 55th degree of latitude; minutely exploring in their way the two great gulfs called *Prince William's Sound* and *Cook's River*, and every other opening through which they supposed it possible to effect a passage. Their expectations, however, were in each instance disappointed; and the land was found extending continuously on the right of the whole line thus surveyed by them, over a vast space, which in the charts and accounts of the Russians, was represented as occupied by the ocean. That this land was a part of the American continent Cook entertained no doubt, although the fact had not then been established; and he therefore saw with regret that the probability of his being able to accomplish the grand object of his voyage was materially lessened, if not entirely destroyed. June.

While this survey was going on, the ships were frequently visited by the natives of the adjacent territories, none of whom ap-

1778. appeared to have held any previous intercourse with civilized persons ; and it was not until they had passed the southwestern extremity of the land, near the 55th parallel of latitude, that traces of the Russians were perceived. From this point they
- June 19. proceeded towards the west, and at length, on the 27th of June, they reached an island which proved to be *Unalashka* one of the largest of the Fox group, well known as a place of resort for the fur-traders from Asia. None but savages were found upon it at that time ; yet, as its position with reference to the other islands and to Kamschatka was supposed to be expressed with some approach to accuracy on the charts published at St. Petersburg, its discovery was considered important for the regulation of future movements.
- July 2. From Unalashka Cook proceeded northward through the part of the Pacific usually distinguished as the *Sea of Kamschatka*, into the Arctic Ocean, examining the American coast in search of a passage around the continent towards the east. On the 9th of
- Aug. 9. August, he reached a point situated near the 66th parallel of latitude, and called by him *Cape Prince of Wales*, which has been ascertained to be the western extremity of America ; and thence,
- Aug. 10. crossing a channel of only fifty-one miles in breadth, he arrived at the opposite extremity of Asia, since known as *East Cape*. Upon the channel which there separates the two great continents he generously bestowed the name of *Beering's Strait*, in honor of the navigator who had first, though unknowingly, passed through it fifty years before.
- Beyond Beering's Strait the American coast was found extending upon the *Arctic Sea* towards the east, and was traced in that direction to *Icy Cape*, a point situated in the latitude of $70\frac{1}{2}$ degrees, where the progress of the ships was arrested by the ice. In like manner the Asiatic shore was examined as far westward as it was possible to proceed ; and the warm season having by this time passed away, Cook judged it prudent to return to the south, deferring the prosecution of his researches until the ensuing summer.
- Oct. 2. On the 2d of October the ships again arrived at Unalashka, where fortunately some Russian traders were found. The chief of these men, Gerassim Ismyloff, was an old and experienced seaman, who had accompanied Benyowsky in his adventurous voyage to China in 1771, and had been for many years engaged in the trade between Kamschatka and the islands. He readily exhibited to Cook all the charts in his possession, and communicated what he knew respecting the geography of that part of the world. The information thus received from him, however, was only so far valuable to the English navigator, as it proved the inaccuracy of the ideas of the Russians with regard to the American continent.
- Oct. 26. Leaving Unalashka after some days, the English ships continued on their course towards the south, and on the 26th of
- Nov. 26. November reached Owyhee, one of the Sandwich Islands. There they remained during the winter, and there, on the 16th of
1779. February, 1779, the gallant and generous Cook was murdered by the natives.

Captain Charles Clerke, upon whom the command of the expedition devolved in consequence of this melancholy event, endeavored in the following summer to effect a passage to the Atlantic through the Arctic Sea. With this view he sailed from Owyhee to *Petro-Paulowsk*,* the principal port of Kamschatka, in the Bay of Avatscha, and thence through Beering's Strait; beyond which, however, his ships were prevented by ice from advancing as far in any direction as they had gone in the previous year. His health declining, he was obliged to return to the south before the end of the warm season, and on the 22d of August he died near *Petro-Paulowsk*.

1779.

Mar. 13.

May 1.

Aug. 22.

Captain John Gore, a native of New England, next assumed the direction of the enterprise; and the ships being considered by the officers unfit, from the bad condition of their rigging, to encounter the storms of another year's voyage in this part of the ocean, it was determined that they should direct their course homeward. Accordingly, in October they sailed from *Petro-Paulowsk*, where they had been treated with the utmost hospitality by the Russian authorities; and in December following they anchored at the mouth of the River *Tygris* in China, near the city of Canton.

Oct.

Dec. 18.

With the stay of the ships at Canton are connected circumstances which gave additional importance to the discoveries made in the expedition.

During their voyage along the northwest coasts of America, the officers and seamen had obtained from the natives of various places which they visited a quantity of the finest furs, in exchange for knives, buttons, and other trifles. These furs were collected without any reference to their value as merchandise, and were used on board as clothes or bedding; in consequence of which the greater portion of them had been entirely spoiled, and the remainder were much injured before the ships reached *Petro-Paulowsk*. At that place a few of the skins were purchased by the Russian traders, who were anxious to obtain the whole on the same terms; but the officers, having in the mean time acquired information respecting the value of furs in China, prevailed upon the seamen to retain those which they had still on hand, until their arrival at Canton, where they were assured that a better market would be found.

In this expectation they were not disappointed. The furs carried by them to China were the first which entered that empire by sea, all those previously used in the country having been brought by land though the northern frontiers. The supplies thus received had never been equal to the demands; no sooner, therefore, was it reported in Canton that two cargoes of these highly prized objects of comfort and luxury had arrived in the *Tygris*, than the ships which contained them were surrounded by persons all eager to buy for their own use or upon speculation. The Chinese, according to custom, began by proposing prices far

* Called also *Petro-Paulski*, and the Harbor of *Saint Peter and Saint Paul*. The Russians write it *Petropawlovskaia*.

1779. below those which were then current; but the English refusing to accede to such terms, they gradually increased the amount of their offers, and in the end the whole stock of furs was purchased by them for money and goods, the value of which was not less than ten thousand dollars.

The business for which the English stopped at Canton having been despatched, they sailed from that place in January, 1780, and, passing around the Cape of Good Hope, arrived at the mouth of the Thames on the 4th of October following.

The results of Cook's researches in the north Pacific were certainly far more important than those obtained by any or all of the navigators who had previously explored that part of the sea. The positions of a number of points on the western side of America were for the first time accurately determined, and means were thus afforded for ascertaining approximately the extent of the continent in that direction. The existence of a northern channel of communication between the two oceans, passable by ships, seemed to be entirely disproved; but, in recompense, a vast field for the exercise of industry was opened to the world, by the demonstration of the advantages which were to be derived from the collection of furs on the northern shores of the Pacific, and the sale of them in China.

With regard to the *novelty* of Cook's discoveries on the north-west side of America, it appears, on comparing his course with those taken by the Spaniards four years previously, that until he had passed the 58th parallel of latitude he saw no land, (with the exception possibly, though not probably, of Nootka Sound,) which had not been already seen by Perez, Bodega, or Heceta; it must be repeated, however, that he had no knowledge of the discoveries effected by either of those navigators. After passing the 58th degree, he was, as he frequently acknowledges, aided, and in a measure guided, by the information gleaned from the accounts of the expeditions of Beering and other Russians who had explored that part of the Pacific before him. This is said without any desire to detract from the merits of the gallant English commander, whose skill and perseverance were as extraordinary as his honesty and magnanimity; but merely to show with what degree of justice his Government could advance claims to the exclusive possession of any part of Northwest America on the strength of his discoveries.

While the British ships under Clerke and Gore were, after the death of Cook, on their second tour through the northernmost parts of the Pacific, the Spaniards were engaged in another attempt to extend their knowledge of the west coasts of America. For this purpose two vessels, called the *Princesa* and the *Favorita*, sailed from San Blas on the 11th of February, 1779, under the command, respectively, of Lieutenants Ignacio Arteaga and Juan Francisco de la Bodega y Quadra. The latter was the same officer who had in 1775 explored the Pacific to the 58th degree of latitude, as before related; and he was again accompanied by Antonio Maurelle as ensign, from whose journal nearly all the information respecting the expedition in question has been derived.

Of this voyage a very short account* will be sufficient. From San Blas the Spaniards sailed directly for Port Bucareli, the bay which had been discovered by Bodega and Maurelle near the 56th degree of latitude. This bay, as well as the shores in its vicinity, they surveyed with care; after quitting it, the point which they next saw was Mount Saint Elias, whence they proceeded along the coast towards the west, frequently landing and trading with the natives. In the beginning of August they entered a large gulf containing many islands, and surrounded by high mountains, which, from the descriptions given by Maurelle, must have been the same called by Cook Prince William's Sound. Here their researches terminated, for what reason we do not learn. La Pérouse says that Arteaga supposed himself to have then reached the coast of Kamschatka, and that he was fearful to proceed farther, lest he should be attacked and overpowered by the Russians. The ships departed from the great gulf on the 7th of August, and on the 21st of November following they arrived at San Blas, "where," says Fleurieu, with some justice, "they might have remained without our knowledge in geography having sustained any loss by their inaction." The voyage, in fact, produced little benefit in any way; it was the last made by Spaniards to the northwest coast of America before 1788.

1779.
Feb. 11.
May 4.
July 1.
July 9.
Aug. 1.
Aug. 7.
Nov. 21.

* The greater part of Maurelle's journal of this voyage may be found in the first volume of the Narrative of La Pérouse's Voyage. La Pérouse obtained it from Maurelle himself at Manilla in 1787, and has made some observations respecting the conduct of the Spaniards as therein related, which, though possibly just, are by no means generous. Fleurieu, the editor of La Pérouse's Journal, did not omit the opportunity of casting ridicule upon the Spaniards, whose efforts during this voyage were, in truth, not calculated to redeem their character for perseverance.

CHAPTER V.

Voyages and discoveries in the north Pacific, between 1779 and 1790—Commencement of the direct trade in furs from the northwest coasts of America to Canton—Voyage of La Pérouse—First voyages of citizens of the United States to the northwest coasts—Discovery of the Strait of Fuca—Attempt made by John Ledyard to cross the northern part of the American continent.

1776
to
1785.

WHILST Cook was engaged in his last expedition, Great Britain became involved in wars with the United States of America, France, and Spain; and as there was no prospect of a speedy termination of the contests at the time when the ships sent out under that commander returned to Europe, the British Government considered it prudent to withhold from the world all information respecting their voyage. The regular journals of the ships, together with the private notes and memoranda of the officers and men which could be collected, were in consequence placed under the charge of the Board of Admiralty, and thus remained concealed until peace had been restored. Notwithstanding this care, however, many of the occurrences of the expedition became known, the importance or the novelty of which was such as to raise to the highest degree the curiosity of the public, not only in England, but in all other civilized countries.

1785.

The wars having been at length concluded, the journals of the expedition were published at London in the winter of 1784-'5, under the care of a learned ecclesiastic, in three quarto volumes, accompanied by charts, tables, and all other illustrative appliances; and it is scarcely necessary to add, that the anticipations which had been formed with regard to the importance of their contents were fully realized.

The statements contained in this work respecting the great abundance of animals yielding fine furs in the vicinity of the north Pacific, and the high prices paid for their skins in China, did not fail immediately to arrest the attention of enterprising men; and preparations were commenced in various parts of Europe, in the East Indies, and in the United States of America, to profit by the information. At that period the trade in those articles was conducted almost wholly by the Russians and the British, between which nations, however, there was no competition in this particular. The Russians procured their furs chiefly in the northern parts of their own empire, and exported to China by land all which were not required for their own use. The British fur market was supplied entirely from Hudson's Bay and Canada; and a great portion of the skins there collected were sent to Russia, whence many of them found their way to China, though none had ever been shipped directly for the latter country. That the furs of Canada and Hudson's Bay could be sold advanta-

geously at Canton, appeared to be certain, even allowing for a considerable diminution of prices at that place in consequence of the increase in the supply; and it was supposed that still larger profits might be secured by means of a direct intercourse between China and the northern coasts of the Pacific, where the finest furs were to be obtained in greater quantities and more easily than in any other part of the world. There could be no doubt that this diminution of prices at Canton would take place immediately after the establishment of the trade, and it was probable that the expenses and difficulties of procuring the furs would also be augmented; therefore it was material that those who wished to reap the fullest harvests upon this new field, should commence their labors as speedily as possible.

1785.

The first expedition made to the northwest coasts of America from the south, for the purpose of collecting furs, was conducted by James Hanna, an Englishman, who sailed in a small brig from Canton in April, 1785, and arrived at Nootka Sound in August following. The natives of the surrounding country were in the beginning entirely opposed to all intercourse with the strangers, whom they endeavored to destroy; after a few combats, however, a trade was established between the parties, and the brig returned to Canton before the close of the year, with a cargo of the most valuable furs in place of the old iron and coarse manufactures which she had carried out in the spring.

In the same year an association of merchants, called the *King George's Sound Company*, was formed in London for the prosecution of this trade, by means of vessels sent directly from England to the northwest coasts, for which an exclusive license was granted to them by the South Sea Company; the furs there collected were to be carried for sale to Canton, and from that place, in virtue of a special permission conceded by the East India Company, cargoes of tea were to be brought back to London. This association immediately despatched to the north Pacific two ships, the *Queen Charlotte*, commanded by Captain Dixon, and the *King George*, by Captain Portlock, who arrived together in Cook's River in July, 1786. In the course of this and the two following years vessels were also sent to be employed in the fur trade of the Pacific—from Bombay and Calcutta by the East India Company; from Macao and Canton by various individuals, English and Portuguese; and from Ostend, by the Austrian East India Company, or rather under its flag.

1786

to

1788.

All these vessels appeared to have been owned and equipped wholly or principally by British subjects. The French made no commercial expeditions for the same purpose before 1790; their great navigator, La Pérouse, however, on departing for the last time from his country, in August, 1785, was instructed "particularly to explore those parts of the northwest coast of America which had not been examined by Captain Cook, and of which the Russian accounts gave no idea," with the view of obtaining information relative to the fur trade, as well as of learning "whether in those unknown parts some river or internal sea may not be found communicating with Hudson's or Baffin's Bay." The

1786. multiplicity of the affairs in every department of knowledge, to which La Pérouse was required to attend during this voyage, prevented him from devoting more than three months to the objects above specified; and of that time he passed one-third at anchor in a bay named by him *Port des Français*, near Mount Saint Elias, where he first made the land on the northwest coast of America. From the *Port des Français* he sailed along the western shores of the continent and of the great islands in its vicinity, which were then supposed to be parts of the main land, as far as Monterey; and thence, after a few days spent in making observations and inquiries, he departed for the East Indies.

Sept. 16. The remarks and opinions of the gallant and accomplished French navigator, upon many subjects relative to the northwest coast, display great sagacity, and have been since generally confirmed; he, however, made no important discoveries, and the whole value of the information acquired by him was lost to the world in consequence of the delay in publishing it. The journals of his expedition did not appear in print until 1797, at which period the Pacific coasts of North America were almost as well known as those of its Atlantic side.

1786. The Spanish Government endeavored also to secure for itself a portion of the advantages to be derived from the fur trade. Agreeably to its usual policy in such cases, an agent was sent from Mexico to the western side of California, where he was charged to collect all the furs procurable at the different settlements, and thence to carry them for sale to Canton. The adventure, however, proved unprofitable. A few skins only, and those of inferior quality, could be collected in California; and ere the agent arrived with them in Canton, which was in the spring of 1787, the price of furs had been so much lowered that scarcely enough could be obtained from the sale of his stock to cover the expenses of its transportation. The Canton market was, indeed, already glutted with furs, which were, according to La Pérouse, actually cheaper there in that year than in Kamschatka.

1783
to
1787. The Russians were in the mean time extending their intercourse with the American coasts and their establishments upon them; even before the publication of Cook's journals, they had begun to avail themselves of the information respecting his discoveries, which had been obtained while the English ships were at Unalashka and Petro-Paulowsk, and an association had been formed among the principal fur-merchants of Eastern Russia for the more effectual conduct of their affairs. In August, 1783, three vessels which had been equipped by this association for a long voyage sailed for America from Ochotsk, under the direction of Gregory Shellikof, one of the chiefs of the company. Their expedition lasted four years, during which period the shores of the continent and islands between the southern extremity of Alaska and Prince William's Sound were explored, and several colonies and factories were established, particularly on the large *Island of Kuktak*, or *Kodiak*, situated near the entrance of Cook's Inlet. This Shellikof was a man of great intrepidity and perseverance, well acquainted with the business in which he was en-

gaged, and never troubled by any scruples with regard to the humanity of measures after their expediency had been demonstrated. He is said to have exhibited the most barbarous disposition in his treatment of the natives on the American coasts, of whom he often put to death whole tribes upon the slightest prospect of advantage.* 1787.

In 1788 two other vessels were sent out by this association, under Gerassim Ismyloff, one of the traders whom Cook had found at Unalashka, and Demitri Betschareff. They proceeded as far eastward as Mount San Jacinto, or Mount Edgcomb, trading with the natives and taking possession of the country in the name of the Empress of Russia. 1788.

The Russian Government became also desirous to have a scientific expedition made through these seas, for which purpose the Empress engaged Captain Joseph Billings, one of Cook's lieutenants, and some other English and Germans, as officers, astronomers, and naturalists. These persons were sent in 1786 to Ochotsk, where two vessels were being built for their voyage. The preparations were, however, conducted so slowly, that Billings did not get to sea until May, 1790, he and his party having been in the interval engaged in exploring the northern coasts of Siberia. An account of their expedition will be presented hereafter.

The citizens of the United States of America appeared in the north Pacific to claim a share of the advantages of the fur trade, within a short period after its commencement in that quarter of the ocean. All the accounts hitherto published of their early expeditions for this purpose are defective, and in general erroneous; very little information concerning them is, indeed, to be obtained at the present day, and that little must be in part collected from the journals of British and Spanish navigators, upon whose statements we cannot always rely. From the authorities here indicated, as well as from some others more worthy of credit,† have been compiled the slender notices of American voyages and discoveries in the Pacific, between 1786 and 1793, contained in this and the two next succeeding chapters. 1788 to 1793.

The first voyages from the United States to the northwest coasts of America were made by the ship *Columbia*, of 220 tons, and the sloop *Washington*, or *Lady Washington*, of 90 tons, under the command, respectively, of John Kendrick and Robert Gray. They were fitted out by an association of merchants at Boston, 1789.

* Sauer's Account of the Russian Expedition, under Billings.

† The principal authorities to which reference will be made in these notices are: the statement of Charles Bulfinch, one of the owners of the *Columbia* and *Washington*, appended to the report of the Committee of Foreign Relations to the House of Representatives of the United States on the 4th of January, 1839, and published in many newspapers both before and since; the *Journal of the Voyages of Captain John Meares in the North Pacific in 1788*, and his memorial and documents addressed to the British Parliament in the following year; the *Journal of the Voyage of Captain George Vancouver in the Pacific from 1791 to 1795*; the *Journal of the Voyage of the Sutil and Mexicana*; and the manuscript *Journal of the Voyage of the Brig Hope of Boston*, commanded by Joseph Ingraham, from 1790 to 1793, which is preserved in the library of the Department of State at Washington.

1787. and, having been furnished with sea-letters from the Federal Government, and passports from the authorities of the State of Massachusetts, they sailed together from Boston on the 30th of September, 1787.*

The two vessels proceeded first to the Cape Verd Islands, where they obtained refreshments, and thence to the Falkland Islands, among which they passed a fortnight. They then doubled Cape Horn, and were immediately afterwards separated during a violent gale. The Washington, continuing her course northward, arrived at Nootka on the 17th of September, 1788. The Columbia received some damage in the storm, in consequence of which she on the 24th of May put into the principal harbor of the Island of Juan Fernandez, where she was treated with hospitality by the Spanish commandant, Don Blas Gonzales.† The damage having been repaired, Captain Kendrick set sail again on the 28th, and joined the Washington before the end of September at Nootka Sound, where both vessels spent the winter.

Nootka was, indeed, the place to which vessels sailing for the northwest coasts of America from the south generally directed their course at that time, and from which they took their departure on returning; as it appeared to offer greater facilities for obtaining water and provisions, as well as for repairs, than any other harbor in that part of the ocean. The sound is easily entered and quitted with the prevailing winds, and it affords secure and convenient anchorage for ships of any size, particularly in a small bay on the northwest side, called by the natives *Uquot* or *Uquatl*, and by the English *Friendly Cove*. Although it lies between the 49th and 50th parallels, and thus corresponds in latitude with the mouth of the St. Lawrence, its climate appears from all accounts to be much milder, and more nearly resembling that of Halifax in Nova Scotia, which is situated five degrees farther southward. The grains, fruits, and vegetables, as well as the domestic fowls and quadrupeds of England and the northern States of the American Union, thrive there and produce plentifully; the surrounding country is covered with the finest timber, and the waters abound in fish, and in the animals yielding the most precious furs.

The aborigines of this part of North America are certainly among the most savage and treacherous of the whole human family; they are of a race entirely distinct from any of those which were found occupying the middle and eastern sections of the continent, and probably belong to that of the *Tschutzky*,

* The owners of these vessels were Joseph Barrell, Samuel Brown, Charles Bulfinch, John Darby, Crowel Hatch, and John M Pintard; one of whom, C. Bulfinch, is still (1840) living at Boston. Each vessel took out, for distribution among the natives of the places which she might visit, a number of coins, struck for the purpose, bearing on one side a ship and a sloop under sail, with the words "*Columbia and Washington commanded by John Kendrick*," and on the reverse, "*Filled out at Boston, North America, for the Pacific Ocean by*"—encircling the names of the proprietors. A fac-simile of this medal will be found on the map.

† This officer was soon after deprived of his command and arrested, by his superior, the captain general of Chili, for thus disobeying the law of the Indies prohibiting the entrance of foreigners under any pretext into the American dominions of Spain.

inhabiting the northernmost regions of Asia. These barbarians evinced, at first, the utmost hostility to the fur-traders; they, however, soon acquired a taste for blankets, knives, and other foreign articles, to gratify which they became willing not only to tolerate the presence of the strangers, but also to hunt, fish, cut wood, and labor for them in various other ways.

The king, or principal chief, of the tribes residing in the vicinity of Nootka Sound at that period, was named *Maquinna* or *Maquilla*; his relation *Wiccannish* ruled over the districts next adjoining on the southeast, and bordering upon the Bays of *Clyquot* or Port Cox, and *Nittinat* or Berkley Sound. They were both courageous, artful, and ferocious savages, as was amply demonstrated by their many acts of blood and perfidy against each other, and against the foreigners who frequented their territories.

From Nootka, the shores of the continent, and those of the western sides of the outermost great islands in its vicinity, were explored by the English and American fur-traders northward as far as Cook's River, and southward nearly to Cape Mendocino. The vessels thus employed were in general commanded by experienced and intelligent mariners, well acquainted with the science of navigation, and provided with the best instruments for ascertaining geographical positions; and it being material for each, in order to obtain a cargo of furs speedily and cheaply, to find as many places as possible which had not been previously visited by the others, a great deal of tolerably precise information relative to these coasts was collected during the five years immediately following the commencement of the trade. This information was, indeed, in most cases, kept secret by those who had acquired it; interchanges of charts and notes, however, occasionally took place among them, and at length, in the course of 1789 and 1790, complete narratives of three commercial expeditions to the north Pacific were published in London by those who had respectively commanded in them.* These works are all tedious, on account of the minuteness of the details of personal and trifling matters, and the statements are often erroneous or false; they, however, afford the means of tracing with sufficient exactness the progress of discovery, and what may be called *the history* of the north-western portion of America, within the abovementioned period.

It will be proper here to give a sketch of some of the most remarkable discoveries effected by the British and American fur-traders between 1785 and 1790.

In the summer of 1787 Captain Berkely, in the ship *Imperial Eagle*, from Ostend, while examining the coast southeast from Nootka, entered a broad arm of the sea,† between the 48th and 49th degrees of latitude, which appeared to penetrate the American continent in an easterly direction; and as it corresponded almost exactly with the mouth of the passage through which the

1785
to
1790.

1787.

* Portlock, Dixon, and Meares. The narrative of the last mentioned person will be frequently referred to in the sequel.

† It is singular that this important discovery should have been made under the flag of Austria.

1787. Greek pilot, Juan de Fuca, declared that he had sailed into the Atlantic in 1592, it immediately received the name of *the Strait of Fuca*. Berkely did not, however, explore it to any considerable distance from the Pacific. Captain Meares in 1788 sent one of his mates in a boat up the passage, who reported, on returning, that he "had sailed thirty leagues in it from the sea, and that it was there about fifteen leagues broad, with a clear horizon stretching to the east about fifteen leagues farther." Captain Gray, in the *Washington*, in 1789, proceeded fifty miles in the same passage, and found it nowhere more than five leagues in width. An exaggerated account of this part of Gray's voyage was carried to Europe by Meares in 1790, and it contributed materially to induce the Governments of Spain and England to order those expeditions, which were so successfully conducted during the three following years by the navigators of each nation. It was said that the *Washington* had sailed through the strait into an interior sea, from which she passed again into the Pacific about the 56th degree of latitude. The account that such a voyage had been made was incorrect; but Captain Gray collected information from the natives of the coasts, which left no doubt on his mind that the passage communicated, northward of Nootka, with the Pacific, by an opening to which he had in the summer of 1789 given the name of Pintard's Sound, but which is now generally called Queen Charlotte's Sound. This opinion was verified in 1792 by Vancouver, and Galiano and Valdes.

1787. About the time of the discovery, or rather the re-discovery, of the Strait of Fuca, Captain Dixon, of the *Queen Charlotte*, from London, conceived that the land which had been seen by the Spaniards in 1774 and 1775, between the 51st and the 54th parallels of latitude, was separated from the American continent by sea, and he accordingly bestowed upon it the name of *Queen Charlotte's Island*. This supposition was confirmed in the summer of 1789, first by Captain Gray of the *Washington*, and afterwards by Captain Douglass of the *Iphigenia*, who separately circumnavigated the island. Gray, believing himself to be the original discoverer of the territory, called it *Washington's Isle*; under which appellation, as well as the other and more common one, it will be found laid down on the map accompanying this memoir. In the same summer a group of small islands were found near the continent, between it and the eastern side of Queen Charlotte's Island, by Captain Duncan, of the *Princess Royal*, from London, who in like manner applied to them the name of his vessel; Fleurieu considers them as the same which were seen in 1786 by La Pérouse, and were called by him *Isles de Fleurieu*.

May.
July.

The discovery of these islands, together with other circumstances, led to the suspicion that the whole of the territories extending on the Pacific, between the Strait of Fuca and the vicinity of Mount Saint Elias, which had previously been considered as parts of the American continent, might be really a collection of islands; and, as this suspicion gained strength, the old account of the voyage of Admiral Fonté to the Atlantic began to receive some credit. The islands and reputed islands in

question were supposed to be *the Archipelago of San Lazaro*, 1788. which were described in that account as situated near the 53d degree of latitude; and this apparent confirmation of a part of the story gave encouragement for the hope that the *Rio de los Reyes*, and the other waters through which the Admiral was said to have sailed on his way to the Atlantic, in 1640, would also be found.

At this period, moreover, an attempt was made by Captain July. John Meares, in the *Felice*, from Macao, to discover a harbor or river, which was represented on the Spanish maps as communicating with the Pacific near the 46th degree of latitude, immediately south of a cape called *San Roque*. This opening had been first seen by Bruno Heceta in August, 1775, and was called on the maps *Entrada de Heceta*, or *Entrada de Ascencion*, and in some instances *Rio de San Roque*. The account given by Meares of his search is worthy of particular attention.

Meares says that he discovered a headland in the latitude of 46 degrees 47 minutes, which he called *Cape Shoalwater*; sailing thence along the coast, towards the south, "an high bluff promontory bore off us southeast* at the distance of only four leagues, for which we steered to double, with the hope that between it and Cape Shoalwater we should find some sort of harbor. We now discovered distant land beyond this promontory, and we pleased ourselves with the expectation of its being Cape Saint Roc of the Spaniards, near which they are said to have found a good port. By half-past eleven, we doubled this cape at the distance of three miles, having a clear and perfect view of the shore in every part, on which we did not discern a living creature, or the least trace of habitable life. A prodigious easterly swell rolled on the shore, and the soundings gradually decreased from forty to sixteen fathoms over a hard sandy bottom. After we had rounded the promontory, a large bay, as we had imagined, opened to our view, that bore a very promising appearance, and into which we steered with every encouraging expectation.

"The high land that formed the boundaries of the bay was at July 7. a great distance, and a flat level country occupied the intervening space; the bay itself took rather a westerly direction. As we steered in, the water shoaled to nine, eight, and seven fathoms, when breakers were seen from the deck right ahead, and from the mast-head they were observed to extend across the bay; we, therefore, hauled out, and directed our course to the opposite shore, to see if there was any channel, or if we could discover any port.

"The name of *Cape Disappointment* was given to the promontory, and the bay obtained the title of *Deception Bay*. By an indifferent meridian observation, it lies in the latitude of 46 degrees 10 minutes north, and in the computed longitude of 235 degrees 34 minutes east. *We can now with safety assert that there is no such river as that of Saint Roc exists, as laid down in the Spanish charts.*"

This assertion, though somewhat ungrammatically expressed,

* Meares's Account of his Voyage, printed at London in 1790, page 167.

1788. is yet sufficiently clear and explicit. Captain Meares was convinced by his observations that no great stream entered the Pacific from the American continent near the latitude and places described by him. How far this conclusion was correct will be shown hereafter.

In addition to the discoveries and examinations here specified, the British and American fur-traders, during the period between 1785 and 1790, explored many other parts of the American coast which had been seen by the Spaniards or by Cook, and made numerous corrections in the charts of those navigators; much, however, remained to be done in that way before the western shores of the continent could be accurately known, as may be seen by merely comparing the charts and accounts of Portlock and Meares with those of Vancouver published in 1797.

The fur trade between the northwest coasts of America and Canton was, for some years after its establishment, upon the whole, less profitable than had been anticipated, in consequence doubtless of the difficulty of forming new channels of commercial communication in China. Whilst the market at Canton was overstocked with those articles, they were in great demand in the northern parts of the empire, which continued to be, as formerly, supplied directly from Russia. The first adventure of the citizens of the United States in this trade was entirely unprofitable. The skins collected by the *Columbia* and *Washington* during the summer of 1789 did not exceed in number eight hundred; they were carried in the autumn of that year to Canton, by Captain Gray in the *Columbia*, (Kendrick remaining on the coast in the *Washington*,) and were there exchanged for teas to the value of about sixty thousand dollars, with which the ship arrived, by way of the Cape of Good Hope, at Boston, on the 9th of August, 1790. The proceeds of the sale of the teas did not cover the expenses of the outfit and voyage, and some of the owners, in consequence, sold out their shares; the others, however, determined to persevere, and the *Columbia* was accordingly soon after sent back to the Pacific.

It would be improper to omit to notice here the attempt made in 1788 by John Ledyard, a native of Connecticut, to traverse the northern portion of the American continent. Ledyard had accompanied Cook, in the capacity of sergeant of marines, in the last voyage made by that navigator; and, after its conclusion, he went to Paris in order to obtain the means of engaging in the fur trade of the north Pacific. Failing in that object, he undertook, at the suggestion of Mr. Jefferson, then Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States in France, to make the attempt above mentioned, for which purpose it was arranged that he should go by land to Kamtschatka, thence by sea to Nootka, or some other place on the northwest coast of America, and thence across the continent to the United States. With this view, permission was obtained by Mr. Jefferson from the Empress of Russia for Ledyard to pass through her dominions; and, thus protected, he advanced on his way as far as Irkutsk in Siberia, near Ochotsk, where he expected to embark for America. At that place, however, he was arrested by order of

the Empress on the 24th of February, 1788, and, having been put into an open carriage, he was thence conveyed, without being allowed to stop, to the frontiers of Poland, where he was liberated with a warning not again to enter the Russian territory. On the 15th of November following he died at Cairo, just as he was preparing to set out on a journey in search of the source of the river Nile. 1788.

In the latter part of the period to which the present chapter relates, events occurred upon the northwest side of America, which rendered those territories for the first time the subject of dispute between the Governments of European nations. The seizure of two British trading vessels by a Spanish commandant at Nootka, in the spring of 1789, was near occasioning a general war in Europe; and the storm was only averted by the abandonment on the part of Spain of her claims to the exclusive navigation of the Pacific, and to the possession of the unoccupied territories of America bordering upon that ocean. The circumstances connected with this dispute will be detailed in the ensuing chapter.

CHAPTER VI.

Jealousy and alarm of the Spanish Government at the proceedings of the fur-traders in the north Pacific—Voyage of observation by Martinez and Haro in 1788—Remonstrances of the Court of Madrid to that of St. Petersburg—Voyages of Meares and Colnett—Occupation of Nootka, and seizure of vessels at that place by the Spaniards in 1789—Dispute between Great Britain and Spain ended by a treaty between those Powers relative to the navigation of the Pacific and the possession of the vacant coasts of America.

1785. THE movements of the fur-traders in the north Pacific were from the beginning regarded with uneasiness by the Spanish Government. The establishment of foreigners upon the coasts of that ocean adjacent to Mexico, the evil so long dreaded at Madrid, appeared imminent; and there were no means which could with prudence be employed to arrest it. Remonstrances upon such points, addressed to the Courts of London and St. Petersburg, would most probably be unavailing, while any attempt to enforce the exclusive regulations upon the coasts might involve Spain in wars which it was then material to avoid. Under such circumstances, all that could be done for the time was to watch the progress of the evil, in order that the most proper measures might be adopted for counteracting it, whenever opportunities should occur.

1788. In consequence of instructions to this effect, the Viceroy of
 March 8. Mexico despatched from San Blas, in the spring of 1788, two armed vessels, the *Princesa* and the *San Carlos*, under the command of Estevan José Martinez, who was ordered to examine the northwest coasts of the continent, and to procure as accurate information as possible with regard to the views of the Russians and other foreigners in that quarter. These vessels sailed direct for Prince William's Sound, where they arrived in the latter part of May, and were received with civility by the superintendents of the Russian Trading Company's establishments. The summer was passed by Martinez in visiting the different factories and forts of that association on the continent, and islands between the sound and Unalashka; and the crews of his vessels beginning to suffer from scurvy as the cold season approached, he returned, by way of Monterey, to San Blas, without having seen any other parts of the northwest coast.

Dec. 5. According to the report* addressed to the Viceroy of Mexico

* Of this report, Humboldt says: "I found in the archives of the Viceroyalty of Mexico a large volume in folio, bearing the title of *Reconocimiento de los quatro Establecimientos Rusos al norte de la California, hecho en 1788*. The historical account of the voyage of Martinez contained in this manuscript furnishes, however, very few data relative to the Russian colonies in the new continent. As no person among his crew understood a word of the Russian language, they could only communicate with the people of that nation by signs."

by Martinez, the Russian establishments in America were four in number, all of them situated west of Prince William's Sound; and their population, including soldiers and hunters, amounted to four hundred. Beyond (that is, eastward of the sound) they had not advanced; but it was understood that a large force was about to be sent from Asia, for the purpose of occupying Nootka Sound in the name of the Empress of Russia. The latter part of this account doubtless bore reference to the expedition of Ismyloff and Betschareff, which was commenced in the summer of that year.

Upon receiving this information of the intentions of the Russians with regard to Nootka, the Viceroy of Mexico determined to anticipate them, if possible, by immediately taking possession of the place for his own Sovereign. With this view he ordered Martinez to sail thither, with his vessels well armed and manned, and to occupy and defend the sound as a part of his Catholic Majesty's dominions; in case any British or Russian vessels should present themselves there, they were to be treated with civility and friendship, but their commanders were at the same time to be informed of the establishment of the Spanish authority over the territory.* With these instructions, Martinez quitted San Blas in February, 1789, and arrived at Nootka on the 6th of May following.

The report concerning the projected seizure of Nootka by the Russians was at the same time communicated by the Viceroy to his Government, and it was thereupon determined at Madrid that a memorial† should be addressed to the Empress of Russia, remonstrating against the encroachments of her subjects upon the territories of his Catholic Majesty. It is to be remarked, that in this memorial *Prince William's Sound is assumed as the limit between the dominions of the two Sovereigns; the first instance of an admission by the Spanish Government of the right of any other Power to occupy a part of America bordering upon the Pacific.* The Empress of Russia answered, that orders had been already given to her subjects to make no settlements in places belonging to other nations, and if those orders had been violated with regard to Spanish America, she hoped his Catholic Majesty would arrest the encroachments in a friendly manner. With this answer, which was more courteous than specific, the Spanish minister professed himself content; observing, however, that "Spain could not be responsible for what her officers might do at places so distant, while they were acting under general orders not to allow any settlements to be made by other nations on the Spanish American continent."

While this diplomatic correspondence was passing between the Courts of Madrid and St. Petersburg, events were occurring on

* For the instructions given to Martinez, see the Introduction to the Narrative of the Voyage of the Sutil and Mexicana, which may be considered as an official work.

† See the memorial addressed by the Court of Spain to that of Great Britain on the 13th of June, 1790, in the London Annual Register for that year, page 294.

1789. the northwest coast of America, from which the most material consequences resulted. These events have been variously represented, or rather misrepresented, by the historians* to whom we usually look for information respecting them. It may, indeed, be asserted, without fear of disproof, that in all the accounts hitherto published of the immediate causes of the controversy between Great Britain and Spain in 1790, relative to the navigation of the Pacific and Southern Oceans, and the unoccupied portions of America bordering upon those seas, the most important circumstances are exhibited in a form and light entirely different from those which would be produced by a full and impartial review of the evidences.

With the object of endeavoring to correct these errors, a narrative of the events above mentioned will here be presented, drawn entirely from the original sources of information.† Many of the

* Viz: Bissett's Continuation of Hume and Smollett; Belsham's History of Great Britain; Wade's Chronological History of England; the History of Spain and Portugal, by Busk, published under the direction of the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge; the Introduction to the Narrative of the Voyage of the Sutil and Mexicana; the History of Maritime and Inland Adventure and Discovery, forming part of Lardner's Encyclopædia; Brenton's Naval History of Great Britain; Gifford's Life of William Pitt; &c. The accounts of these British writers have been generally admitted and stated as correct in the reports respecting the northwest coast, presented by committees to the Congress of the United States; and no attempt seems to have been made to controvert or question them in the course of any negotiations between the United States and Great Britain.

† These sources of information are:

I. Journal of Voyages in the Pacific Ocean in 1788 and 1789, by John Meares. In the Appendix to the Journal of Meares is the

II. Memorial addressed to the House of Commons of Great Britain on the 13th of May, 1790, by John Meares, in behalf of the owners of certain vessels seized at Nootka Sound in 1789 by the Spanish commandant Martinez, praying that measures might be taken to obtain indemnification for those losses, as also for the seizure of certain lands and houses on the northwest coast of America, claimed by the petitioners as their property. An abstract of this memorial, *carefully* composed so as to exclude all circumstances which might weaken the claims of the petitioners, may be found in the Annual Register for 1790, page 287. The *journal* of the voyages of Meares relates, in part, to the circumstances which form the subject of the *memorial*; on comparing the two, it will be found that they are frequently at variance.

III. Account of Voyages in the Pacific, made between 1790 and 1794 by Captain George Vancouver of the British navy, who had been sent by his Government to explore that ocean, and also to superintend the delivery by the Spanish authorities of certain territories at and near Nootka Sound, in virtue of the treaty of October, 1790.

IV. Account of a Voyage in the Pacific, made in 1793 and 1794 by Captain James Colnett. The only parts of this work relating to the affairs in question are the Introduction and a note at page 96.

V. The Introduction by Navarrete to the Narrative of the Voyages of the Spanish Schooners Sutil and Mexicana in 1791-'2; which is here cited only to show that it has been consulted.

In addition to the abovementioned printed works, is the following, as yet unpublished:

VI. Letter written at Nootka Sound in August, 1793, by Joseph Ingraham, master of the American merchant brig Hope, and signed by himself and Robert Gray, master of the Ship Columbia, respecting the events at Nootka in 1789, of which one or both of them were witnesses; it was written in compliance with a request from Don Juan Francisco de la Bodega y Quadra, the Spanish commandant at Nootka, by whom a copy of it was delivered to Vancouver. In the first volume of the Narrative of Vancouver, page 389, may be found a synopsis of this letter, in which the evidence of the Americans is *carefully* garbled to suit the purposes of the British commander. A copy of the letter in full, extracted from the original Journal of Ingraham, is given in the appendix [D] to this memoir.

1789.

details may at first appear trifling and unworthy of note ; it is believed, however, that none have been introduced which are not indispensable for the attainment of the end proposed, while no circumstances have been omitted which might, if related, have led to different conclusions. This narrative must be preceded by some observations and statements, which are necessary in order that proper judgments may be formed upon the circumstances.

In the first place, it is certain that, *before the arrival of the Spanish commander Martinez at Nootka, in May, 1789, no settlement, factory, or commercial or military establishment whatsoever, had been founded or even attempted; and no jurisdiction had been exercised by the subjects or authorities of any civilized nation in any part of America bordering upon the Pacific, between Port San Francisco and Prince William's Sound.* The Spaniards, the British, the Russians, and the French had landed at various places on these coasts, where they had displayed flags and erected crosses and monuments in token of the claims of their respective sovereigns to the surrounding territories ; but such acts are, and were then, generally regarded as idle ceremonies, securing no effectual rights to those who engaged in them. Nor does it appear that any portion of the soil within these limits had become the property of a foreigner, notwithstanding that the British Government did in 1790 demand, and Spain engaged by treaty to restore, several pieces of land and buildings in the vicinity of Nootka Sound, which were claimed as belonging to John Meares and other British subjects at the time of the occupation of that place by the forces of his Catholic Majesty. Although this demand was thus formally urged and admitted, many circumstances, which will be related in the sequel, combine to prove conclusively that it was entirely destitute of foundation.

The right of sovereignty over this vast region was claimed by the King of Spain, and no other Power had formally contested his pretensions, notwithstanding the Russians were advancing upon the continent in the north, and the British ministry had, it is said, a short time previously deliberated upon the question whether New Albion or New Holland should be selected for the establishment of their contemplated penal colony. That the Spaniards were the first discoverers of the west coasts of America as far north as the 58th degree of latitude, with the exception of the small portion near the 56th parallel seen by the Russians in 1741, has been already demonstrated ; the fact is as indisputable as that the Portuguese discovered the south coasts of Africa. To assume that Spain thereby acquired the right of excluding all other nations from these coasts, whether her subjects settled on them or not, would be absurd ; but it would, at the same time, be unjust to deny that her title to occupy them was better than that of any other nation, not only in virtue of priority of discovery, but also from their continuity with her own undoubted possessions. It is unnecessary to indicate the various modes in which this *better right* might have been exercised by Spain without giving just cause of complaint to other Powers ; the object of these observa-

1789. tions being merely to show that her occupation of Nootka in 1789 was, *per se*, conformable with justice, and with the recognised principles of national law.

1788.
Jan. 1. In order to present a satisfactory view of the events attending that occupation, the account must commence from the month of January, 1788, when two vessels, the *Felice* and the *Iphigenia*, sailed from Macao,* for the northwest coast of America, to be employed in the fur trade, under the direction of John Meares, a lieutenant in the British navy, then on half-pay, who went in the *Felice*. The *Iphigenia* also carried a British subject, William Douglas, as supercargo; both vessels, however, were commanded by Portuguese, they were both furnished with Portuguese passports and other papers, showing them to be the property of Juan Cavallo, a Portuguese merchant of Macao, and they quitted that place under the flag of Portugal. The instructions† for the conduct of the voyage were written in the Portuguese language, and contained nothing whatsoever calculated to afford a suspicion that any other than Portuguese subjects were engaged in the enterprise. These instructions conclude with the following injunction to the commanders of the vessels: "Should you meet with any Russian, English, or Spanish vessels, you will treat them with civility, and allow them, if they are authorized, to examine your papers; should they, however, attempt to seize you, or to carry you out of your way, you will prevent it by every means in your power, and repel force by force. In case you should in such conflict have the superiority, you will take possession of the vessel that attacked you, as also of her cargo, and bring both, with the officers and crew, to China, that they may be condemned as legal prizes, and the crew punished as pirates."

Notwithstanding all these evidences of ownership and national character, it is asserted by Mr. Meares, in the memorial addressed by him to the British Government in 1790, that the *Felice* and the *Iphigenia* were actually and *bona fide* British property, employed in the service of British subjects only; that Cavallo had no concern or interest in them, his name being merely used for the purpose of obtaining permission from the Governor of Macao to navigate under the Portuguese flag, and thus to evade the excessive port charges demanded by the Chinese from all other European nations; and that Messrs. Meares and Douglas were really the commanders of the vessels, instead of the two Portuguese who appeared as such in their papers. These assertions may have been, at least in part, true; but the documents attached by Meares to his memorial amply prove that the deception was continued at Nootka, where there were no Chinese authorities, although no hint is given, in his account of the voyages of the ves-

* Macao is situated on the southern extremity of an island near the mouth of the River Tygris in China, about sixty miles below Canton. It was granted to the Portuguese by the Emperor of China in 1518, and has ever since remained in their possession, although the Chinese Government exercises considerable control over all their proceedings.

† Appendix, No. 1, to Meares's Account of his Voyage to the Pacific.

sels, that either of them was, or ever appeared to be, other than British. Greater discrepancies, positive as well as negative, between the *journal* and the *memorial*, remain to be noticed. 1788.

The truth with regard to the vessels probably was, that they were actually and *bona fide* Portuguese property, though some of the persons in whose service they were then employed might have been British subjects. The Portuguese flag at that time offered peculiar advantages for the prosecution of the fur trade, besides the freedom from the port charges of the Chinese; for no British vessel could engage in the business without becoming liable to confiscation, except those of the King George's Sound Company, which had obtained a privilege to that effect from the South Sea Company of London. The instructions to the commanders of the *Felice* and the *Iphigenia*, to seize and bring to Macao for trial any *English vessels* which might attempt to interrupt them in their voyage, were doubtless levelled at those of the King George's Sound Company, which were then expected in the Pacific, with orders and materials for establishing forts and factories on the northwest coast of America. With regard to these instructions it should be added, that, although they are remarkably precise and minute, no allusion whatsoever is made in them to the acquisition of land or the erection of buildings in America.

From Macao the *Iphigenia* sailed for Cook's River, while Meares in the *Felice* proceeded to Nootka Sound, which he entered on the 13th of May. There he immediately began to build a small vessel for coasting, and, being desirous during the progress of this work to take a trip to the southward, he made arrangements with King Maquinna, who, as related in Mr. Meares's *Journal of the Voyage*, page 114, "most readily consented to grant us a spot of ground in his territory, whereon an house might be built for the accommodation of the people we intended to leave behind, and also promised us his assistance and protection for the party who were destined to remain at Nootka during our absence. In return for this kindness, and to insure the continuance of it, the chief was presented with a pair of pistols, which he had regarded with an eye of solicitation ever since our arrival. Upon this spot a house sufficiently spacious to contain all the party intended to be left at the Sound was erected; a strong breastwork was thrown up around it, enclosing a considerable area of ground, which, with one piece of cannon placed in such a manner as to command the cove and village of Nootka, formed a fortification sufficient to secure the party from any intrusion." May 13.

That this *spot of ground* was granted by Maquinna, and was to be occupied by the strangers only for temporary purposes, is clear from the above statement, and Meares nowhere in the *journal* of his voyage pretends that he acquired permanent possession of it, or of any other land in America; on the contrary, he expressly states, page 130, "that, as a bribe to secure Maquinna's attachment, he was promised that when we finally left the coast he should enter into full possession of the house and all the goods thereunto belonging." In his *memorial to Parliament*, however, he declares that "immediately on his arrival at Nootka Sound, he

1788. purchased from Maquilla, the chief of the district contiguous to
 May. and surrounding that place, a spot of ground whereon he built a house for his occasional residence, as well as for the more convenient pursuit of his trade with the natives, and hoisted British colors thereon." Among the documents attached to the memorial, no mention is made of this purchase, except in the information of William Graham, a seaman of the *Felice*, taken in London after the date of the memorial, who declares that "he saw Mr. Meares deliver some articles of merchandise to Maquilla, the sovereign Prince of the said sound, which he then understood and believed were given as consideration for lands required by Mr. Meares for an establishment on shore."* The British Government, as will be seen, went still farther, and claimed the whole territory surrounding Nootka as included within the terms of this asserted purchase.

Such is the evidence upon which the British historians of that period insist that *Meares purchased a large tract of land at Nootka, and established on it a factory defended by a fort under the British flag.*

Having completed his arrangements, Meares sailed in the *Felice* towards the south, leaving a part of his crew at Nootka, to which place he did not return until the latter part of July. During this period he endeavored to explore the Strait of Fuca, and to find the mouth of the great River San Roque, near the 46th degree of latitude, in both of which attempts he was, as before related, unsuccessful. He declares in his memorial that he likewise "obtained from Wiccanish, the chief of the district surrounding Port Cox and Port Effingham, (places thus named by himself, but otherwise known as *Clyoquot* and *Nittinat*,) situated in the latitudes of 48 and 49 degrees, in consequence of considerable presents, the promise of a free and exclusive trade with the natives of the district, as also permission to build any storehouses or other edifices which he might judge necessary; and that he also acquired the same privileges of exclusive trade from *Tatootche*, the chief of the country bordering upon the Strait of Fuca, and purchased from him a tract of land within the said strait, which one of his officers took possession of in the King's name, calling the same *Tatootche*, in honor of the chief."

Of these purchases and cessions of territory there is no other evidence than the declaration of Mr. Meares in his *memorial*,† for

* The only statement besides this declaration, tending to confirm the assertion of Meares in his memorial, is that (hereafter noticed) made to Vancouver in 1792 at Nootka, by Robert Duffin, who had also been one of the crew of the *Felice* in 1788. He is represented by Vancouver (vol. i, page 405) as declaring that he witnessed the purchase by Meares "of the whole of the land which forms Friendly Cove, Nootka Sound, in his Britannic Majesty's name, for eight sheets of copper and some trifles."

† It is probable, from the numerous discrepancies between Meares's *Journal of his Voyage* and his memorial, that the former was written and printed before the latter was drawn up. We may also suspect, from the silence of all the documents brought to London with regard to the purchases of lands on the north west coast, that the idea of setting up this claim suggested itself, or was suggested, to Meares after his arrival in England.

they are not noticed either in the documents attached to that memorial, or in the Journal of his Voyage, which is tediously minute as to this trip, or any where else; yet his claim, based solely upon his own statement, was supported by his Government and admitted by that of Spain.

After the return of Meares to Nootka Sound, the sloop Washington, Captain Gray, arrived there from Boston; the small vessel which had been commenced by the crew of the Felice in the spring was completed, and received the name of *Northwest America*; and the Iphigenia came in from the northern coasts laden with furs. As a number of skins had also been obtained by the Felice during the summer, Meares determined to transfer to that vessel all those in the Iphigenia, and to sail with them immediately for Macao; which he accordingly did, leaving the sound on the 28th of September. In the course of the following month the Ship Columbia, Captain Kendrick, arrived from Boston, and the Iphigenia and Northwest America departed for the Sandwich Islands, leaving the two American vessels to winter at Nootka.

Meares reached Macao in the Felice early in December, and soon afterwards two vessels, the Princess Royal and the Prince of Wales, belonging to the King George's Sound Company, arrived at that place under the command of James Colnett, an officer of the British navy on half pay. In the latter vessels also came an agent of the said company, between whom and the proprietors of the Felice and Iphigenia an arrangement was made for uniting the interests of both parties. In consequence of this arrangement, the Felice was sold or dismissed, and the Princess Royal, together with a ship called the Argonaut, bought for the purpose by the association, were despatched to Nootka, under the direction of Colnett, who sailed in the Argonaut. These vessels appear to have been navigated under the British flag; Cavallo could not have acted as their owner, for he had become a bankrupt, and his failure was probably the cause of the formation of the new company.

The management of the affairs of the association at Macao appears to have been committed entirely to Meares, who drew up the instructions for Colnett. From these instructions, of which a copy is appended by Meares to his memorial, it is evident that there was really an intention to found a permanent establishment on some part of the northwest coast of America, although no spot is designated as its site, and no hint is given of any acquisition of territory having been already made at or near Nootka Sound; indeed, the only reference to that place, in the whole paper, is contained in the words "we recommend you, if possible, to form a treaty with the various chiefs, particularly at Nootka." Yet Meares, in his memorial, strangely enough says: "Mr. Colnett was directed to fix his residence at Nootka Sound, and, with that view, to erect a substantial house on the spot which your memorialist had purchased in the preceding year, *as will appear by a copy of his instructions hereunto annexed.*"

While the Argonaut and Princess Royal were on their way to Nootka, the Iphigenia and Northwest America returned to that

1788.

Sept. 17.

Sept. 24.

Sept. 28.

Oct.

Dec.

1789.

April.

April 20.

1789. place from the Sandwich Islands in a most distressed condition.
 April 20. The *Iphigenia* was, indeed, a mere wreck. Her supercargo, or captain, Douglas, declares in his journal, attached to the memorial, that "she had like to have foundered at sea for want of pitch and tar to stop the leaks; she had no bread on board, and nothing for her crew to live on but salt pork; she was without cables and, on attempting to secure her in the sound, "every rope gave way, so that we were obliged to borrow a fall from the American sloop *Washington*," which with the ship *Columbia* were found lying there. The *Washington* had already made a cruise to the southward, in the course of which she advanced some distance

April 25. up the Strait of Fuca; a few days after the arrival of the other vessels, she took her departure for the north, and was immediately

April 28. followed by the *Northwest America*, which had been hastily equipped and provided with articles for trade on a short voyage. The *Columbia* remained at Nootka the whole summer, and we are indebted to her mate, Joseph Ingraham, for the only account of the occurrences at the sound, during that period, proceeding from a disinterested witness.

May 6. On the 6th of May Martinez arrived at Nootka in the corvette *Princesa*, and immediately informed the officers of the *Columbia* and *Iphigenia* that he had come to take possession of the country for the King of Spain; he then examined the papers of the two vessels, and, appearing to be content with them, he landed artillery and materials, and began to erect a fort on a small island at the entrance of Friendly Cove. With this assumption of authority no dissatisfaction was expressed or entertained by either of the other parties present; on the contrary, the utmost good feeling seemed to subsist on all sides for several days. The officers of the different vessels visited and dined with each other; and Martinez readily supplied the *Iphigenia*, at the request of her commander, with articles of which she was in need, in order that she might go to sea immediately, accepting in return for them bills drawn upon Cavallo of Macao as her owner.

It is proper to remark here, that, on the arrival of the Spaniards at Nootka, no vestige remained of the house built, or said to have been built, by Meares, or of any other preparation for a settlement near the sound. This is expressly stated by Gray and Ingraham who, moreover, declare their conviction that no house was ever erected by Meares at Nootka; and it is corroborated by the entire silence, on that head, of Douglas, Colnett, and every other person whose testimony is cited in conjunction with the memorial to Parliament.

May 13. Things remained thus at Nootka for a week, at the end of which time the other Spanish vessel, the *San Carlos*, arrived, under the command of Lieutenant Haro. On the following day, Martinez

May 14. invited Viana and Douglas, the chief officers of the *Iphigenia*, to come on board the *Princesa*, where he immediately told them that they were prisoners, and that their vessel was to be seized, alleging in justification of his proceedings that their instructions contained a clause directing them to seize and carry to Macao any English, Russian, or Spanish vessels which they could overcome.

Douglas insisted that the instructions had been misinterpreted, and that, although *he did not understand Portuguese*,* in which they were written, *he had seen a copy of them at Macao*, and knew their sense to be otherwise. Martinez, however, adhered to his resolution; the *Iphigenia* was in consequence boarded by the Spaniards; her men, with her charts, journals, and other papers, were transferred to the ships of war, and preparations were commenced for sending her to San Blas.

1789.
May 14.

While these preparations were in progress, the Spanish commandant altered his intentions, and proposed to release the *Iphigenia* and her crew, on condition that her officers would sign a declaration to the effect that she had not been interrupted, but had been kindly treated and supplied by him during her stay at Nootka. This proposition was at first refused; negotiations, however, took place, through the medium of Captain Kendrick of the *Columbia*, the results of which were that the declaration was signed by the officers of the *Iphigenia*, and she and her crew were liberated on the 26th of May. Messrs. Viana and Douglas,

May 26.

at the same time, engaged for themselves, as "*captain and supercargo respectively, and for Juan Cavallo of Macao, as owner of the said vessel*," to pay her value, on demand, to the order of the Viceroy of Mexico, in case he should pronounce her capture legal. The vessel having been completely equipped for sea by the Spaniards, she sailed on the 2d of June for the northern coasts, where seven hundred sea-otter skins were collected, by trading with the natives, before her departure for the Sandwich Islands and China. "This trade was so brisk," says Meares in his Journal of the Voyage, that "*all the stock of iron was soon expended, and they were under the necessity of cutting up the chain-plates and hatch-bars of the vessel*," in order to find the means of purchasing the skins offered. In the memorial, however, not only is all notice of this part of the *Iphigenia's* voyage omitted, but it is implicitly declared† that she sailed directly from Nootka to the Sandwich Islands. Meares insists that the conduct of the Spaniards towards the *Iphigenia* and her men was violent and rapacious; on the other hand, Messrs. Gray and Ingraham declare that her detention was in every respect advantageous to the owners, as she was completely repaired and supplied for her voyage, and she would otherwise have been obliged to remain inactive at Nootka, for at least two months longer, during the best season for trading.

June 2.

The seizure of the *Iphigenia* by Martinez can scarcely be considered as unjust or unmerited, when it is recollected that if, in

* Extracts from the Journal of Douglas, annexed to the memorial of Meares.

† "During the time the Spaniards held possession of the *Iphigenia*, she was stripped of all the merchandise which had been prepared for trading, as also of her stores, provisions, nautical instruments, charts, &c., and in short of every article, *except twelve bars of iron*, which they could conveniently carry away. * * * On leaving Nootka Sound, the *Iphigenia*, though in a very unfit condition for such a voyage, *proceeded from thence to the Sandwich Islands, and, after obtaining there such supplies as they were enabled to procure with the iron before mentioned*, returned to China, and anchored there in the month of October, 1789."—*Memorial addressed to Parliament by Meares.*

1789.
June.

attempting to enforce, with regard to her, the orders of his Government, (orders perfectly conformable with the principles of national law, as universally recognised, and with treaties between Spain and all other Powers,) he had been resisted and overcome, he, with his officers and men, would have been carried as prisoners to Macao, to be tried for piracy. Moreover, he had been informed that Meares was daily expected to arrive at Nootka, with other vessels belonging to the same concern; and it was his duty to provide against the possibility of being overpowered, and of having his flag insulted, by lessening the forces of those from whom he had every reason to apprehend an attack. Indeed, the only ground upon which he could have excused himself to his Government for releasing the *Iphigenia* must have been, that at the time when the instructions to her officers were written, it was not anticipated that Spain would take possession of any part of the northwest coast of America.

June 8.

At the end of a week from the departure of the *Iphigenia*, the Northwest America returned to Nootka, and was immediately seized by Martinez. On what grounds or pretexes this seizure was based, there are no means of ascertaining. Gray and Ingraham understood that it was in consequence of an agreement between the Spanish commandant and the officers of the *Iphigenia*; this is, however, expressly denied by Douglas, who declares that both threats and promises had been used in vain to induce him to sell the small vessel at a price far below her value. A few days afterwards, the *Princess Royal* (one of the vessels sent from

June 16.

Macao by the associated companies) arrived in the sound, under the command of William Hudson, and was received and treated, during her stay, with respect and attention by the Spaniards. She brought information of the failure of Juan Cavallo, the Portuguese merchant, upon whom, as owner of the *Iphigenia*, the bills given by the commander of that vessel in payment of the supplies were drawn; and upon learning this, Martinez announced his determination to hold the Northwest America, which belonged to the same concern, in satisfaction for the amount of those bills. She was, in consequence, immediately equipped for a trading-voyage, and sent out under the direction of one of the mates of the *Columbia*; her officers and men being set at liberty, and receiving nearly all the furs found on board of her at the time of her capture.

July 2.

The *Princess Royal*, after remaining some days at Nootka undisturbed by the Spaniards, sailed from that place on a cruise. As she was leaving the sound, her companion, the *Argonaut*, came in from Macao under the command of Captain Colnett, who had been, as before stated, charged by the associated companies with the direction of all their affairs on the American coasts, and with the establishment of a fort and factory for their benefit. What followed with regard to this vessel has been variously represented, or rather has been represented under various colors, for the principal facts are admitted by all to have been these:

July 4.

As soon as the *Argonaut* appeared at the entrance of the sound, she was boarded by the Spanish commandant, who invited her

captain to come into the port, and supply the ships of war with some necessary articles; presenting, at the same time, a letter from Hudson, in which the good treatment of the Princess Royal and her crew were acknowledged in flattering terms; Barnett, the mate of the Northwest America, Ingraham, the mate of the Columbia, and some other persons, likewise came on board, and communicated what had occurred with regard to the Iphigenia and the small vessel. Colnett, upon this, informed Martinez that he had come to take possession of Nootka, and to erect a fort there under the British flag. The Spaniard replied, that the place was already occupied by the forces of his Catholic Majesty; but that if the Argonaut should enter the sound, she should be treated with civility and attention, and be allowed to depart without hindrance. After some debate, the Englishman agreed to go into the harbor; and before midnight, his vessel was anchored in Friendly Cove between the Princesa and the San Carlos.

1789.
July 2.

July 3.

On the following day, Colnett, having supplied the Spanish ships with some articles, announced his intention to go to sea in the evening; whereupon, Martinez requested him first to come on board the Princesa and exhibit his papers. The captain accordingly went, in uniform and with his sword, to the cabin of the commandant, where an altercation took place between the parties; the results of which were, the arrest of Colnett, and the seizure of the Argonaut by the Spaniards. From the moment of his arrest, Colnett was delirious or insane, and Robert Duffin, the mate of the Argonaut, became in consequence the representative of the owners of that vessel.

July 4.

On the 13th of July the Princess Royal appeared at the mouth of the sound, and her captain, Hudson, having entered Friendly Cove in a boat, was there arrested with his men; after which, the vessel was boarded and brought in as a prize by the Spaniards. On the following day the Argonaut sailed for San Blas, carrying nearly all the British subjects taken at Nootka as prisoners, under the charge of a Spanish lieutenant and crew. Those who were captured in the Northwest America were, however, embarked as passengers in the Columbia for Macao; one hundred of the otter skins found in the Princess Royal being allowed by Martinez in payment of their wages and transportation.

The Columbia left Nootka in August; soon afterwards she met the Washington, which had just returned from her voyage up the Strait of Fuca; and it was agreed between the captains, that Gray should take command of the ship, and proceed to China and the United States, with all the furs which had been collected, while Kendrick should remain on the coast in the Washington. Finally, in November, Martinez quitted Nootka Sound, and sailed with all his vessels for Mexico, leaving Maquinna again in quiet possession of his dominions.

If the statements of Meares, in his memorial, and of Colnett, in the account published by him respecting the capture of the Argonaut and Princess Royal, and the treatment of their officers and men by the Spaniards, be admitted as conveying a full and correct view of the circumstances, the conduct of Martinez must be

1789. considered as nearly equivalent to piracy. From these statements it would appear that the vessels were treacherously seized, without any reasonable grounds, or even pretexts, and with the sole premeditated object of plundering them; and that the most cruel acts of violence, insult, and restraint, were wantonly committed upon the officers and men, during the whole period of their imprisonment. Colnett relates* that when he presented his papers to Martinez in the cabin of the *Princesa*, the commandant, without examining them, pronounced them to be forged, and immediately declared that the *Argonaut* should not go to sea; that, upon his "*remonstrating* (in what terms he does not say) *against this breach of good faith and forgetfulness of word and honor pledged;*" the Spaniard rose in apparent anger, and introduced a party of armed men, by whom he was struck down, placed in the stocks, and then closely confined; that he was afterwards carried from ship to ship like a criminal, threatened with instant execution as a pirate, and subjected to so many injuries and indignities, as to throw him into a violent fever and delirium, which were near proving fatal; and that his officers and men were imprisoned and kept in irons, from the time of their seizure until their arrival at San Blas, where many of them died in consequence of ill treatment. Meares, in his memorial, confirms the assertions of Colnett; and he adds, with regard to the capture of the *Princess Royal*, that her commander, Hudson, after his arrest at Friendly Cove, was forced (by means of threats of immediate execution) to send written orders to his mate, to deliver up the vessel without resistance to the Spaniards.

Many of these statements are supported by the deposition of the officers and seamen of the Northwest America, taken in China, which is appended to the memorial; some of them, however, are directly contradicted, while the greater part are invalidated, not only by the declarations of Gray and Ingraham, but even by the admissions of Duffin, the mate of the *Argonaut*, in his letters, also attached to the same petition. Thus the American captains understood, "from those whose veracity they had no reason to doubt," that Colnett, at his interview with Martinez in the cabin of the *Princesa*, denied the right of the Spaniards to occupy Nootka, and endeavored to impose upon the commandant by representing himself as empowered by his Government to erect a fort and settle a colony at that place under the British flag, and that he afterwards insulted the Spaniard by threatening him and drawing his sword. Colnett himself says that he attempted to draw his sword on the occasion, but that it was in order to defend himself against those who assailed him; and it must be allowed to be very difficult to "*remonstrate*" with a man upon "*his breach of faith, and forgetfulness of his word and honor pledged;*" without insulting him. Duffin, writing to Meares from Nootka, ten days after the seizure, gives nearly the same account of the interview, adding that the misunderstanding was most probably oc-

* See Colnett's Account of a Voyage in the Pacific in 1793; note at page 96.

occasioned by the interpreter's ignorance of the English language. 1789.
 He says that Martínez appeared to be very sorry for what had happened, and had "behaved with great civility, by obliging his prisoners with every liberty that could be expected;" and he complains of no violence, either to the feelings or to the persons of any of the crews of the vessels seized, although he charges the Spaniards with plundering both openly and secretly. Moreover, Duffin declares, and Meares repeats in his memorial, that the disease with which Colnett was afflicted after his arrest was a fit of insanity occasioned by fear and disappointment operating upon a mind naturally weak and hereditarily predisposed to such alienation. This assertion is indignantly repelled by Colnett, in his account of the affair, to which he annexes a letter of apology and retraction from Meares.

No other evidence has been presented on the part of Spain, respecting these proceedings, than what is contained in the notes and memorials addressed by the Court of Madrid on the subject to various European Governments in 1790, and in the Introduction to the Narrative of the Voyage of the *Sutil* and *Mexicana*; all of which statements, though made officially, are, without doubt, erroneous on many of the most material points.

Upon reviewing all the circumstances as they are presented to us, there is little doubt that Colnett acted towards the Spanish commandant in a manner so extravagant and intemperate as to render his arrest perfectly justifiable; the detention of his vessel, however, cannot be defended on the same grounds, and the seizure of the *Princess Royal* appears to have been totally unauthorized and inexcusable. The commanders of Spanish American posts were, indeed, ordered by their general instructions to seize all foreign vessels entering or cruising in the vicinity of the territories under their control; and the enforcement of these orders was directly or tacitly admitted by all the nations with which Spain had made treaties relating to those dominions. But it could not have been reasonably intended by the Spanish Government, or allowed by other Powers, that such regulations should be enforced at a new settlement, in a region so remote, before the people of any other country could be informed of the fact of the establishment. We know, moreover, from the highest authority, that Martínez was specially instructed to treat all British or Russian vessels which might arrive at Nootka with civility; and, although he might have with propriety disarmed Colnett's ships, if he apprehended any attack from them, he certainly had no right to take possession of them, and to appropriate their cargoes, as he did, to his own uses, merely because their commander had refused to recognise the supremacy of Spain in that region.

Meares, Vancouver, and other British writers, in alluding to these occurrences, endeavor to cast blame on the commanders of the two American vessels, which were at the time in or near Nootka Sound, by representing them as aiding and supporting the Spaniards in their oppressive proceedings. Upon examining the facts, we find that the Americans never pretended to ques-

1789. tion the right of Spain to the country; and the conduct of the British towards them was not such, if we may judge from the expressions of Meares, as to excite any friendly feelings on their part. All that can be alleged against Captains Kendrick and Gray seems to be that they profited, as they were entitled to do, by the quarrels between the other two parties, naturally inclining towards that which seemed to be the more friendly disposed towards themselves.

Upon the arrival of the Argonaut at San Blas, Colnett was liberated from confinement, and he proceeded to the city of Mexico, where he was received with kindness by the Viceroy, Count de Revillagigedo. The cases of the Argonaut and Princess Royal having been then examined, it was decided*—that the conduct of Martinez had been entirely conformable with the laws and ordinances of Spain, and with the terms of treaties existing between that kingdom and other nations, by which it is understood that aliens frequenting, trading, or endeavoring to establish themselves “on the coasts of the South Sea in either America” shall be regarded and treated as enemies, without any presumable breach of faith on the part of Spain; that consequently the said two vessels might be retained as lawful prizes; but that, in consideration of the apparent ignorance of their owners and officers respecting the rights and laws of Spain, as well as for the sake of preserving peace and harmony with Great Britain, they should be released, on condition of their not entering any bay or port in Spanish America without pressing necessity.

1790. In virtue of this decision, Colnett returned to San Blas, where he found that several of his men had died, during his absence, of the fever endemic on those coasts. With the remainder he sailed in the Argonaut to Nootka, for the purpose of reclaiming the Princess Royal; but the sound had been, long before he arrived there, evacuated by Martinez and his forces, who from some cause, however, did not reach Mexico until after the departure of Colnett. From Nootka the Argonaut, having taken in a cargo of furs, sailed for the Sandwich Islands, where the Princess Royal was found lying; Colnett there received possession of her, and arrived with both vessels at Macao in the latter part of 1790.

The Columbia, under the command of Gray, reached Macao in December, 1789, bringing as passengers the officers and crew of the Northwest America, who first communicated the news of the seizure of the Argonaut and Princess Royal to their owners. The latter immediately resolved to apply to the British Government for redress; and Meares accordingly departed for London, where he arrived in March, 1790, carrying with him various depositions and other papers in substantiation of the claims.

Feb. 10. Meanwhile the Court of Spain, having been informed of what had occurred at Nootka in the summer of 1789, addressed a note to the British ministry, stating the circumstances, and requiring that the parties who had planned the expeditions should be pun-

* Vancouver's Account of his Voyages, vol. iii, page 497; Memorial of the Court of Spain, Annual Register for 1790.

ished, in order to deter others from making settlements on territories occupied and frequented by the Spaniards for a number of years. The British ministers answered, that they had not received exact information as to the facts stated by the Spanish Government, but that *the acts of violence* towards British subjects and property, mentioned in the communication from the latter, necessarily suspended any discussion of claims which *either party* might advance to the possession of the northwest coasts of America, until adequate atonement should have been made for those outrages against the flag of Great Britain; the answer was concluded by a demand for the immediate restoration of the vessels seized at Nootka. Simultaneously with the despatch of this answer, orders were issued at London for the armament of two large fleets; and the Spanish Government, taking alarm at this measure, caused similar preparations to be commenced in all the naval arsenals of the kingdom.

Several weeks after the receipt of this answer, the Court of Madrid informed the British ministry that one of the vessels seized at Nootka (the Argonaut) had been released, and orders had been given by the Viceroy of Mexico for the restitution of the other, in consideration of the ignorance of their owners and captains with regard to the rights and laws of Spain; that the affair might, therefore, be regarded as at an end, and that his Catholic Majesty would be satisfied if the King of England would restrain his subjects from trespassing upon the Pacific coasts of America, to which the Crown of Spain had indubitable right, founded upon treaties and immemorial possession. Ere the correspondence proceeded farther, the matter had been submitted by the British ministry to the nation; and a fever had, in consequence, been excited throughout the kingdom, which was not to be easily allayed. This measure was the result of the presentation by Meares of his Memorial, praying that reparation should be obtained for himself and his associates for their losses, actual and probable, occasioned by the seizure and detention of their vessels at Nootka; the amount of which was estimated at no less a sum than *six hundred and fifty-three thousand dollars*.

The correspondence above noticed was kept profoundly secret by both parties until the 5th of May, when the circumstances were communicated by the King of England, through a message addressed to Parliament. In this message, it is stated that "two vessels belonging to his Majesty's subjects, and navigated under the British flag," (meaning the Argonaut and Princess Royal,) "and two others," (the Iphigenia and Northwest America,) "of which the description is not hitherto sufficiently ascertained, have been captured at Nootka Sound by an officer commanding two Spanish ships of war; that the cargoes of the British vessels have been seized, and their officers and crews have been sent as prisoners to a Spanish port." That, in reply to a demand for satisfaction, addressed to the Court of Madrid, it had been declared that one of the British vessels was liberated by the Viceroy of Mexico, "on the supposition that nothing but ignorance of the rights of Spain encouraged the individuals of other nations to

1790.

Feb. 26.

May 5.

1790. come on those coasts, for the purpose of making establishments
 May 5. or carrying on trade;" but that "no satisfaction was given or offered, and a direct claim was asserted by the Court of Madrid to the exclusive right of sovereignty, navigation, and commerce, in the territories, coasts, and seas of that part of the world." In consequence of all which, "his Majesty had directed his minister at Madrid to make a fresh representation on the subject, and to claim such full and adequate satisfaction as the nature of the case evidently required. And under these circumstances, his Majesty, having also received information that considerable armaments were carrying on in the ports of Spain, had judged it necessary to give orders for such preparations as might put it in his power to act with vigor and effect in support of the honor of his Crown and the interests of his people; and he recommended that Parliament would therefore enable him to take such measures, and to make such augmentations of his forces, as might be eventually requisite for that purpose."

In this message, it will be remarked that no mention is made of the seizure of any *lands or buildings* belonging to British subjects at Nootka; and it will be found, on examining the documents attached to the memorial of Meares, that no notice of such possessions is contained in any of them, except in "*the information of William Graham,*" one of the seamen of the Felice, taken at London, on the very day in which the message was read in Parliament, five days after the date of the memorial. It may also be observed, in anticipation, that the reports of the debates in Parliament, and the published correspondence between the two Governments, prior to the signature of the treaty by which the dispute was terminated, are equally free from allusions to any claims of British subjects to *territories or houses* on the northwest coast of America.

The recommendations in the King's message were received with every demonstration of concurrence in Parliament, and throughout the British dominions; and the supplies required were immediately voted. On the day in which the message was read, a note was addressed by the ministry to the Spanish Court, insisting upon immediate satisfaction for the outrages complained of; and declaring that, until it were received, the question of the rights of Spain would not be discussed. The British representative at Madrid also presented formal demands to the Government for restitution of the other vessel (the Princess Royal) seized at Nootka—for complete indemnification of all losses sustained by British subjects trading under the British flag, from the acts of Spanish officers on the northwest coast of America—and for "a distinct acknowledgment that British subjects have an indisputable right to the enjoyment of free and uninterrupted commerce, navigation, and fishery, and to the possession of such establishments as they might form, with the consent of the natives, on any part of the American coasts not previously occupied by some European nation."

June. To these demands, the Spanish minister, Count de Florida Blanca, gave an evasive reply on the 13th of June; after having

addressed a circular, protesting against them, to all the other Courts of continental Europe. He likewise solicited the French monarch to comply with the terms of the Family Compact of 1761, by which the Sovereigns of France and Spain were bound to support each other, in cases similar to that actually existing. These measures, however, producing no favorable results, he was obliged to yield to the demand of Great Britain for indemnification to her subjects; which was promised* on the 24th of July, 1790, with the understanding that the concession was not to affect, in any way, the question as to the right of his Catholic Majesty to form an exclusive establishment at Nootka. June 24.

The negotiation had thus far proceeded in a course almost precisely like that of the dispute between the same parties respecting the Falkland Islands, twenty years previous; and the Spanish minister probably expected that it would end there. But Mr. Pitt, who then directed the affairs of Great Britain, had ulterior objects in view, which induced him to persist in his exactions relative to the unoccupied coasts of America; and as naval armaments on the most extensive scale were in progress of equipment in both countries, a rupture of the peace between them was daily anticipated.

In the mean time, the National Assembly of France was deliberating upon the solicitation for aid addressed by Charles IV. of Spain to his cousin, Louis XVI., which had been referred by the latter to that body, then all-powerful in his kingdom. The resolutions,† finally adopted in the Assembly, as proposed by the celebrated Mirabeau, were very vague with regard to Spain, while they were very clear and positive as to the necessity of immediately arming a vast naval force for the security of the French dominions. That these resolutions must have materially affected the nature of the negotiation between the Courts of London and Madrid there can be no doubt, although no means have been as yet afforded of learning in what manner and to what precise extent. It, however, appears probable that the warlike attitude assumed by the National Assembly, together with the rapid advance of revolutionary anti-monarchical principles at the same period, rendered the disputing parties willing to compromise their differences, in order that they might, if there should be need, act in unison against their dangerous neighbor. Possibly, indeed, the exactions of the British minister were, from the commencement, intended for no other purpose than to secure such co-operation. Certain it is, that the conditions subscribed by the two Powers, at the conclusion of their dispute, were far less onerous or humiliating to Spain, than those upon which the Court of London had at first announced its determination to insist. Aug. Aug. 26. Oct. 28.

* See *declaration*, by Count de Florida Blanca, and *counter-declaration*, by Mr. Fitzherbert, the British envoy at Madrid, in the Annual Register for 1790, page 300. It may be here mentioned, that the amount payable by Spain as indemnification was finally settled in February, 1793, by agreement between the commissioners of the two Governments, at two hundred and ten thousand dollars. See Macpherson's Annals of Commerce, vol. iv, page 209.

† See Annual Register for 1790, page 303. The resolutions in the original, and the interesting debates in the Assembly, may be found in the *Moniteur*.

1790. The conditions above mentioned are contained in a treaty, signed at the Palace of San Lorenzo, or the Escorial, in Spain, on the 28th of October, 1790, and ratified on the 22d of the following month; of which it will be proper here to insert all the articles without variation from the original text.*

"ARTICLE 1. The buildings and tracts of land situated on the northwest coast of the continent of North America, or on the islands adjacent to that continent, of which the subjects of his Britannic Majesty were dispossessed about the month of April, 1789, by a Spanish officer, shall be restored to the said British subjects.

"ART. 2. A just reparation shall be made, according to the nature of the case, for all acts of violence or hostility which may have been committed subsequent to the month of April, 1789, by the subjects of either of the contracting parties against the subjects of the other; and, in case any of the said respective subjects shall, since the same period, have been forcibly dispossessed of their lands, buildings, vessels, merchandise, and other property, whatever, on the said continent, or on the seas and islands adjacent, they shall be re-established in the possession thereof, or a just compensation shall be made to them for the losses which they have sustained.

"ART. 3. In order to strengthen the bonds of friendship, and to preserve in future a perfect harmony and good understanding, between the two contracting parties, it is agreed that their respective subjects shall not be disturbed or molested, either in navigating, or carrying on their fisheries, in the Pacific Ocean or in the South Seas, or in landing on the coasts of those seas in places not already occupied, for the purpose of carrying on their commerce with the natives of the country, or of making settlements there; the whole subject, nevertheless, to the restrictions specified in the three following articles.

"ART. 4. His Britannic Majesty engages to take the most effectual measures to prevent the navigation and the fishery of his subjects in the Pacific Ocean or in the South Seas from being made a pretext for illicit trade with the Spanish settlements; and, with this view, it is moreover expressly stipulated that British subjects shall not navigate, or carry on their fishery, in the said seas, within the space of ten sea-leagues from any part of the coasts already occupied by Spain.

"ART. 5. As well in the places which are to be restored to the British subjects, by virtue of the first article, as in all other parts of the northwestern coasts of North America, or of the islands adjacent, situate to the north of the parts of the said coast already occupied by Spain, wherever the subjects of either of the two Powers shall have made settlements since the month of April, 1789, or shall hereafter make any, the subjects of the other shall have free access, and shall carry on their trade without any disturbance or molestation.

* See Annual Register for 1790, page 304; Parliamentary History for same year, page 916; Herslett's Collection of British Treaties, vol. ii, page 257.

“ART. 6. With respect to the eastern and western coasts of South America, and to the islands adjacent, no settlement shall be formed hereafter, by the respective subjects, in such part of those coasts as are situated to the south of those parts of the same coasts, and of the islands adjacent, which are already occupied by Spain: provided that the said respective subjects shall retain the liberty of landing on the coasts and islands so situated, for the purposes of their fishery, and of erecting thereon huts and other temporary buildings, serving only for those purposes.

“ART. 7. In all cases of complaint or infraction of the articles of the present convention, the officers of either party, without permitting themselves previously to commit any violence or act of force, shall be bound to make an exact report of the affair, and of its circumstances, to their respective Courts, who will terminate such differences in an amicable manner.

“ART. 8. The present convention shall be ratified and confirmed in the space of six weeks, to be computed from the day of its signature, or sooner if it can be done.”

This treaty was submitted to Parliament by Mr. Pitt on the 3d of December, and became the subject of discussion in both Houses. By the friends of the ministry it was extolled and defended in general terms, as vindicating the honor of the nation, as securing reparation for injuries committed against British subjects, and as affording important advantages to them in future, by opening the navigation of the Pacific and South Seas, and establishing the question of the southern fisheries on such grounds as must prevent all dispute. The opposition, on the other hand, contended that the advantages derivable from it were in no respect commensurate with the costs at which it had been obtained; nay, it was insisted by Fox, Grey, Lansdowne, and other eminent whigs, that the rights of British subjects had been materially abridged by the new stipulations. They observed that, whereas the British formerly possessed the right, “*whether admitted or contested by Spain was of no consequence,*” to navigate and fish in any part of the Pacific or South Seas, and “*to settle wherever the subjects of no other civilized nation had previously settled,*” they were by this treaty prohibited from going nearer than thirty miles to a Spanish territory, and from establishing themselves on a large portion of South America, as well as from forming any permanent or useful settlement on the northwest coast of the northern continent. “In every place in which we might settle,” said Grey, “access was left for the Spaniards. Where we might form a settlement on one hill, they might erect a fort upon another. A merchant must run all the risks of a discovery, and all the expenses of establishment, for a property, which was liable to be the subject of continual dispute, and which could never be placed upon a permanent footing.” Mr. Fox denied “that the southern whale fishery was of the great importance it was stated to be,” and declared that it was mere “dross” in comparison with what had been renounced in order to obtain it. “To remove all possibility,” said that gentleman, “of our ever forming a settlement to the south of her American colonies, was an

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Dec. 3.

1790. object for which Spain would have been willing to pay a liberal price." Of the truth of this assertion, there was sufficient proof in the efforts made by the Government of Spain to prevent other nations from planting colonies in the Falkland Islands; from which islands, it may be remarked, both parties to the convention appear to have been excluded by the terms of the sixth article.

It was also noticed by Mr. Fox, as a curious and inexplicable incongruity in the treaty, that "*about the month of April, 1789,*" should have been inserted as the date of what was known to have taken place, agreeably to all the evidence produced, in *May* of the same year; and that although, by the first article, the lands and buildings declared to have been taken from British subjects by a Spanish officer "*about the month of April, 1789,*" were to be restored, yet, by the second article, the lands, buildings, and other property, of which the subjects of either party had been dispossessed "*subsequent to the month of April, 1789,*" were to be restored, *or* compensation was to be made to the owners for the losses which they might have sustained. Now, as the Spaniards did not arrive upon the northwest coast of America until *May, 1789,* it is clear that their Government might, at its own option, either restore the lands and buildings claimed by British subjects, *or* make compensation for the loss of them to their owners.

Upon this point it will be seen, that if the word *or* in the concluding part of the second article were replaced by *and*, the incongruity would disappear; but then, also, the first article would become entirely superfluous. It would, however, be idle to suppose that any *error* could have been committed, with regard to matters so essential, or that the want of accordance between the different provisions of the convention, noticed by Mr. Fox, should have been the result of accident or carelessness. The ministers, when pressed for explanations on this head, answered indirectly that the Spanish Government would make the restitutions as agreed in the first article; to the other objections raised against the convention, they gave only general or evasive replies. By means of their majorities in both Houses of Parliament, which were so great as to render any expenditure of argument unnecessary, they negatived every call for papers relative to the negotiation; and, having triumphantly carried their address of thanks to the Sovereign, they were left at liberty to execute the new stipulations agreeably to their own constructions, for which ample space had been certainly provided.*

* An analysis of the convention will be found in the ninth chapter of this memoir, among the observations on the Florida Treaty.

CHAPTER VII.

Execution of the first article of the treaty of 1790, between Great Britain and Spain—Surrender of Nootka to the British—Voyages and discoveries of the Spanish navigators, Fidalgo, Malaspina, Caamano, Galiano, and Valdes; of Billings, in the service of Russia; of Marchand; of Vancouver; and of the American fur-traders, Ingraham, Gray, and Kendrick—Discovery of the mouth of the Columbia, by Gray—Examination of the Strait of Fuca, and of the great Northwest Archipelago—Formation of the Northwest Fur-trading Company—Expeditions of Rodman and Mackenzie through the interior of the North American continent.

THE convention of 1790 having been thus concluded, the British Government prepared immediately to assume possession of the lands and buildings on the northwest coast of America, which were to be surrendered by Spain agreeably to the first article. For this purpose, it was determined that two frigates should be sent to Nootka, under the command of Captain Trowbridge; the ministry, however, afterwards committed the business to Captain George Vancouver, who had been one of Cook's lieutenants, and who was then about to sail to the Pacific with two ships, on a voyage of discovery. There were, doubtless, some difficulties between the parties to the convention respecting this surrender, for the order of the Spanish Minister of State to that effect was not delivered at Madrid until the 12th of May, 1791, more than a month after the departure of Vancouver, to whom it was despatched by a store-ship. The order was addressed to the Commandant of the port of San Lorenzo, of Nootka, directing him "to deliver to his Britannic Majesty's commissioner the buildings and tracts of land which were occupied by the subjects of that Sovereign in April, 1789, as well those in the port of Nootka, as also those in the other, called Port Cox, said to be situated about sixteen leagues further southward."* The same order was communicated, with the convention, to the Viceroy of Mexico, who was charged with its execution on the part of Spain; but it does not appear that any means were afforded to the commissioners, by either of the Governments, for ascertaining precisely what lands or buildings were to be surrendered.

Vancouver was instructed to proceed directly to Nootka, and, after having completed the business of the transfer there, to commence the examination of the American coasts included between the 35th and the 60th parallels of north latitude. The objects of these researches were especially to acquire accurate information with regard to the nature and extent of any water communication, which might tend to facilitate commercial intercourse between the northwest coasts and the territories on the opposite

* Introduction to the Journal of Vancouver's Voyage.

1791. side of the continent, inhabited or occupied by British subjects, and to ascertain with precision the number, extent, and situation of any settlements made by civilized nations within those limits. He was directed particularly "to explore the supposed Straits of Fuca, said to be situated between the 48th and 49th degrees of latitude, through which the American sloop Washington was reported to have passed in 1789, and to have come out again north of Nootka;" after which, he was, if there should be time sufficient, to survey the Sandwich Islands and the southernmost coasts of America. With these instructions, Vancouver sailed from England on the 1st of April, 1791, and just a year afterwards he arrived on the northwest coast, in sight of Cape Mendocino.

1790. In the mean time, Nootka had been again occupied by Spanish forces, which were sent for that purpose from Mexico, in the spring of 1790, under the command of Don Francisco Elisa; and Spanish navigators were again exploring the northwest coasts of America, in order to observe the proceedings of the Russians, and also to determine the question as to the practicability of a northern voyage between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. That question was then exciting considerable attention in Europe, where every thing relating to it was carefully studied, and the old stories of the discovery of northern passages were dragged forth from obscurity, and subjected to critical analyses, by scientific individuals and commissions. Three of these stories, of which Maldonado, Fuca, and Fonté, were severally the heroes, were pronounced, after such trials, to be not wholly destitute of probability; and the commanders of all the expeditions to the north Pacific were instructed to endeavor to ascertain how far each statement might be confirmed or disproved.

The Spaniards were, indeed, beginning seriously to direct their efforts to the security of their dominions northwest of Mexico; and with this view, a special branch of the administration in that kingdom had been created, under the title of the *Marine Department of San Blas*, which was charged with superintending and fostering the establishments on the coasts of the north Pacific. The port of San Blas in Mexico, situated near the entrance of the Californian Gulf, was made the centre of the operations for these purposes; arsenals, ship-yards, and warehouses were constructed at that place; all expeditions for the northern coasts were made from it; and all orders relative to the abovementioned objects passed through the chief of the department, who resided there.

Of the voyage of Lieutenant Salvador Fidalgo to the northernmost coasts of the Pacific, in the summer of 1790, it is unnecessary here to present the details. The geographical information obtained by him was of little value, although he thought proper to affix Spanish names to a number of points between Mount St. Elias and Cook's Inlet, nearly all of which had been long before known and described.

1791. Those coasts were in the following year more minutely examined by Captain Alexandro Malaspina, in the course of his voyage around the world, with the Spanish corvettes *Atrevida* and *Descubierta* under his command. He, however, made no dis-

June 23
to
Aug. 13.

coveries worthy of mention at present, and he effected nothing of greater importance than the determination of the positions of some places already known. Navarrete, in his Introduction to the Journal of the Sutil and Mexicana, gives a long account of this expedition, and bestows the utmost praise on those who conducted it; yet, will it be believed that the name of Malaspina does not appear in that work? Such is, nevertheless, the fact. The unfortunate navigator, an Italian by birth, having fallen under the displeasure of the Spanish Government, or rather of Godoy, was arrested immediately after his return to Europe, in 1794, and was for seven years kept closely confined in a dungeon at Corunna. Navarrete, writing under the eye of that Government, and for its purposes, did not dare inscribe on his pages the name of the unhappy victim of its injustice.

While Malaspina was thus engaged on the coasts north of Nootka, Elisa, the commandant of that port, endeavored to explore the Strait of Fuca; he, however, penetrated only a few leagues within it, and was then forced to return by the appearance of scurvy among his crew. One of his lieutenants, Quimper, had previously attempted, with little better success, to trace this passage to its termination; from the slight account given of his voyage by Navarrete, it appears that he examined the whole southern shore, at the eastern extremity of which he discovered a harbor called by him *Port Quadra*, probably the same afterwards named *Port Discovery* by Vancouver.

The visit made to the northwest coast of America, in 1791, by Captain Etienne Marchand, in the French merchant ship *Solide*, is here mentioned, only because the Introduction, by Fleurieu, to the Journal of his Voyage, has been already several times quoted. Marchand landed on one of the islands of the group now called King George the Third's Archipelago, near Mount San Jacinto or Edgcomb, and remained there a fortnight engaged in trading with the natives; after which, he sailed along the coasts southward to the entrance of Clioquot bay, a little east of Nootka, occasionally landing and making observations, and thence took his departure for China. Respecting the places thus seen, or any other places, indeed, very little information is to be obtained from this journal, although hundreds of its pages are devoted to philosophical speculations on the origin and capabilities of the northwest Americans, their languages, and political and religious institutions, and on languages and institutions in general.

In the course of this year, also, no less than seven vessels from the United States arrived in the north Pacific, in search of furs. Among them were the ship *Columbia*, which returned from Boston under Captain Gray, and the brig *Hope*, commanded by Joseph Ingraham, the former mate of the *Columbia*.* The Journal of Captain Ingraham, to which reference has been so often made, contains minute accounts of occurrences and observations, which

1791

August
and
Sept.

Sept. 7.

* The others were, the *Washington*, Captain Kendrick, which had remained in the Pacific since 1788; the *Eleonora*, Captain Metcalf; the *Margaret*, Captain Magee; the *Hancock*, Captain Crowell; and the *Jefferson*, Captain Roberts.

1791. are recorded in a clear and simple manner; and it is illustrated by many charts and drawings, all serving to prove that the world is indebted to the efforts of the American fur-traders for much information relative to the northwest coasts, which is usually supposed to have been procured originally by the British and Spanish navigators. Of Captain Gray's second voyage to the Pacific, we know but little; that little, however, comes from authentic sources, and is worthy of being carefully preserved.

Ingraham sailed from Boston on the 16th of September, 1790; in January following he doubled Cape Horn, after stopping at Soledad or Port Egmont, in the Falkland Islands, where he found a Spanish garrison; and, in April, he discovered the group of six small islands, situated nearly in the centre of the Pacific, which are now called the *Washington Islands* by all geographers except the British. On the 20th of May the *Hope* reached Owyhee, and on the 29th of June she was anchored in a harbor on the southwest side of Queen Charlotte's Island, to which Ingraham gave the name of *Magee's Sound*. About this island, and the coasts of the continent immediately east of it, he remained during the whole summer; and having collected a large cargo of furs, he carried them to Canton in the autumn.

May 20. The *Columbia* quitted Boston on the 27th of September, 1790, and in May of the ensuing year she reached the northwest coast of America, a little northward of Cape Mendocino. Sailing along the coast towards Nootka, Captain Gray observed an opening, in the latitude of 46 degrees 16 minutes, from which issued a current so strong as to prevent his entrance, although he remained nine days in its vicinity endeavoring to effect that object. Being at length fully convinced that he had discovered the mouth of a great river, he continued his course towards the north, and on the 5th of June arrived in the harbor of *Clyoquot*, near Nootka.

May. From this place the *Columbia* soon sailed for Queen Charlotte's Island, near which she fell in with the *Hope*, on the 23d of July. On the 15th of August she entered an inlet under the parallel of $54\frac{1}{2}$ degrees, up which she proceeded more than eighty miles towards the northeast; the passage was found to be wide and deep throughout this whole distance, and appeared to extend much farther in the same direction. Gray, however, was unable to pursue the examination of it, and returned with the persuasion that he had discovered the *Rio de los Reyes*, through which Admiral Fonté was said to have sailed on his way to the Atlantic, in 1640. The passage is that now called the *Portland Canal*. On leaving it, the *Columbia* returned to *Clyoquot*, at the entrance of which she met the French ship *Solide*, commanded by Captain Marchand, just as the latter was shaping her course for China. Here Gray and his crew passed the winter in a fortified habitation on the shore, to which he gave the name of *Fort Defiance*. Here, also, he built and launched a schooner, called the *Enterprise*, the first vessel constructed on the northwest side of the continent by citizens of the United States. While remaining at this place, "Wiccannish, the chief of that district, had concerted a plan to capture his ship, by bribing a native of Owyhee, whom

Sept.

Gray had with him, to wet the priming of all the fire-arms on board, which were constantly kept loaded; upon which the chief would easily have overpowered the ship's crew by a number of daring Indians assembled for the purpose. This project was happily discovered; and the Americans being on their guard, the fatal effects of the plan were prevented."*

Captain John Kendrick, who commanded the Columbia in her first voyage to the Pacific, had remained in that ocean with the sloop Washington since 1789. In August of 1791, while lying in Nootka Sound, he had reason to suspect that the Spaniards would seize his vessel, in case he should endeavor to proceed to sea; and under this impression, he determined to make his way, if possible, through a passage which he believed to exist, from the extremity of the harbor north-westward into the Pacific. His effort proved successful; and he bestowed upon the channel thus found the name of *Massachusetts Sound*. This passage, called by the natives *Ahasset*, is not laid down upon Vancouver's maps; an account of it, however, appears in the Journal of the Sutil and Mexicana, where it is called the *Passage of Buena Esperanza*, and its discovery is attributed to the officers of Malaspina's ships, who surveyed it in the latter part of the same month, after Kendrick had passed through it.

About the same time, Kendrick purchased from Maquinna, Wiccannish, and other chiefs, several large tracts of land† near Nootka Sound, for which he afterwards exhibited deeds signed, or rather *marked*, by the savages, and witnessed by many of the officers and crew of the Washington. These deeds were authenticated by a notary at Macao; and attempts were made at London, in 1795, to sell the lands supposed to have been thus legally acquired. So lately, indeed, as 1838, a memorial was presented to the Congress of the United States by the representatives of the owners and captain of the Washington, praying that their title to these territories might be confirmed or purchased by the Govern-

* Vancouver's Journal, vol. i, page 215.

† The purchase of these lands is mentioned by Wadstrom, in his work on Colonization, published at London in 1795; and by Macpherson, in his Annals of Commerce. The circular issued by Messrs. Barrell & Co, in 1795, (of which one of the originals is now before the writer,) is a curious document; it is in four languages, and is couched in terms the most unspecific which could have been chosen. *The inhabitants of Europe* are informed that, "in 1787, Captain J. Kendrick, while prosecuting an advantageous voyage with the natives for furs, purchased of them, for the owners, a tract of delightful country comprehending four degrees or latitude, or 240 miles square;" and "that such as may be inclined to associate for settling a commonwealth, on their own code of laws, on a spot of the globe nowhere surpassed in delightful and healthy climate and fertile soil, claimed by no civilized nation, and purchased under a sacred treaty of peace and commerce, and for a valuable consideration, of the friendly natives, may have the best opportunity of trying the result of such an enterprise." Where these four degrees of latitude, or 240 miles square, are situated, is no otherwise stated than that they are in America. The deeds for the lands are declared in the circular to have been registered in the office of the American consul in China. These deeds, or some of them, which have been recently published, relate only to the territories about Nootka and Clioquot; and although they embrace the whole of the dominions of Maquinna and Wiccannish, they do not amount to one twenty-fourth part of 240 miles square. Moreover, the whole island in which those territories are situated extends through only two and a half degrees of latitude; so that other lands must have been purchased by Kendrick.

1791. ment; and the same claim is now being urged before Congress. That the transactions here described between Kendrick and the savage chiefs did really take place, there is no reason to doubt; it is, however, scarcely probable that the validity of the purchases will ever be recognised by the civilized nation which may hereafter possess the country adjacent to Nootka Sound.
- After purchasing these lands, Kendrick sailed to the Sandwich Islands, and there engaged in a new branch of commerce, of which he was the originator. It was the collection and transportation to China of the odoriferous wood called *sandal*, which grows in all the islands of the centre of the Pacific, and is in great demand throughout the Celestial Empire. Vancouver considered the scheme chimerical; the result, however, has proved that it was founded on just calculations, as the trade thus opened has ever since been prosecuted, and at the present day affords employment to many vessels. Kendrick did not live long to profit by it; he was killed at Owyhee, in 1793, by the natives.
1790. The Russians likewise endeavored, at this time, to carry into effect their long contemplated voyage of discovery through the north Pacific. After four years of preparations, one of the ships, built for the purpose at Petro-Paulowsk, sailed from that place in May, 1790, under Captain Joseph Billings, an Englishman, who had accompanied Cook in his last voyage, and had been engaged by the Empress to direct this expedition. Billings advanced no farther than the vicinity of Mount Saint Elias, which he reached in the latter part of July; there his provisions began to fail, and he was in consequence obliged to return to Kamschatka. In the following year, two vessels were sent from Petro-Paulowsk, with the same objects, under Captains Hall and Saretschef; neither of which proceeded beyond Unalashka. A melancholy picture of the sufferings experienced in these vessels has been presented by Martin Sauer, a German, who acted as secretary to the expedition, in his narrative published ten years afterwards. Another account of these voyages has been given by Saretscheff, who imputes the failure of the undertaking to the incapacity of Billings.
1792. In 1792, many discoveries were made on the northwest coasts of America by the British, the Spaniards, and the citizens of the United States.
- May 13. In the spring of that year Captain Jacinto Caamano, commanding the corvette *Aranzazu*, and Lieutenants Dionisio Alcalá Galiano and Cayetano Valdes, with the small sloops *Sutil* and *Mexicana*, arrived at Nootka from Mexico, with orders to examine certain parts of the coast which had not been visited by Malaspina. Galiano and Valdes soon after departed together for the Strait of Fuca, of which their survey will be hereafter described; while Caamano proceeded to examine the numerous openings in the land, which had been observed immediately north and north-east of Queen Charlotte's Island.
- May 23
to
Sept. 7. In the discharge of this duty, Caamano displayed great skill and activity, as appears from the account of his voyage* given by

* Introduction to the Journal of the *Sutil* and *Mexicana*, page 123.

Navarrete, and as indirectly testified by Vancouver. Without presenting the details of his researches, suffice it to say that he explored many of the bays and intricate channels which lie between the 52d and the 56th parallels of latitude, and minutely surveyed the northern side of Queen Charlotte's Island. Some of these channels were traced by him to their terminations in the land; others being ascertained to be straits, separating islands from each other and from the continent. From his observations, added to those of the fur-traders and of the natives, little doubt was left of the existence of many other islands in that part of the Pacific, occupying the position assigned to the *Archipelago of San Lazaro*, in the story of Admiral Fonté's voyage. 1792.

It should be observed, however, with regard to the accounts of Caamano's expedition, that several of the places visited and named by him had been surveyed in the preceding year, by the fur-traders of the United States, who had also bestowed appellations upon them. Thus the ports of *Estrada* and *Mazaredo*, on the northern shore of Queen Charlotte's Island, were already familiarly known to the Americans frequenting those coasts as *Hancock's river* and *Craft's Sound*. Ingraham has inserted charts and descriptions of both harbors in his journal, where he pronounces Hancock's river to be better adapted for a settlement than any other place on the northwest side of America.

An attempt was likewise, about this time, made by the Spaniards to form a settlement on the southern side of the Strait of Fuca, near its mouth, at a place to which they gave the name of *Port Nuñez Gaona*; but they were soon obliged to abandon it, in consequence of the insecurity of the anchorage and the difficulty of obtaining provisions. This place and Nootka Sound were the only spots north of Port San Francisco on which any establishment was formed or attempted by the Spaniards; and, as each settlement was founded after the month of April, 1789, Port San Francisco, in the latitude of 37 degrees 49 minutes, became, by virtue of the fifth article of the convention of 1790, the northern limit of the section of the American coast exclusively belonging to Spain.

In the middle of April Captain Vancouver arrived on the coast, near Cape Mendocino, with his two ships, the *Discovery*, commanded by himself, and the *Chatham*, by Lieutenant William Broughton. Proceeding northward along the shore of the continent, he carefully observed the part near the 43d degree of latitude, where Martin de Aguilar was said to have found a large river in 1603, and that near the 46th, where an opening was laid down on the Spanish charts, bearing the names of *Rio de San Roque* and *Entrada de Heceta*. Under the parallel of 42 degrees and 52 minutes he passed a promontory, which he ungenerously called *Cape Orford*, although it corresponds precisely in situation with the *Cape Blanco* of Aguilar; the river* which that navi- April 18.

* The Umqua and the Klamet, which enter the ocean near the position assigned by Torquemada to the mouth of Aguilar's river, are both inconsiderable streams.

1792. gator was supposed to have seen could not be found by the English, and there is now little doubt that the account of its discovery, given by Torquemada, is erroneous.
- Vancouver was equally convinced that no great stream entered the Pacific in the position assigned to the mouth of the San Roque; in describing his search for it he says, (vol. i, page 209:)
- April 27. "On the 27th of April, noon brought us up with a very conspicuous point of land, composed of a cluster of hummocks, moderately high and projecting into the sea. On the south side of this promontory was the appearance of an inlet or small river, the land not indicating it to be of any great extent; nor did it seem accessible for vessels of our burthen, as the breakers extended from the above point two or three miles into the ocean, until they joined those on the beach nearly four leagues farther south. On reference to Mr. Meares's description* of the coast south of this promontory, I was at first induced to believe it was *Cape Shoalwater*; but, on ascertaining its latitude, I presumed it to be that which he calls *Cape Disappointment*, and the opening south of it *Deception Bay*. This cape was found to be in latitude 46 degrees 19 minutes, longitude 236 degrees 6 minutes. The sea had now changed from its natural to river-colored water, the probable consequence of some streams falling into the bay, or into the ocean north of it, through the low land. *Not considering this opening worthy of more attention*, I continued our pursuit to the northwest, being desirous to embrace the advantages of the now prevailing breeze and pleasant weather, so favorable to an examination of the coasts."
- April 29. He accordingly sailed onwards, and, on the afternoon of the next day but one, he met at the entrance of the Strait of Fuca the American ship *Columbia*, which had just quitted her wintering place at *Clyoquot*; her captain, Gray, informed the English "of his having† entered an inlet to the northward, in latitude of 54½ degrees, in which he had sailed to the latitude of 56 without discovering its termination;" and, also, of "his having been off the mouth of a river, in the latitude of 46 degrees 10 minutes, where the outset, or reflux, was so strong as to prevent his entering for nine days. This was probably," continues Vancouver, "the opening passed by us on the forenoon of the 27th, and was apparently inaccessible, *not from the current*, but from the breakers that extend across it." On the following day, after parting with the *Columbia*, he writes in his journal: "We have now explored a part of the American continent, extending nearly two hundred and fifteen leagues, *under the most fortunate and favorable circumstances of wind and weather*. So minutely has this extensive coast been inspected, that *the surf has been constantly seen to break on its shores*, from the mast-head; and it was but in a few small intervals only where our distance precluded its being visible from the deck. It must be considered as a very singular
- April 30.

* See Meares's Journal, page 167; and page 93 of this memoir.

† Vancouver's Journal, vol. i, page 215.

circumstance, that, in so great an extent of sea-coast, we should not until now *have seen the appearance of any opening in its shores*, which presented any certain prospect of affording shelter; *the whole coast forming one compact, solid, and nearly straight barrier against the sea.* The river mentioned by Mr. Gray should, from the latitude he assigned to it, have existence in the bay south of Cape Disappointment. This we passed in the forenoon of the 27th; and, as I then observed, if any inlet or river should be found, it must be a very intricate one, and *inaccessible to vessels of our burthen, owing to the reefs and broken water*, which then appeared in its neighborhood. Mr. Gray stated that he had been several days attempting to enter it, which at length he was unable to effect, in consequence of a very strong outset. This is a phenomenon difficult to account for, as in most cases, where there are outlets of such strength on a sea-coast, there are corresponding tides setting in. Be that, however, as it may, *I was thoroughly convinced, as were also most persons of observation on board, that we could not possibly have passed any safe navigable opening, harbor, or place of security for shipping, on this coast, from Cape Mendocino to the promontory of Classet, [Cape Flattery, at the entrance of the Strait of Fuca;] nor had we any reason to alter our opinions, notwithstanding that theoretical geographers have thought proper to assert in that space the existence of arms of the ocean communicating with a mediterranean sea, and extensive rivers with safe and convenient ports.*"

1792.
May.

From the above extracts, it is evident that Captain Vancouver placed no reliance on the correctness of Gray's account of the discovery of a great river immediately south of Cape Disappointment; being satisfied, from his own observations, that no such stream emptied into the ocean, and that no harbor or place of security for shipping would be found between Cape Mendocino and the Strait of Fuca. The British commander was, moreover, as his work abundantly shows, always disinclined to regard with credit or favor any thing which might be calculated to advance the reputation or interests of the people of the United States. Under these impressions, he commenced his survey of the Strait of Fuca; while Gray, confident that he had not been mistaken, was on his way to the mouth of the great river, which he resolved, if possible, to enter with his ship.

While proceeding* southward along the coast, after parting

* Extract from the log-book of the ship *Columbia*, Captain Robert Gray, taken from the original by Charles Bulfinch, one of the owners of the *Columbia*.

May 7, 1792, A. M.—Being within six miles of the land, saw an entrance in the same, which had a very good appearance of a harbor; lowered away the jolly-boat, and went in search of an anchoring place, the ship standing to and fro, with a very strong weather-current. At 1 P. M. the boat returned, having found no place where the ship could anchor with safety; made sail on the ship; stood in for the shore. We soon saw, from our mast-head, a passage in between the sand-bars. At half-past 3, bore away, and run in northeast by-east, having from four to eight fathoms, sandy bottom; and, as we drew in nearer between the bars, had from ten to thirteen fathoms, having a very strong tide of ebb to stem. Many canoes came alongside. At 5 P. M. came to in five fathoms water, sandy bottom, in a safe harbor, well shel-

1792. with Vancouver, the captain of the *Columbia* found and entered, on the 7th of May, a harbor near the 47th degree, which he pronounces to be "safe, and well sheltered from the sea by long sand-bars and spits." Here he remained four days, and, on leaving the place, he bestowed on it the name of *Bulfinch's Harbor*, in compliment to one of the owners of the ship. It is generally distinguished on maps by the appellation of *Gray's Harbor*; Arrowsmith and other British geographers, with their usual injustice towards citizens of the United States, call it *Whidbey's Harbor*, because it was afterwards, as will be shown, surveyed by Lieutenant Whidbey, the commander of one of Vancouver's vessels.
- May 11. From *Bulfinch's Harbor* the *Columbia* departed on the 11th, and, after a few hours sail, she arrived opposite the Deception Bay of Meares, immediately south of his Cape Disappointment.

tered from the sea by long sand bars and spits. Our latitude, observed this day, was 46 degrees 58 minutes north.

May 10.—Fresh breezes and pleasant weather; many natives alongside; at noon, all the canoes left us. At 1 p. m. began to unmoor, took up the best bower-anchor, and hove short on the small bower-anchor. At half-past 4, (being high water,) hove up the anchor, and came to sail and a beating down the harbor.

May 11.—At half-past 7 we were out clear of the bars, and directed our course to the southward, along shore. At 8 p. m. the entrance of *Bulfinch's harbor* bore north, distance four miles; the southern extremity of the land bore south-southeast half east, and the northern north-northwest; sent up the main top-gallant yard and set all sail. At 4 a. m. saw the entrance of our desired port bearing east-southeast, distance six leagues; in steering sails, and hauled our wind in shore. At 8 a. m., being a little to windward of the entrance of the harbor, bore away, and run in east-northeast between the breakers, having from five to seven fathoms of water. When we were over the bar, we found this to be a large river of fresh water, up which we steered. Many canoes came alongside. At 1 p. m. came to with the small bower, in ten fathoms, black and white sand. The entrance between the bars bore west-southwest, distant ten miles; the north side of the river a half mile distant from the ship; the south side of the same two and a half miles distance; a village on the north side of the river west-by-north, distant three-quarters of a mile. Vast numbers of natives came alongside; people employed in pumping the salt water out of our water-casks, in order to fill with fresh, while the ship floated in. So ends.

May 12.—Many natives alongside; noon, fresh wind; let go the best bower-anchor, and veered out on both cables; sent down the main top gallant yard; filled up all the water-casks in the hold. The latter part, heavy gales and rainy dirty weather.

May 13.—Fresh winds and rainy weather; many natives alongside; hove up the best bower anchor; seamen and tradesmen at their various departments.

May 14.—Fresh gales and cloudy; many natives alongside; at noon weighed and came to sail, standing up the river northeast by-east; we found the channel very narrow. At 4 p. m. we had sailed upwards of twelve or fifteen miles, when the channel was so very narrow that it was almost impossible to keep in it, having from three to eighteen fathoms water, sandy bottom. At half-past 4 the ship took ground, but she did not stay long before she came off, without any assistance. We backed her off, stern foremost, into three fathoms, and let go the small bower, and moored ship with kedge and hawser. The jolly boat was sent to sound the channel out, but found it not navigable any further up; so, of course, we must have taken the wrong channel. So ends, with rainy weather; many natives alongside.

Tuesday, May 15.—Light airs and pleasant weather; many natives from different tribes came alongside. At 10 a. m. unmoored and dropped down with the tide to a better anchoring place; smiths and other tradesmen constantly employed. In the afternoon Captain Gray and Mr. Hoskins, in the jolly-boat, went on shore to take a short view of the country.

May 16.—Light airs and cloudy. At 4 a. m. hove up the anchor, and towed down about three miles with the last of the ebb tide; came into six fathoms, sandy bottom, the jolly-boat sounding the channel. At 10 a. m. a fresh breeze came up river. With the first of the ebb-tide we got under way and beat down river. At 1, (from its be-

The breakers extending across this bay presented, as they always do, a formidable appearance; Gray, however, dashed undauntedly forward, and soon found himself on a broad and rapid river, the water of which was so perfectly fresh that the casks of the ship were filled within ten miles of the Pacific. On the 14th he ascended the stream by a channel near its northern bank, to the distance of about twenty miles from its mouth, beyond which the Columbia could not advance on account of the shallowness of the water. At this point he anchored, and remained employed in trading with the natives and making repairs until the 18th; he then sailed down the river, and on the 20th passed the breakers, at its entrance, by beating through them, against a head wind, into the ocean.

1792.

May 14.

May 18.

May 20.

On leaving the river, Captain Gray bestowed upon it the name of his ship; the extremity of the land, at the southern side of its entrance, was called by him *Cape Adams*, and the appellation of *Cape Hancock* was substituted for that of *Cape Disappointment*, which had been given by Meares to the opposite promontory, in token of the unsuccessful result of his own search. Neither *Cape Adams* nor *Cape Hancock* is to be found on our maps at present; and the Columbia is not unfrequently termed the *Oregon*,

ing very squally,) we came to, about two miles from the village, (*Chinouk*.) which bore west-southwest; many natives alongside; fresh gales and squally.

May 17.—Fresh winds and squally; many canoes alongside; calkers calking the pinnace; seamen paying the ship's sides with tar; painter painting ship; smiths and carpenters at their departments.

May 18.—Pleasant weather. At 4 in the morning began to heave ahead; at half-past came to sail, standing down river with the ebb tide; at 7 (being slack water and the wind fluttering) we came to in five fathoms, sandy bottom; the entrance between the bars bore southwest-by-west, distance three miles. The north point of the harbor bore north-southwest, distant two miles; the south bore southeast, distant three and a half miles. At 9 a breeze sprung up from the eastward; took up the anchor and came to sail, but the wind soon came fluttering again; came to with the kedje and hawser; veered out fifty fathoms. Noon pleasant. Latitude observed, 46 degrees 17 minutes north. At 1 came to sail with the first of the ebb-tide, and drifted down broadside, with light airs and strong tide; at three-quarters past, a fresh wind came from the northward; wore ship and stood into the river again. At 4 came to in six fathoms; good holding-ground about six or seven miles up; many canoes alongside.

May 19.—Fresh wind and clear weather. Early a number of canoes came alongside; seamen and tradesmen employed in their various departments.

Captain Gray gave this river the name of *Columbia's River*, and the north side of the entrance *Cape Hancock*; the south, *Adams's Point*.

May 20.—Gentle breezes and pleasant weather. At 1 P. M. (being full sea) took up the anchor and made sail, standing down river. At 2 the wind left us, we being on the bar with a very strong tide which set on the breakers; it was now not possible to get out without a breeze to shoot her across the tide, so we were obliged to bring up in three and a half fathoms, the tide running five knots. At three quarters past 2 a fresh wind came in from seaward; we immediately came to sail and beat over the bar, having from five to seven fathoms water in the channel. At 5 P. M. we were out, clear of all the bars, and in twenty fathoms water. A breeze came from the southward; we bore away to the northward; set all sail to the best advantage. At 8 *Cape Hancock* bore southeast, distant three leagues; the north extremity of the land in sight bore north-by-west. At 9 in steering and top-gallant sails. Midnight, light airs.

May 21.—At 6 A. M. the nearest land in sight bore east-southeast, distant eight leagues. At 7 set top gallant sails and light stay sails. At 11 set steering-sails fore and aft. Noon, pleasant agreeable weather. The entrance of *Bulfinch's Harbor* bore southeast-by-east half east, distant five leagues.

1792. upon the strength of some vague and erroneous rumors which Captain Carver collected, or pretended to have collected, in 1766, among the Indians near Lake Superior, respecting a river Oregon, rising in the vicinity of the sources of the Mississippi and Red Rivers, and emptying into the Pacific near the Strait of Fuca. It must, however, be acknowledged that Oregon is, in all respects, a more convenient and distinctive name than the other; and it has, moreover, the merit of euphoniousness.

Such were the principal circumstances attending the discovery of the great river of Northwest America, a discovery far more important in its results than any other one relating to that part of the world, inasmuch as it has afforded the means of communication between the ocean and every section of one of the most fertile and valuable regions west of the Rocky Mountains. It has already been shown that the opening in the coast, by which Gray entered the stream, was first seen in 1775 by the Spanish navigator Heceta; that it was examined in 1788 by Meares, who quitted it with the conviction that no river passed through it into the ocean; and that this last opinion was adopted without qualification by Vancouver, after he had minutely explored that part of the coast, "under the most favorable conditions of wind and weather." Had not Gray returned to the search, after meeting with the English ships, the existence of the great river would doubtless have remained unknown for a much longer time, as the assertions of Vancouver that *no opening, harbor, or place of refuge for vessels, was to be found between Cape Mendocino and the Strait of Fuca*, and that *the coast within those limits "formed one compact, solid, and nearly straight barrier against the sea,"* would have prevented any attempt from being made to examine the shores, or even to approach them.

With regard to the originality of Gray's discovery, Mr. Irving says, in his *Astoria*: * "The existence of this river, however, was known long before the visits of Gray and Vancouver; but the information concerning it was vague and indefinite, being gathered from the reports of the Indians. It was spoken of by travellers as the Oregon, and as the Great River of the West. A Spanish ship is said to have been wrecked at its mouth, several of the crew of which lived for some time among the natives." Upon these assertions no remark will be made, except by expressing a hope that they may be omitted in future editions of *Astoria*, or that the author will state more particularly what traveller before 1792 has described a great river in Northwest America, which can be identified with the Columbia; and when the Spanish ship was wrecked at the mouth of that stream.

The plenipotentiaries of the British Government, in a *Statement*† presented by them to the minister of the United States, during a negotiation relative to Northwest America in 1826, have endeavored to secure the merit of the discovery of the Columbia

* Vol. i, page 35.

† See documents in relation to the boundary of the United States west of the Rocky Mountains, accompanying the President's message of December 12, 1827.

to—*Meares!* Their account of the circumstances is worthy of 1792.
 being extracted, as affording a specimen of the manner in which
 facts are related, and deductions are drawn from them. In that
 statement the plenipotentiaries say:

“Great Britain can show that in 1788, that is, four years before Gray entered the mouth of the Columbia River, Mr. Meares, a lieutenant of the royal navy, who had been sent by the East India Company on a trading expedition to the northwest coast of America, had already minutely explored that coast, from the 49th to the 45th degree of north latitude; had taken formal possession of the Straits of De Fuca, in the name of his Sovereign; had purchased land, trafficked, and formed treaties with the natives; and had actually entered the Bay of the Columbia, to the northern headland of which he gave the name of Cape Disappointment—a name which it bears to this day.

“Dixon, Scott, Duncan, Strange, and other private British traders, had also visited these shores and countries several years before Gray; but the single example of Meares suffices to quash Gray’s claim to prior discovery. To the other navigators above mentioned, therefore, it is unnecessary to refer more particularly.

“It may be worth while, however, to observe, with regard to Meares, that his account of his voyages was published in London in August, 1790; that is, two years before Gray is even pretended to have entered the Columbia.

“To that account are appended, first, extracts from his log-book; secondly, maps of the coasts and harbors which he visited, in which every part of the coast in question, including the Bay of the Columbia, (into which the log expressly states that Meares entered,) is minutely laid down, its delineation tallying in almost every particular with Vancouver’s subsequent survey, and with the description found in all the best maps of that part of the world, adopted at this moment; thirdly, the account in question actually contains an engraving, dated in August, 1790, of the entrance of De Fuca’s Straits, executed after a design taken in June, 1788, by Meares himself.

“With these physical evidences of authenticity, it is as needless to contend for, as it is impossible to controvert, the truth of Meares’s statement.

“It was only on the 17th of September, 1788, that the Washington, commanded by Mr. Gray, first made her appearance at Nootka.

“If, therefore, any claim to these countries, as between Great Britain and the United States, is to be deduced from priority of the discovery, the above exposition of dates and facts suffices to establish that claim in favor of Great Britain on a basis too firm to be shaken.

“It must, indeed, be admitted, that Mr. Gray, finding himself in the bay formed by the discharge of the waters of the Columbia into the Pacific, was the first to ascertain that this bay formed the outlet of a great river; a discovery which had escaped Lieutenant Meares, when in 1788, four years before, he entered the same bay.”

1792. In reply to which, it will be unnecessary to do more than refer to the words of Meares himself, as contained in his Journal, and as previously quoted in this memoir, page 93, where he declares that he sought for the River Saint Roc, laid down on the Spanish maps as entering the Pacific about the latitude of 46 degrees 10 minutes; that he entered a bay in that latitude, and became convinced from his examinations that no such river existed; and that, in token of the unsuccessfulness of his search, he had called the bay *Deception Bay*, and the headland on its northern side *Cape Disappointment*. That "Mr. Gray was the first to ascertain that this bay formed the outlet of a great river," is all that is claimed for him; for that *ascertainment* constituted the discovery of the Columbia, which had undoubtedly "*escaped* Lieutenant Meares, when in 1788, four years before, he entered the same bay."

May. From the Columbia river, Gray sailed to the part of the sea between Queen Charlotte's Island and the continent, the coasts of which were then much frequented by the fur-traders, particularly by those from the United States. In the northern part of this sea, his ship suddenly struck upon a rock, while she was under full sail, and was near foundering in consequence; she, however, succeeded in reaching Nootka Sound on the 21st of July, where the damage was soon repaired. At Nootka, Gray found in command of the Spanish establishment Don Juan Francisco de la Bodega y Quadra, who had arrived from Mexico in the capacity of commissioner, to surrender to Vancouver the lands and buildings designated in the first article of the convention of October, 1790. To this officer the American captain immediately communicated the results of his examinations, which were substantiated by charts of Bulfinch's harbor and of the Columbia river; and he thus fortunately secured an unimpeachable witness in support of his claims to the discovery of those places.

Meanwhile the surveys of the Strait of Fuca were in progress. From Cape Flattery, the point at the southern side of its entrance, Vancouver took his departure on the 1st of May, and sailed along its southern shore eastward, to the distance of about a hundred miles, where he found a secure harbor, named by him *Port Discovery*, and a little farther on a wide bay, with passages extending from it in various directions. He first entered a passage opening towards the south, which he named *Admiralty Inlet*, and explored it to its termination, about a hundred miles from the strait, in a bay called by him *Puget's Sound*, in compliment to one of the lieutenants of the Discovery. After surveying this arm completely, the officers of both ships landed at a spot near its entrance, on the 4th of June, the birthday of their Sovereign, and in his name took possession, "with the usual formalities of all that part of New Albion, from the latitude of 39 degrees 20 minutes south, and longitude 236 degrees 26 minutes east, to the entrance of the inlet of the sea, said to be the supposed Strait of Juan de Fuca, as also of all the coasts, islands, &c., within the said strait, and both its shores;" to which region they gave the appellation of *New Georgia*. With regard to this ceremony it

may be observed, that, although naval officers are not expected to be minutely acquainted with diplomatic affairs, yet Captain Vancouver, who was sent to the north Pacific to enforce the convention of October, 1790, should have recollected that, by the stipulations of that convention, every part of the northwest coast of America was rendered free and open for trade or settlement to Spanish as well as British subjects; and that, consequently, no claim of sovereignty on the part of either of those nations could be valid over any section of the territory.

After exploring to their terminations, in like manner, many inlets on the eastern and southern sides of the bay, the British passed by an opening towards the northwest, into another extensive arm of the sea, where they unexpectedly met with two other vessels. These were the Spanish schooners *Sutil* and *Mexicana*, commanded by Lieutenants Galiano and Valdes, who had, as before mentioned, left Nootka on the 4th of June, and had advanced thus far on their survey of the strait, along its northern shores. The meeting between the two parties was doubtless vexatious to both; they, however, treated each other with great civility, mutually exhibiting their charts, and comparing their observations; and having agreed to unite their labors, they continued in company nearly a month, during which they minutely explored the shores of the extensive arm of the sea above mentioned, called by the Spaniards *Canal del Rosario*, and by the English the *Gulf of Georgia*. From the northwestern extremity of this gulf, the British, taking leave of their Spanish friends, passed through a long and intricate channel, called by them *Johnstone's Strait*, westward into the Pacific, which they entered on the 10th of August, near the 51st parallel, by *Queen Charlotte's* or *Pintard's Sound*, about one hundred and twenty miles north of Nootka.

1792.

June 13.

July 13.

August.

On the 28th of the same month Vancouver arrived at Nootka, where he communicated to the Spanish commissioner, Quadra, the fact thus established by him, that the supposed Strait of Fuca was merely an arm of the Pacific, separating from the American continent a great island, on the western side of which the territory then occupied by the Spaniards, and claimed by the British, was situated. The fact being admitted by Quadra, the two officers agreed that the island should bear the names of them both; and it has accordingly ever since been distinguished on maps by the long and inconvenient appellation of *Quadra and Vancouver Island*, which it will scarcely be allowed to retain when that part of the world becomes settled by a civilized people. In justice to the British navigator, it should be *Vancouver's Island*.

The *Sutil* and *Mexicana* likewise entered the Pacific by the same channel through which Vancouver's ships had penetrated, and on the 30th of August they arrived at Nootka, whence they sailed for Monterey on the 4th of September. The *Journal** of their voyage, to which references have been so frequently made

* In one vol. octavo of 340 pages, with an atlas of seventeen plates.

1792. in the foregoing pages, was published at Madrid in 1802, by order of the Spanish Government, under the direction of Don Martin Fernandez de Navarrete, the chief of the Hydrographical Department, who prefixed to it an Introduction containing an historical sketch of the discoveries of the Spaniards upon the west coast of North America. This Introduction, occupying nearly the half of the work, is the only part of it which has any value; the meagre and uninteresting details furnished by Galiano and Valdes being entirely superseded by the ample and luminous accounts of Vancouver. The statements of Navarrete, in his historical sketch, are derived from original sources; and he has conveyed to the world information on various points relating to the northwest coasts, which would otherwise have remained buried in the archives of the Council of the Indies. The work should, however, be read with much caution, as it abounds in errors, the greater number of which are evidently not the results either of ignorance or of accident; while false impressions are attempted to be made in almost every page, by the studied silence of the writer with regard to facts contrary to the views or objects of those by whose orders it was published.

Aug. 30. Immediately after the arrival of Vancouver at Nootka, negotiations were commenced between him and Quadra respecting the transfer of the territories claimed by Great Britain. The whole object of the business was to ascertain *what lands on the northwest coast of America were in the possession of British subjects, and what buildings were standing on those lands in May, 1789, when the Spaniards first occupied Nootka.* For the determination of these questions the commissioners were, or appeared to be, as before said, entirely unprovided with instructions from their Governments; and they were thus left to form their own conclusions, upon such evidence as they could collect.

Sept. With this view Quadra had first applied to Maquinna and his principal men, who denied that any lands had been bought, or any houses had been built, by the English at Nootka, in 1789, or at any other time. As the testimony of the savages, however, could not be considered of much value, the Spaniard addressed his inquiries, as above mentioned, to Messrs. Gray and Ingraham, and to Viana, the Portuguese captain or mate of the *Iphigenia*, all of whom happened to be at Nootka in the summer of 1792. The American captains sent in reply a long and circumstantial account* of all the occurrences connected with the subject of the discussion, which they had themselves witnessed. In it they declare, that although they had remained at Nootka nine months, (including the period of the arrival of Martinez,) during which time they were in habits of constant intercourse with Maquinna and his people, they had never heard of any purchase of land on the coast by British subjects; and that the only building seen by them, when they reached the sound, was a hut consisting of rough posts, covered with boards made by the Indians, which

* See Appendix—[D.]

had been entirely destroyed before the entrance of the Spaniards. These statements were in all points confirmed by those of Viana; and the Spanish commissioner was thereupon led to the conclusion, *that no lands were to be restored, and no buildings to be replaced, by Spain.* A communication to that effect was in consequence addressed by him to Vancouver, soon after the arrival of the latter at Nootka, accompanied by copies of the letters received from Gray and Ingraham and Viana. He, however, at the same time offered, for the sake of removing all causes of disagreement between the two nations, to surrender to the English the small spot of ground on Friendly Cove, which had been temporarily occupied by Meares, to give up for their use the houses and cultivated lands, and to retire to the Strait of Fuca; with the understanding, that this cession was not to affect the rights of his Catholic Majesty to the dominion of the territory, and that Nootka was to be considered as the most northern settlement of the Spaniards, to whom the whole coast and country lying south of it belonged exclusively.

1792.
Septemb.

Vancouver, on the other hand, had thought proper to construe the first article of the convention of 1790 as giving to his countrymen *possession of the whole territory surrounding Nootka and Clioquot*; and he therefore refused to receive what was offered by Quadra, declaring, with regard to the concluding part of the Spaniard's proposition, that he was not authorized to enter into any discussion as to the rights or claims of the respective nations. In this conviction he was supported by the evidence of Robert Duffin, the former mate of the Argonaut, who happened to arrive at Nootka while the negotiation was in progress. This person, in a letter of which Vancouver gives a synopsis in his journal, stated—that he had himself been present in May, 1788, at the purchase by Meares, from Maquinna, of the whole of the land forming Friendly Cove, Nootka Sound, for eight sheets of copper and some trifling things; that the purchase was made in his Britannic Majesty's name, and under the British flag; and that houses and sheds were built on the spot by Meares, who left them in good repair on his departure for China; though he (Duffin) understood that no vestige of these buildings remained when the Spaniards took possession of the sound.

Upon the strength of this evidence, Captain Vancouver pronounced the assertions of Messrs. Gray and Ingraham to be entirely false; and he takes occasion, in several parts of his journal, to animadvert in severe language upon what he is pleased to term "the wilful misrepresentations of the Americans, to the prejudice of British subjects." Means have already been afforded in the preceding chapter for judging with regard to the probability of the truth of Duffin's assertions; and some idea may be formed of the extent of Captain Vancouver's candor, by comparing the letter of Gray and Ingraham, as given in the Appendix, [D.] with the synopsis of it contained in the journal of the English navigator. It will thus be seen, that in Vancouver's synopsis the evidence of the Americans is garbled in the most unfair manner; and that whatever could tend to place the British or their cause in an un-

1792. favorable light, is made to disappear by artful suppressions and alterations. The bitterness of Vancouver towards Gray and Ingraham may, perhaps, be accounted for, in part at least, by the circumstance, that on his arrival at Nootka he learned the success of Gray's search for a great river, on the very coast which he had himself, diligently, as he thought, but vainly, explored with the same object.

The negotiations* between the commissioners were continued during the greater part of September; until at length, finding it impossible to effect any arrangement of the business intrusted to them, they agreed to submit the whole affair, with such additional information as they had been able to obtain, to their re-

* The preceding sketch of the negotiation between Vancouver and Quadra is derived from the journals of Vancouver, Galiano and Valdes, and Ingraham. Ingraham obtained his information principally from Mr. Howel, the supercargo of the American brig Margaret, (previously a clergyman of the Church of England,) who acted as translator for the Spanish commissioner, and saw the whole of the correspondence. He drew up for Ingraham a written statement, which is given at length in the journal of the American captain, and of which the following is an extract:

"The indefinite mode of expression adopted by Messrs. Fitzherbert and Florida Blanca did not affix any boundaries to the cession expected by Great Britain; what the buildings were, or what was the extent of the tract of land to be restored, the plenipotentiaries did not think proper to determine. Don Juan Francisco, having no better guide, collected the best evidence he could procure, and that could enable him to determine what were the lands and buildings of which the British subjects were dispossessed, and which the tenor of the first article of the convention alone authorized him to restore. The result of this investigation, in which he was much aided by your communication, supported by the uniform declarations of Maquinna and his tribe, sufficiently evinced that the tract was a small corner of Friendly Cove, and, to use the words of Captain Vancouver, little more than a hundred yards in extent any way; and the buildings, according to your information, dwindled to one hut. Señor Quadra, having ascertained the limits usually occupied by Mr. Meares or his servants, was ever ready to deliver it in behalf of his Catholic Majesty to any envoy from the British Court. Captain Vancouver arrived at Nootka Sound in the latter end of August; and Señor Quadra wrote to him on the subject of their respective orders, and enclosed your letter, together with one from a Captain Viana, a Portuguese, who passed as captain of the Iphigenia, when she was detained by the Spaniards. Don Juan Francisco, in his letter, avowed his readiness to put Captain Vancouver in possession of the tract of land where Mr. Meares's house once stood, which alone could be that ceded to Great Britain by the convention. Señor Quadra offered, likewise, to leave for his accommodation all the houses, gardens, &c., which had been made at the expense of his Catholic Majesty, as he intended leaving the port immediately. In the same letter, he tendered Captain Vancouver offers of every service and assistance which hospitality or benevolence could dictate. Captain Vancouver, in reply, gratefully acknowledged the intended favors, but entirely dissented from the boundaries affixed by Señor Quadra to the tract of land, of which he was to receive the possession and property; and in pursuance of his directions, interpreted the first article as a cession of this port, viz: Nootka Sound, *in toto, together with Clyoquot or Port Cox*. He disclaimed all retrospective discussion of the rights, pretensions, &c., of the two courts, and also of the actual possessions of British subjects in Nootka Sound, deeming it irrelevant to the business he was authorized to transact, and only to be settled by the respective Monarchs. The letters which followed on both sides were merely a reiteration of the foregoing proposals and demands. Señor Quadra invited to a discussion of the foregoing proposals and demands, supported his evidence with well-grounded reasoning; yet Captain Vancouver steadily adhered to the demands he first made, and refused every kind of discussion. The definitive letter from Señor Quadra was transmitted on the 15th of September; but it being of the same nature with the preceding ones, Captain Vancouver only replied by a repetition of his former avowal, and informing the Spanish commandant that he could receive on the part of his master, the King of Britain, no other territories than those he had pointed out in his other letters, with which, if Señor Quadra did not comply, he must retain them for his Catholic Majesty until the respective Courts should determine what further proceedings they might deem necessary."

spective Governments, and to await further instructions; Nootka 1792.
 being, in the mean time, considered as a Spanish port. Van-
 couver accordingly despatched one of his lieutenants to England
 with accounts of the transactions; and in the early part of October Oct. 12.
 he sailed towards the south, with three vessels—the Discovery;
 his own ship, the Chatham, commanded by Lieutenant Brough-
 ton; and the Dædalus, which had recently joined him under
 Lieutenant Whidbey. About the same time Captain Quadra de-
 parted for Monterey, leaving the settlement at Nootka under the
 charge of Fidalgo; and the American ship Columbia and brig
 Hope directed their course homeward by way of Canton.

Vancouver quitted Nootka on the 13th of October, taking with Oct. 13.
 him charts and descriptions of the harbor and river discovered
 by Gray in the preceding April, of which he had received copies
 from the Spanish commissioner, Quadra. On the 18th he reached
 the entrance of Bulfinch's Harbor, to explore which he detached
 Lieutenant Whidbey in the Dædalus, while he himself proceeded
 with the other vessels to the mouth of the Columbia. Into that
 river the Chatham, with great difficulty, penetrated on the 20th.
 The Discovery was unable to cross the bar, and Vancouver, be-
 ing convinced from his observations that the stream was inacces-
 sible to large ships, "except in very fine weather, with moderate
 winds and a smooth sea," he sailed to the bay of San Francisco,
 where he had ordered the other officers to join him in case of
 separation. In December following the whole squadron was re-
 united at Monterey, where Whidbey and Broughton presented
 the reports of their observations.

Whidbey's account of Bulfinch's Harbor was less favorable
 than that of Gray. From the statements of both, however, it
 appears that the place possesses advantages which must render it
 important, whenever the surrounding region becomes settled. It
 affords a safe retreat for small vessels, and there are several spots
 on its shore where boats may land without difficulty; moreover,
 it is the only harbor on the coast, between Cape Mendocino and
 the Strait of Fuca, except the mouth of the Columbia; and under
 such circumstances, labor and ingenuity will certainly be em-
 ployed to correct and improve what nature has offered. It has
 been already remarked, that the place is generally distinguished
 on British, and even on American maps, as *Whidbey's Harbor*,
 although Vancouver himself has not pretended to withhold from
 Gray the merit of discovering it.

Broughton, as before mentioned, entered the Columbia with Oct. 20.
 the Chatham on the 20th of October; and he there, to his sur-
 prise, found lying at anchor the brig Jenny, from Bristol, which
 had sailed from Nootka Sound a few days previous. Scarcely
 had the Chatham effected an entrance, ere she ran aground; and
 the channel proved to be so intricate, that Broughton determined
 to leave his vessel about four miles from the mouth, and to pro- Oct. 24.
 ceed up the stream in his cutter. A few words will suffice with
 regard to his survey, of which a long and detailed account is
 given in the second volume of Vancouver's Journal.

The portion of the Columbia near the sea was found by the

1792. explorers to be about seven miles in width; its depth varied from
 Oct. 24. two fathoms to eight; and it was crossed in every direction by
 shoals, which must always render the navigation difficult, even
 Oct. 26. by small vessels. Higher up, the stream became narrower, and
 at the distance of twenty-five miles its breadth did not exceed
 a thousand yards. These circumstances were considered by
 Broughton and Vancouver as authorizing them to assume that
 the true entrance of the *river* was at the last-mentioned point, and
 that the waters between it and the ocean constituted an *inlet* or
sound. From the extremity of this *inlet*, the party rowed eighty-
 four miles up the *river*, in a southwest course, to a bend, where
 Oct. 30. the current being so rapid as to prevent them from advancing
 without great labor, they abandoned the survey and returned to
 their vessel. The angle of land around which the river flowed,
 Nov. 5. and where their progress was arrested, received the appellation
 of *Point Vancouver*; the part of the *inlet* where the ship Colum-
 bia lay at anchor during her visit, was called *Gray's Bay*; and
 that immediately within Cape Disappointment was named *Ba-
 ker's Bay*, in compliment to the captain of the *Jenny*. On the
 10th of November the *Chatham* quitted the *Columbia*, in com-
 Nov. 23. pany with the *Jenny*, and arrived at the Bay of San Francisco
 before the end of the month.

The distinction which Vancouver and Broughton have thus endeavored to establish between the upper and the lower parts of the *Columbia* is entirely destitute of foundation, and at variance with the principles upon which our whole geographical nomenclature is formed. *Inlets* and *sounds* are arms of the sea, running up into the land; and their waters, being supplied from the sea, are necessarily salt. The waters of the *Columbia* are, on the contrary, fresh and potable within ten miles of the Pacific; their volume, and the impetuosity of their current, being sufficient to prevent the farther ingress of the ocean billows. The question appears, at first, to be of no consequence; the following extract from Vancouver's Journal will, however, serve to show that the quibble was devised by the British navigators, with the unworthy object of depriving Captain Gray of the merits of his discovery: "Previously to his [Broughton's] departure, he formally took possession of the river, and the country in its vicinity, in his Britannic Majesty's name, *having every reason to believe that the subjects of no other civilized nation or State had ever entered this river before*. In this opinion he was confirmed by Mr. Gray's sketch, in which it does not appear that Mr. Gray either saw, or ever was within five leagues of its entrance." Comments on this passage are needless.

1793. From the Bay of San Francisco, Vancouver despatched Lieutenant Broughton to Europe, by way of Mexico, with further communications to his Government respecting the transfer of Nootka; and he then proceeded with his vessels to the Sandwich Islands, the importance of which, as places of resort for obtaining repairs and refreshments, began by that time to be properly estimated. He there succeeded in effecting a peace, and reciprocal recognitions of independence, between Tamahamaha, the celebrated

chief of Owyhee, and Titeree, the sovereign of the other islands; 1793. and he also caused the execution of several of the natives, who had been delivered up to him as the murderers of two officers of the *Dædalus* in the preceding year, but who were afterwards ascertained to have been guiltless of the crime imputed to them.* Having performed these acts of justice, he sailed towards the northwest coast, and arrived at Nootka in May, 1793.

The following summer was passed by the British navigators in exploring the passages north and northeast of Queen Charlotte's Islands, which had been partially examined by Caamano in 1792. It would be needless to present the particulars of these researches, which were conducted in the most masterly manner. The results were, the discovery and survey of a number of islands, situated at short distances apart, between the 54th and the 56th parallels of latitude, in a space which had been previously regarded as occupied by a portion of the American continent. The inlet found by Gray, and supposed by him to be the *Rio de los Reyes* of Fonté, was traced to its termination in the land near the 56th parallel; and whilst a part of the story of that admiral's voyage appeared to be confirmed by the discovery of the Archipelago, the remainder was believed to have been completely disproved, inasmuch as no great river was found entering that part of the Pacific.

The islands, straits, bays, and capes thus discovered, were nearly all named in honor of the members of the royal family, the ministry, the peerage, and the other branches of the Government of Great Britain. Thus we find on Vancouver's map of the northwest Archipelago, the islands or groups of *King George the Third*, *the Prince of Wales*, *the Duke of York*, *the Admiralty*, and *Pitt*; one small group, which had been partially surveyed by Caamano, received the appellation of *Rivellagigedo Islands*, in compliment to the Viceroy of Mexico. Between these islands run the *Duke of Clarence's Strait*, *Prince Frederick's Sound*, *Clatham Canal*, *Grenville Canal*, *Burke's Canal*, and *Stephen's Passage*; the capes and bays being distributed among the *Windhams*, *Dundases*, and other high tory families of that day. It is, however, improbable that any one of these names will ever be employed by the inhabitants of the region in which the places so called are situated. The Russians, who now occupy the whole west coast of America and the adjacent islands north of the parallel of 54 degrees 40 minutes, appear to have excluded, as far as possible, the appellations bestowed by the subjects of other States. Thus, on their charts of the north Pacific, *Cook's Inlet* is termed the *Bay of Kenay*; *Prince William's Sound* is the *Gulf of Tschugatsch*; *Admiralty Bay* is the *Bay of Yakutat*; and *Norfolk Sound*, the *Port Guadelupe* of the Spaniards, is the *Gulf of Sitca*. The territory called by Vancouver *King George the Third's Island*,

* For the particulars of the trial and execution of these unfortunate savages, see Vancouver's Journal, vol. ii, page 204. Captain Broughton, when he visited the Sandwich Islands in 1795, was assured of their entire innocence, as may be seen in his Journal, page 42.

1793. has been since found to be divided by channels into four islands, which are severally distinguished by the names of *Chichagof*, *Baranof*, *Jacobi*, and *Krooze*. The *Prince of Wales's Islands* are *Tschirikof's Islands*; *Admiralty Island* is *Hosnoof*; and *Stephen's Passage* is the *Strait of Acco*.
1794. Feb. 25. These surveys having been completed, the British ships retired on the approach of cold weather to the Sandwich Islands, where Vancouver contrived to obtain from King Tamamahaha the cession of the sovereignty of Owyhee to his Britannic Majesty, with the understanding, however, that the native chief and his officers, as well as the priests, "were to continue to officiate in their respective stations, and that no alteration in those particulars was in any degree thought of or intended." In return for *the present*, the British navigators built a vessel of war for the King, by the aid of which he soon after brought several other islands of the group under his dominion.*
- Mar. 14. In the spring of 1794 Vancouver sailed from the Sandwich Islands to the bay called Cook's River, which he minutely explored; and having ascertained that no considerable stream emptied into it, as had been previously supposed, he changed its name to *Cook's Inlet*. Thence he proceeded to Prince William's Sound, which he also examined carefully; and from that place he continued his survey eastwardly, until he reached the Archipelago discovered by him in 1793. Through this Archipelago he again sailed for the purpose of completing his observations; and on the 2d of August he arrived at Nootka, satisfied that "the precision with which his survey of the coast of Northwest America had been conducted, would remove every doubt, and set aside every opinion of a northwest passage, or any water communication navigable for shipping between the north Pacific and the interior of the American continent, within the limits of his researches." We now know that no such communication exists east of Beering's Strait; but when we take into consideration the intricate character of the shores between Mount Saint Elias and the southern part of the Strait of Fuca, it must be admitted that many passages by which vessels could thus penetrate the continent might have long escaped the notice of the most careful navigators. In fact, a river called the *Stikine*, which is three miles wide at its mouth, and a mile wide at the distance of thirty miles from the sea, has been, within a few years, discovered emptying into the Pacific, in the latitude of 56 degrees 50 minutes.
- Sept. 2. At Nootka the Spaniards were found still in possession, under the command of Colonel Alava, who had been, moreover, appointed commissioner of his Government, in place of Captain Quadra, lately deceased. No orders had been received from Europe relative to the surrender of the territory, and the British ships accordingly proceeded to Monterey, where the long expected instructions arrived during their stay. The Court of Madrid had agreed to abandon Nootka; and on the part of Great Britain, another

* This justly celebrated man died in 1819, having some years previous established his authority over all the islands of the group.

commissioner was despatched to the Pacific to receive possession of the place, if Vancouver should have quitted that ocean. Under these circumstances Vancouver resolved to return to England, where he arrived in August, 1795. 1794. 1795.

The Journals of Vancouver's voyage were published in 1798, before which period the navigator had sunk into the grave. The work is invaluable, notwithstanding the illiberal spirit which pervades its pages. In none other can be found so much clear and precise information with regard to the northwest coasts of America; and it is only to be lamented that one endowed with such courage, capacity, and professional skill, as the author evidently possessed, should have been so far governed by unworthy prejudices as he evidently was. Towards the Spaniards he appears to have been inclined, generally, to act with justice, or at least with courteousness; but against all citizens of the United States, and their country, he cherished the most bitter animosity, which was in many instances too powerful to be controlled by his sense of honor. Whenever an opportunity presented itself, or could be contrived, for exhibiting the character or conduct of Americans in an unfavorable light, it was eagerly seized by Vancouver; and that which he would have pardoned or commended in an Englishman or a Spaniard, became criminal in his eyes when committed by a citizen of the hated Republic.

The observations of Vancouver form the basis of our best maps of the west coast of America, from the 30th degree of latitude to the northern extremity of Cook's Inlet, as also of those of the Sandwich Islands, which he surveyed with care. The maps contained in the atlas annexed to the Journal of the Voyage of the Sutil and Mexicana, are nearly all copied from those of the British navigator.

Whilst these surveys of the Pacific coasts of North America were in progress, Alexander Mackenzie, a Scotchman in the service of the celebrated fur-trading association, called the *North-west Company*, was exploring the unknown regions of the continent bordering upon that part of the ocean. The association by which he was employed had been formed in 1787, among the principal fur-merchants of Canada, for the purpose of carrying on the trade between the posts of that country and such of the British territories of the interior as were supposed to be not included in the grant to the *Hudson's Bay Company*; and within two years afterwards, its establishments had been advanced as far as *Lake of the Hills*, or *Athabaska Lake*, near the 59th parallel of latitude, about eight hundred miles beyond Lake Superior. 1789.

From *Fort Chipewyan*, the trading-station on this lake, Mackenzie departed on his first journey in June, 1789, and proceeded in a boat down the *Slave River*, which flows out of the lake, directly northward, into the *Great Slave Lake*, discovered by Hearne in 1770. Thence he continued northwestward, down another and much larger stream, on which he bestowed his own name, to its termination in a sea near the 69th degree of latitude; and having thus fulfilled the objects of his expedition, he returned to *Fort Chipewyan*. The mouth of the *Mackenzie* was situated

1789. much farther west than that of the *Coppermine*, which Hearne had reached; and the probability of the existence of a northern navigable communication between the Pacific and the Atlantic, east of Beering's Strait, was thus considerably lessened; while, on the other hand, stronger grounds were afforded for the belief that the northernmost parts of America were bathed by an open sea.
1792. In his second expedition, begun in October, 1792, Mackenzie
Oct. 10. ascended the *Unjigah*, or *Peace River*, (which empties into the Athabasca Lake,) westward to its sources, among the Rocky Mountains. Having crossed this chain, he embarked upon another large stream called the *Tacoutchee*, which he descended to a short distance; and then marching directly westward, he reached
July 22. the Pacific on the 22d of July, 1793, at the mouth of one of the in-
Aug. 24. lets near the Princess Royal Islands, in the latitude of 52 degrees and 20 minutes.* By this second journey, he ascertained that no passage existed through the North American continent, opening into the Pacific south of the parallel above mentioned; which fact had been already, though less decisively, proved by Vancouver in the preceding year. The *Tacoutchee* was for some time supposed to be the principal branch of the *Columbia*; it has, however, been subsequently found to be a much smaller stream, emptying into the Strait of Fuca, and it is now known as *Frazer's River*.

The journals of Mackenzie's two expeditions were published together, at London, in 1802, accompanied by a history of the Canada fur trade, and by observations on the mode of conducting the commercial intercourse between America and China advantageously to the interests of Great Britain. He there recommends that the Hudson's Bay and the Northwest Companies, which had been at war with each other ever since the formation of the latter, should be united; that the British Government should favor the establishment of communications across the continent, for which the *Tacoutchee*, supposed by him to be the *Columbia*, would afford great facilities; and that the East India Company should throw open to their fellow-subjects the trade between the northwest coasts and Canton, which was then, as he says, "left to the adventurers of the United States, acting without regularity or capital, or the desire of conciliating future confidence, and looking only to the interest of the moment." Experience has proved the justice of Mackenzie's observations; and nearly all his suggestions have been adopted, to the manifest advantage of Great Britain.

It is proper to notice here an account of an expedition across the American continent, made between 1791 and 1794, by a party of citizens of the United States, under the direction of Julius Rodman, whose journal has been recently discovered in Virginia, and is now in course of publication in a periodical magazine† at

* On the day of Mackenzie's arrival on the shore of the Pacific, Vancouver was examining another inlet situated about one hundred and fifty miles farther north.

† *Burton's Magazine* and *American Monthly Review*, edited by William E. Burton and Edgar A. Poe. Mr. Rodman's journal is commenced in the number for January, 1840, and is continued in those for the next following months.

Philadelphia. The portion which has yet appeared relates only to the voyage of the adventurer up the Missouri during the summer of 1791; and no idea is communicated of their route beyond that river, except in the Introduction by the editor, where it is stated that they traversed the region "west of the Rocky Mountains, and north of the 60th parallel, which is still marked upon our maps as unexplored, and which, until this day, has been always so considered." From what has been published, it is impossible to form a definitive opinion as to the degree of credit which is due to the narrative, or as to the value of the statements, if they are true; and all that can be here said in addition is, that nothing as yet appears, either in the journal or relating to it, calculated to excite suspicions with regard to its authenticity.

To conclude with regard to the delivery of Nootka.

The commissioner appointed by the British Government to receive possession of that place, provided Vancouver should have left the Pacific, was Captain Robert Broughton, the former commander of the Chatham. He sailed from England in the ship Providence in October, 1794, and in April, 1796, he reached Nootka, which he found occupied only by the natives. He there learned from a letter, presented to him by Maquinna, dated March, 1795, that "the Spaniards had delivered up the port of Nootka, &c., to Lieutenant Pierce, of the marines, [who had been despatched from England, by way of Mexico, in order to hasten the termination of the business,] agreeably to the mode of restitution settled between the two Courts."^{*}

This is the account given by Broughton.† On the other hand, Belsham, an historian whom no one can suspect of want of attachment to the honor and interests of his country, says:‡ "It is nevertheless certain, from the most authentic subsequent information, that the Spanish flag flying at the fort and settlement of Nootka was never struck, and that the whole territory has been virtually relinquished by Great Britain; a measure, however politically expedient, which involves in it a severe reflection upon the minister who could permit so invidious an encroachment upon the

* In the library of Congress at Washington is an interesting Spanish manuscript, presented by General Tornel, during his residence in the United States as minister from Mexico, entitled *Instrucción Reservada del Reyno de Nueva España que el Excmo. Señor Virrey Conde de Revillagigedo dió á su sucesor el Excmo. Señor Marqués de Branciforte en el año de 1794*; that is to say—Secret Instructions, or rather notes on the Kingdom of New Spain, given in 1794 by the Viceroy, Count de Revillagigedo, to his successor, the Marquis de Branciforte. This work, which abounds in curious details relative to the administration of affairs in Mexico, has been carefully examined, with reference to the objects of the present memoir. Nothing, however, has been collected from it, except in confirmation of statements elsewhere made. The paragraphs from 703 to 713, inclusive, are devoted to the *Marine Department of San Blas*, to which, as already mentioned, the care of the Spanish colonies in California was committed. The Count recommends to his successor the maintenance of those colonies, as the best means of preserving Mexico from foreign influences; advising him, at the same time, however, not to extend the establishments beyond the Strait of Fuca. With regard to Nootka, it is merely stated, in paragraph 713, that orders had been sent to the commandant to abandon the place, agreeably to a royal dictamen.

† Broughton's Journal of his Voyage, page 50.

‡ Belsham's History of Great Britain, vol. viii, page 337.

1796. ancient and acknowledged rights of the Crown of Spain." The probability is, that the Spaniards merely abandoned the place.

Since that period, no attempt has been made by any civilized nation to form an establishment at Nootka or in its vicinity, although the sound continued to be, and probably still is, occasionally visited by the fur-traders. The most recent accounts of it which have been published, are of no later date than 1807, when King Maquinna was enjoying the fulness of health and of power; and although his manners appeared to have then become more refined, he was still at heart a cruel and treacherous savage.*

In this and the next preceding chapters, an endeavor has been made to present an impartial view of the circumstances connected with the occupation of Nootka by the Spaniards in 1789; and it is believed that the erroneousness of the statements of the British political and historical authorities respecting those circumstances has been conclusively demonstrated. It has been shown that—

No part of "*the northwest coasts of the continent of North America, or of the adjacent islands,*" was, or ever had been, occupied by British subjects prior to the formation of the Spanish post at Nootka, in 1789:

That, consequently, no "*buildings or tracts of land*" in that quarter were "*to be restored to British subjects,*" agreeably to the convention of October 28, 1790: and, as a farther consequence,

That the abandonment of Nootka by the Spaniards, in 1795, gave to Great Britain no other rights at that, or any other place in Northwest America, than those derived from the third and fifth articles of the abovementioned convention, by which her subjects were at liberty to navigate and fish in the north Pacific, to trade or settle in unoccupied parts of its American coasts north of the parts occupied by the Spaniards before April, 1789, (that is to say, north of the Bay of San Francisco;) and to have free access to any Spanish settlement on the coasts thus designated.

* Narrative of the Destruction of the ship Boston, of Boston, and of the murder of all her men except two, by the savages at Nootka Sound, in March, 1803, with accounts of that country and of its inhabitants: by John R. Jewitt, one of the survivors of the crew, who remained three years in captivity among the Indians—a simple and unpretending narrative, which will, no doubt, in after centuries, be read with interest by the enlightened people of Northwest America.

CHAPTER VIII,

Comprehending the period between 1796 and 1815—Commerce between the northwest coasts of America and Canton conducted exclusively by vessels of the United States—Formation of the Russian American Company; account of its system and establishments—Complaints of the Russians against the traders of the United States—Cession of Louisiana to the United States; supposed extent of Louisiana in the north and northwest—Expedition of Lewis and Clarke to the mouth of the Columbia—First enterprises of British and American fur-traders in Northwest America—Astoria enterprise—Mouth of the Columbia occupied by the Americans, who are dislodged by the British.

In October, 1796, Spain declared war against Great Britain; and, for nearly twenty years afterwards, the Governments and people of both nations were too much engrossed by events daily occurring in their immediate vicinity to have any leisure to bestow on matters so comparatively unimportant as those connected with the northwest coasts of America. 1796

During this whole period, the direct trade between those coasts and Canton was carried on *exclusively* by the vessels, and under the flag, of the United States. The British merchants were prevented from engaging in this commerce by the refusal of their own East India Company to allow it; the Russians were not admitted into the Chinese ports, and few ships of any other nation were seen in the north Pacific.

Until 1811 the Americans had formed no establishment on the western shore of the continent. Their vessels sailed from the United States, or from Europe, to the north Pacific, laden with spirits, wine, sugar, tobacco, fire-arms, gunpowder, iron, and coarse manufactures of various sorts, which were exchanged for furs with the natives on the coasts, or with the Russians at their settlements; or sometimes the American captain would hire from a Russian agent a number of hunters and fishermen, with their boats and implements, for the season, and would thus obtain a cargo. The furs were thence carried to Canton, where the proceeds of their sale were invested in teas, porcelain, silks, and nankeens, for the markets of the United States or of Europe. When a sufficient quantity of furs could not be collected in the north Pacific, their place was supplied by sandal-wood, pearl shells, and tortoise shells, which were procured at little expense in the Sandwich and other islands, and always commanded high prices at Canton.

The persons engaged in this trade were constantly exposed to the most dreadful hardships and dangers, against which nothing but extraordinary courage and skill on their parts could have enabled them to struggle successfully. These circumstances were not calculated to soften the feelings or to improve the morals of the traders; and as they were actually subject to no other

1796. laws or restrictions, during their voyages in the Pacific, than such as they themselves chose to adopt or observe, it could not have been expected that their conduct should at all times be conformable with the principles of justice. They have been charged by British reviewers and British naval officers—authorities always to be distrusted on matters pertaining to the United States or its citizens—with practising every species of fraud and violence towards the natives of the coasts and islands of that ocean. It does not, however, appear, upon examining the facts brought forward in support of these accusations, that the American fur-traders were guilty of other or greater improprieties than have ever been, and must ever be, committed by shrewd and intelligent civilized people, when unrestrained by laws, in their transactions with brutal, ignorant, and faithless savages. These latter, in their turn, availed themselves of every occasion to rob and murder the strangers who came to their shores. More than one American ship has been seized, and all on board massacred by the natives of the Pacific coasts; and seldom, indeed, did a vessel from the United States complete her voyage in that ocean, without losing some part of her crew by the treachery of those with whom they were dealing. Thus in March, 1803, the ship *Boston*, of Boston, commanded by John Salter, was surprised at Nootka, by Maquinna and his followers, and all her men were put to death except two, who, after remaining in slavery three years, effected their escape.* In like manner, the *Tonquin*, Captain Thorn, of New York, fell into the hands of Wiccanish and his subjects at Nittinat, or Berkely Sound, in June, 1811; nearly the whole of her crew perished in a moment, under the clubs and knives of the assailants, and the remainder, with the exception of the Indian interpreter, were soon after destroyed, together with a large number of savages, by the explosion of the powder magazine, which was fired probably by one of the officers.†

In the mean time the Russians, though excluded from the direct trade with Canton, were continually increasing and enlarging their establishments in America.‡ The association formed in 1785, among the merchants of eastern Siberia, for carrying on the fur

* Narrative of John R. Jewitt, already mentioned at page 142.

† A minute and graphic account of the destruction of the *Tonquin*, collected from the evidence of the interpreter, who afterwards found his way to the Columbia River, is given by Ross Cox, in his account of his residence on the Columbia River, and has been thence transferred by Mr. Irving to his *Astoria*.

‡ The following sketch of the Russian establishments in the north Pacific, during the first years of the present century, is derived chiefly from—

I. Narrative of a Voyage around the World, in the years 1803–1806, in the Russian ships *Nadeshda* and *Neva*, under the command of Captain A. J. Von Krusenstern. The original edition of this work is accompanied by a large atlas, containing charts and other engravings.

II. Narrative of a Voyage around the World in the Ship *Neva*, by her captain, Urey Lisiansky.

III. Narrative of a Voyage in the Pacific, by G. H. Von Langsdorf, the physician of the Russian ship *Nadeshda*.

IV. Narrative of a Voyage around the World, in 1815 and 1816, in the Russian ship *Kurick*, commanded by Lieutenant Otto Von Kotzebue. And from—

V. Various documents existing in the archives of the Department of State, at Washington.

trade of the north Pacific, was protected and encouraged by the Empress Catherine, who bestowed upon it many valuable privileges. Her son and successor, Paul, was, at the beginning of his reign, inclined to withdraw these advantages, and even to break up the association, on account of the cruel conduct of its agents towards the natives and the Russians who were employed in its service. Reasons of state, however, induced him to abandon this resolution; and he at length, by a decree of the 8th of July, 1799, granted to the united merchants a charter, assuring to them, under the title of the *Russian American Company*, the exclusive use and control, for twenty years, of all the coasts of America on the Pacific, and the islands in that ocean, from Beering's Strait to the 55th degree of south latitude, together with the right of occupying any other territories not previously possessed by some civilized nation. The residence of the directors of the company was at first fixed at Irkutsk, in Siberia, the great depository of the China trade; it was afterwards transferred to St. Petersburg, and their affairs were placed under the superintendence, or rather the directors were placed under the *surveillance*, of the Imperial Department of Commerce.

1796.

1799.
July 8.

The privileges thus accorded by Paul, were confirmed and extended by Alexander; and, under these favorable auspices, the power and influence of the Russian American Company rapidly advanced. In 1803, its establishments on the north Pacific coasts extended eastward, as far as Port Guadelupe, or Norfolk Sound, called by the Russians the *Gulf of Sitca*, which separates the small Island of Mount San Jacinto, or Edgecumb, or Krooze, from *Baranoff's Island*, the largest of the group named by Vancouver King George the Third's Archipelago. The settlement on the Gulf of Sitca was destroyed by savages in 1804; another was, however, soon founded in the vicinity of the same spot, which received the appellation of *New Archangel*, and has ever since been the capital of Russian America.

1800.

1803.

1804.

In 1806 preparations were made for occupying the mouth of the Columbia River, but the plan was abandoned; although that part of the coast, and all north of it, was then, and for many years afterwards, represented on the maps of the Russian American Company as included within the limits of its possessions.

1806.

The Government of Russian-America was arranged and conducted in the most despotic manner possible, nearly resembling that of a Turkish Pashalik; each factory was superintended by a Russian overseer, who, with the aid of a small number of Russians, maintained absolute control over all the natives in his district, compelling them constantly to labor for the benefit of the company. The overseers were under the superintendence of agents, one of whom resided in each group of settlements; and all were subject to the authority of a chief agent, or governor-general, appointed by the directors, whose powers, though nominally defined and limited by regulations drawn up at St. Petersburg, were, in fact, absolute and unrestricted. The person who filled the office of governor-general at the beginning of this century, and for many years afterwards, was Alexander Baranoff, a bold, shrewd, enter-

1800.

1800. prising, and unfeeling man, under whose iron rule the affairs of the company prospered, and its stock rose proportionally in value. His proceedings were, therefore, always approved by those to whom he was accountable, and complaints against his tyranny were always disregarded.

The Russians engaged in the service of the company, under the direction of the overseers, were distinguished by the general name of *Promuschleniks*, (meaning *speculators*;) and were employed as hunters, fishermen, seamen, soldiers, or mechanics, as their superiors might command. In the best of these situations their lot appears to have been more wretched than that of any other class of human beings, with the exception, perhaps, of the natives, whom they aided in keeping under subjection; and therefore is not surprising that none but vagabonds and adventurers should ever have become *promuschleniks*. The gallant and humane Krusenstern, in the narrative of his expedition to the Pacific in 1804 and 1805, presents a number of dreadful pictures of the sufferings of these unfortunate persons from want of food, from the severity of the climate, and from too much labor. According to the most recent accounts, it appears that their situation, while they are on land at least, has not been materially improved.*

The greater part of the furs collected on the northwest coasts of America continued to be, during the period mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, transported to Petro-Paulowsk and Ochotsk, from which places were brought nearly all the articles required for the use of the settlements; the remainder of the supplies being obtained from American vessels in the manner already described. The Russian Government, however, soon became desirous to exclude the vessels of the United States from the north Pacific, not only from a wish to monopolize the fur trade, but also in order to prevent the natives of the coasts from procuring arms and ammunition, with which they were furnished by the Americans, to the great detriment of the authority and interests of the Russian company. For this purpose, it would be necessary to maintain a naval force in the vicinity of the settlements, and to establish regular communications, by ships, between them and Europe; and, with the view of inquiring how those measures might be best executed, as well as of opening, if possible, some intercourse with Japan and the ports of China, it was determined that a scientific and political expedition should be made to the north Pacific.

1803. Two ships, the *Nadeshda*, commanded by Captain Krusenstern, and the *Neva*, by Captain Lisiansky, were accordingly despatched from Cronstadt in August 1803, carrying out the chamberlain, Von Resanoff, as ambassador to Japan, and plenipotentiary of the Russian-American Company, together with a large body of officers and men of science. These were the first vessels, under the Russian flag, which crossed the equinoctial

* It will be recollected that these accounts are derived from *Russian* authorities.

they passed around Cape Horn, and, touching at the Washington and the Sandwich Islands, they reached the coasts of the north Pacific in the summer of 1804. Without detailing the subsequent occurrences of the expedition, which lasted until the summer of 1806, it will be sufficient to say, that none of the political or commercial objects proposed were attained. The Japanese, as usual, refused peremptorily to allow any intercourse to be carried on between their dominions and those of Russia; nor would the Chinese admit the commercial ships of the latter power into Canton. The plans of Von Resanoff (who appears to have been a ridiculous and incompetent person) for the management of the affairs of the company proved wholly inapplicable; and the propriety of immediately expelling the Americans from the north Pacific, even could it be done, was rendered very questionable by the fact that the garrison and inhabitants of Alaska would have all infallibly perished from famine, in the winter of 1805-'6, had they not been fortunately supplied with provisions by the ship Juno from Rhode Island.* Finally, whatever may have been the conclusions formed upon the information acquired during the expedition, as to the practicability of maintaining a direct commercial intercourse, by sea, between the Russian ports in Europe and their settlements on the Pacific, certain it is that no attempt for that purpose was again made until 1814.

The expedition above mentioned was, however, in all respects, highly honorable to those who conducted it. The accounts separately published by Krusenstern, Lisiansky, and Langsdorf, particularly those of Krusenstern, are among the most instructive works which have appeared relating to the north Pacific and its inhabitants. They exhibit, indeed, frightful pictures of the misery endured by the persons in the service of the Russian-American Company; but they, at the same time, present instances of fortitude, perseverance, and good feeling, on the part of the Russians, calculated to counteract any unfavorable impressions which might otherwise have been formed with regard to the general character of that people.

After the return of Krusenstern's ships, representations were addressed by the Russian Government to that of the United States, with regard to the improper conduct of American citizens in trading in arms and ammunition with the natives on the coasts of the north Pacific; and endeavors were made to procure the passage by Congress of some act, or the conclusion of some convention between the two nations, by the effect of which such commerce might be prevented. These representations producing no results, Count Romanzoff, the Russian Minister of Foreign Affairs, proposed to Mr. Adams, the American Envoy at St. Petersburg, an arrangement by which the vessels of the United States should be allowed to transport furs from the Russian settlements to China, on condition that they should abstain from all

* Langsdorf, vol. ii, page 89.

1810. trade with the natives on the northwest coasts. Mr. Adams, in his answer to this proposition, desired to know—within what latitudes the restriction would be expected to be observed? and the reply being, that the Russian-American Company claimed possession of the whole coasts extending from Beering's Strait to the southward of the Columbia River, the correspondence was not continued. An arrangement conformable with the views of the
1812. Russians was, in 1812, concluded between their American company and a citizen of the United States, but circumstances prevented it from being carried into execution.

Before 1812, Sitka was the most southern portion on the western side of America occupied by the Russians. In that year they formed an establishment in California, which deserves particular notice. The chief agent, Baranoff, obtained from the Spanish Governor of Monterey permission to erect some houses, and to leave a few men on the shore of the small Bay of Bodega, near Port San Francisco, in order to procure and salt the meat of the wild cattle, which overrun that country, for the supply of the settlement at New Archangel. In the course of two or three years after this permission was granted, the number of the persons thus employed had become so great, and their dwelling-place had assumed so much the appearance of a fortress, that the Governor thought proper to remonstrate on the subject; and his representations being disregarded, he formally commanded the Russians to quit the territories of his Catholic Majesty. The command was treated with as little respect as the remonstrance; and when it was repeated, the Russian agent, Kuskoff, replied by denying the right of the Spaniards over the country, which he asserted to be vacant and open for occupation by the subjects of any civilized Power. The Governor was unable to enforce his orders: and as no assistance could be afforded to him from Mexico, which was then ravaged by civil wars, the intruders were left in undisturbed possession of the ground, where they have ever since remained, in defiance alike of the Spaniards and of their republican successors.*

The Russian-American Company, about the same period, made another effort to create a direct commercial intercourse by sea between its settlements on the Pacific and the European ports of the Empire. With this object, the American ship *Hannibal* was purchased from Mr. Astor, of New York; and her name having been changed to the *Suwarrow*, she was despatched from Saint Petersburg, in 1814, under the command of Lieutenant Lazareff, laden with goods for New Archangel. She returned in 1816 with a cargo of furs, valued at a million of dollars; and the adventure having been pronounced successful, others of the same nature were undertaken.

In 1815 Baranoff endeavored to obtain possession of Atooi, one

* The Russians have now several establishments in that part of California, of which the principal, called *Ross*, is situated immediately on the Pacific, in latitude of 38 degrees and 33 minutes, about thirty miles north of Port Bodega, or Port Romanzoff, as the Russians have named it.

of the Sandwich Islands. For that purpose about a hundred men, nearly all Aleutians, were sent in two vessels from Sitca, under the direction of Dr. Sheffer, a German, who had arrived in the Pacific as surgeon to the ship Suwarrow. They landed on the island, which they ravaged, without subduing it, for more than a year, and were then obliged to depart for Owyhee, where they entered the service of some American whalers, by whom they were finally restored to their country. The Russian Government appeared to disapprove this act of Baranoff; and no attempt has been since made by subjects of that or any other foreign nation to invade those islands.

1815.

The Government of the United States had before this period begun to assert claims to the possession of the territory drained by the Columbia river, the origin and extent of which claims will now be traced.

The discovery of the Columbia by Gray attracted very little attention in the United States for more than ten years after it had been effected. None but persons concerned in the fur trade of the north Pacific, and the curious in geographical matters, were acquainted with the fact; and no one imagined that any thing connected with that river would ever be considered important to the Americans in a political point of view. The territories of the United States were then bounded on the west by the river Mississippi, and on the north by the dominions of Great Britain; beyond the Mississippi lay the vast region called *Louisiana*, stretching from the Gulf of Mexico northward and northwestward to an undefined extent; so that all communication, except by sea, between the Federal Republic and the Pacific side of America, was completely barred by the intervention of countries belonging to foreign and rival Powers. Louisiana, originally settled by the French, had been ceded, in 1762, to Spain, which held it until October 1, 1800, and then retroceded it to France, "the same in extent," says the treaty of retrocession, "as it now is in the hands of Spain, as it was when France formerly possessed it, and as it should be, according to the treaties subsequently made between Spain and other nations."

1792
to
1800.

Under such circumstances, any claims of the United States to territories bordering upon the Pacific, would have been nominal and barren, and all attempts to realize them must have proved abortive. But the position of the Americans, and the views of their Government towards the northwestern section of the continent, were materially changed after the 30th of April, 1803, when Louisiana came into their possession by purchase from France, "with all its rights and appurtenances, as fully, and in the same manner, as it had been acquired from Spain" in 1800. Before relating the dispositions made in consequence of this cession, some observations will be necessary respecting the northern and northwestern limits of the country which thus became the property of the United States.

1803.
April 30.

The earliest attempt, either real or ostensible, to define the boundaries of Louisiana, was made by Louis XIV, in 1712, in the patent by which he granted to Antoine Crozat the exclusive

1603. trade of that country. The patent declares it to be the will of the King, that "all the territories by him possessed, bounded by New Mexico, and by the lands of the English in Carolina, and all the establishments, ports, harbors, rivers, especially the port and harbor of Dauphin Island, formerly called Massacre Island, the river Saint Louis, formerly called the Mississippi, from the seacoast to the Illinois country, together with the rivers Saint Philip, formerly called the Missouri, and the Saint Jerome, formerly called the Wabash, [the Ohio,] with all the lands, countries, lakes in the land, and the rivers falling directly or indirectly into that part of the river Saint Louis, shall be and remain comprised under the name of the Government of Louisiana, which shall be subordinate to the General Government of New France; and that all the lands by him possessed on this side of the Illinois, shall be reunited to, and form part of, the General Government of New France; the King, nevertheless, reserving to himself the privilege of increasing the extent of Louisiana, as he may judge proper." Agreeably to this exposition of its limits, Louisiana extended, in 1712, northward to about the 42d parallel of latitude, and westward to New Mexico; between which latter country and the Pacific, California intervened. What portion of the continent northward of that parallel, and west of the great lakes, the Illinois country thus attached to New France was supposed to comprehend, there are no means of ascertaining. The French maps of the early part of the last century represent as included in *New France* many rivers flowing towards the Pacific, none of which, however, exist as there described; while the Spaniards, on the other hand, regarded the whole unoccupied region northwest of New Mexico as forming part of their own *California*; and the British geographers recorded the claims of their nation to the same territory, by constantly applying to it the name of *New Albion*.

In 1713 the celebrated peace of Utrecht was concluded. In the tenth article of the treaty between Great Britain and France, "it is agreed on both sides to determine within a year, by commissaries to be forthwith named by each party, the limits which are to be fixed between the said Bay of Hudson," (then secured, with its adjacent territories, to Great Britain,) "and the places appertaining to the French: which limits both the British and French subjects shall be wholly forbid to pass over, or thereby to go to each other by sea or by land. The same commissaries shall also have orders to describe and settle, in like manner, the boundaries between the other British and French colonies in those parts." That commissaries were appointed agreeably to this provision, there is reason to believe; but there is no sufficient evidence that any boundaries were determined by them. Two distinct lines may, however, be found traced on different maps published in the last century, each purporting to be the limit between the Hudson's Bay territories on the north, and the French possessions on the south, fixed by commissaries according to the treaty of Utrecht. One of these lines follows the course, or supposed course, of the highlands which separate the waters

flowing into Hudson's Bay from those emptying into the great lakes and the Saint Lawrence. The other is drawn irregularly from the Atlantic to a point in the 49th parallel of latitude, south of the southernmost part of Hudson's Bay, and thence westward along that parallel to Red River; and in some maps still farther west. This latter line is generally considered in the United States, and has been assumed by their Government,* as the true boundary settled by the commissaries, agreeably to the treaty above mentioned; but this opinion is at variance with the most accredited authorities, as will be seen by reference to the Appendix, [E.] containing a review of all the works from which exact information could be expected.

In 1717, Crozat relinquished his exclusive privileges with regard to Louisiana; after which, the Illinois country was added to that province by a royal arrêt, and the whole territory was granted to the *Compagnie d'Orient*, generally known as Law's Mississippi Company. In 1763, France gave up to Great Britain all her possessions east of the Mississippi, except a small tract near New Orleans, having, a short time previous, ceded the remainder of Louisiana to Spain.† By these arrangements, the middle of the Mississippi, from its source, to the river Iberville, near New Orleans, became the dividing-line between the British possessions on the east and those of Spain on the western side, nothing being fixed with regard to territories north of the said source; and from that period to 1803, when Louisiana became the property of the United States, its extent towards the north or northwest could not have been affected by any treaty hitherto made public, unless by the convention of October, 1790, between Spain and Great Britain, which applied to all American territories claimed by Spain upon the Pacific, north of the 38th degree of latitude.

From the preceding review, it will be seen that history fur-

* The earliest official assertion to this effect, on the part of the Government of the United States, which has been found, is contained in the following sentence extracted from a letter addressed by Messrs. Monroe and Pinckney, at Madrid, on the 20th of April, 1805, to Don Pedro Cevallos, the Spanish Minister of State: "In conformity with the tenth article of the first-mentioned treaty, [treaty of Utrecht,] the boundary between Canada and Louisiana, on the one side, and the Hudson's Bay and Northwestern Companies on the other, was established by commissaries, by a line to commence at a cape or promontory on the ocean in 58 degrees 31 minutes north latitude; to run thence southwestwardly to latitude 49 north from the equator, and along that line indefinitely westward."

† The act by which France ceded Louisiana to Spain was signed at Fontainebleau by the French minister, the Duc de Choiseul, and the Spanish ambassador, the Marquis de Grimaldi, on the 3d of November, 1762. It was ratified by the King of Spain on the 13th of the same month, and by the King of France on the 23d. These documents were kept secret until 1836, when copies of them were obtained from the Departments of Foreign Affairs of France and Spain, by the late J. M. White, of Florida; and translations of them by the writer of this memoir were submitted to the Senate of the United States, and published by its order, in 1837. The act of cession throws no light on the question as to the limits of Louisiana. The words of the original, describing the territory ceded, are: "Sa Majesté très Chrétienne cède en toute propriété, purement et simplement, et sans aucune exception, à sa Majesté Catholique, et à ses successeurs, à perpétuité, tout le pays connu sous le nom de la Louisiane, ainsi que la Nouvelle Orléans, et l'île dans laquelle cette ville est située."

1803. nishes no means of determining what were the precise limits of Louisiana on the north or northwest, when that country came into the possession of the United States. The customs of civilized nations in such cases, however, authorize the assumption that those limits comprehended the whole region west of the Mississippi drained by that river and its tributary streams; while the same customs prohibit the supposition that any territory west of the Rocky Mountains should be considered as part of Louisiana.

Even before the cession of Louisiana to the United States had been completed, the prompt and sagacious Jefferson, then President of the Republic, was preparing to have that part of the continent examined by American agents. On the 18th of January, 1803, he addressed to the Congress of the United States a confidential message, recommending that means should be taken for that purpose without delay; and his suggestions having been approved, he commissioned Captains Meriwether Lewis and William Clarke to carry his plan into execution. Those officers were instructed to explore the river Missouri and its principal branches to their sources, and then to seek and trace to its termination in the Pacific, some stream, "whether the Columbia, the Oregon, the Colorado, or any other, which might offer the most direct and practicable water communication across the continent, for the purposes of commerce."*

A few days after the delivery of these instructions to Lewis, as commander of the expedition, the news of the cession of Louisiana reached the United States, and he immediately set off for the west. Some difficulties, however, prevented his party from crossing the Mississippi in that year; and it was not until the 14th of May, 1804, that they entered the Missouri, and began its ascent in boats. Their progress was necessarily slow; yet, before the end of October, they arrived in the country of the Mandan Indians, where they remained until the following April, encamped at a place situated sixteen hundred miles from the mouth of the Missouri. In the summer of 1805, they explored that river to its head-waters, among the Rocky Mountains, and, having crossed the great dividing-ridge, they found immediately beyond it a number of streams flowing westward. Upon one of these they embarked in canoes on the 7th of October, and were soon carried by its current into a river, which they called the *Lewis*, and which proved to be a principal branch of the Columbia. In a few days they reached the confluence of the Lewis with the other great branch named by them the *Clarke*; and on the 15th of November they landed at Cape Disappointment, or Hancock's Point, on the northern side of the entrance of the Columbia into the Pacific, after a journey of more than four thousand miles from their place of departure.

1806. The winter of 1805-'6, was passed by Lewis and Clarke, and

* These instructions may be found at length in the biographical sketch of Captain Lewis, written by Mr. Jefferson, and prefixed to the journal of the expedition, printed at Philadelphia in 1814. The message above mentioned is contained in the executive proceedings of the Senate, vol. i, page 439.

their followers, in an encampment on the south side of the Columbia, near its mouth, which they called *Fort Clatsop*. The savages, who were already accustomed to the presence of strangers, conducted themselves peaceably; and there was no want of food, such as could be procured from the river or sea. On the 13th of March, 1806, the Americans began their return to the United States, in canoes, which they rowed up the Columbia to its falls, situated about one hundred and twenty-five miles from the Pacific. Thence they continued their journey by land to the Rocky Mountains, which they crossed in two bodies by separate routes; the one under Lewis striking directly eastward to the falls of the Missouri, while the other, conducted by Clarke, made a southern march to the sources of the Yellow Stone, and descended that river to the Missouri. The parties were again united just below the point of junction of those streams, and on the 23d of September they arrived at Saint Louis.

1806.

July.

Aug. 12.

The above sketch will serve to show the general course of the expedition of Lewis and Clarke; a more extended account of which would be either insufficient or superfluous. With regard to the priority of their discoveries, the plenipotentiaries of Great Britain, in the *statement* presented by them to the American minister, during the negotiation in 1826, make the following observations:

“In reply to the allegations, on the part of the United States, that their claim to the country in question is strengthened and confirmed by the discovery of the sources of the Columbia, and by the exploration of the course of that river to the sea, by Lewis and Clarke, in 1805-’6, Great Britain affirms, and can distinctly prove, that, if not before, at least in the same and subsequent years, her Northwest Trading Company had, by means of their agent Mr. Thompson, already established their posts among the Flat-head and Kootanie tribes, on the head-waters or main branch of the Columbia, and were gradually extending them down the principal stream of that river; thus giving to Great Britain in this particular, as in the discovery of the mouth of the river, a title of parity at least, if not of priority of discovery, as opposed to the United States. It was from these posts that, having heard of the American establishment forming in 1811 at the mouth of the river, Mr. Thompson hastened thither, descending the river to ascertain the nature of that establishment.”

As the words “*in the same and subsequent years*” are rather indefinite, the dates of the occurrences above mentioned will be stated somewhat more exactly. Lewis and Clarke reached the Pacific Ocean, after exploring the Columbia River from one of its most eastern head-waters in the Rocky Mountains to its mouth, on the 15th of November, 1805. In the spring of 1806, as will hereafter be shown, Mr. Simon Frazer, and other persons in the employment of the Northwest Company, crossed the Rocky Mountains, through the great gap near the 56th degree of latitude, and established the first British trading-post west of that chain, on Frazer’s Lake, about two degrees farther south; but no evidence has been obtained that British subjects had ever visited any part

1806. of the country drained by the Columbia, above the falls of that river, before the summer of 1811. In that year, Mr. Thompson, astronomer of the Northwest Company, and his party, on their way down the stream, for the purpose of anticipating the Americans at its mouth, did build some huts on the northern branch, and did there open trade with the Flat-head and Kootanie Indians; and from those posts Mr. Thompson did indeed hasten down to the ocean, where he, however, found the citizens of the United States in full possession.

1807. Soon after the return of Lewis and Clarke, an effort was made by the Governments of the United States and Great Britain to fix the boundary between the possessions of the two Powers in America west of the Mississippi and the lakes. By the fifth article of the convention, agreed on at London in April, 1807, between Messrs. Monroe and Pinckney, on the one part, and the Lords Holland and Auckland, on the other, it was stipulated that "a line drawn due north or south (as the case may require) from the most northwestern point of the Lake of the Woods, until it shall intersect the 49th parallel of north latitude, and, from the point of such intersection, due west, along and with the said parallel, shall be the dividing-line between his Majesty's territories and those of the United States, to the westward of the said lake, as far as their said respective territories extend in that quarter; and that the said line shall, to that extent, form the southern boundary of his Majesty's said territories and the northern boundary of the said territories of the United States: *Provided*, That nothing in the present article shall be construed to extend to the northwest coast of America, or to the territories belonging to or claimed by either party on the continent of America to the westward of the Stoney Mountains." This article was approved by both Governments; President Jefferson, nevertheless, wished that the *proviso* respecting the northwest coast should be omitted, as it "could have little other effect than as an offensive intimation to Spain that the claims of the United States extend to the Pacific Ocean. However reasonable such claims may be, compared with those of others, it is impolitic, especially at the present moment, to strengthen Spanish jealousies of the United States, which it is probably an object with Great Britain to excite, by the clause in question." The convention, however, was not concluded; and no other negotiation, relative to boundaries west of the great lakes, took place between the British and American Governments until 1814.

A narrative of the expedition of Lewis and Clarke, compiled from the journals of those officers and of some of their men, was published at Philadelphia in 1814; the most material circumstances and discoveries, however, became generally known immediately after the return of the exploring party, and the information led to commercial enterprises on a large scale in the United States and in British America. Before noticing these enter-

* Letter of July 30th, 1807, from Mr. Madison, then Secretary of State of the United States, to Messrs. Monroe and Pinckney.

1897.

prises more particularly, it should be mentioned, that ever since the conclusion of the treaty of commerce and navigation of 1794, between the United States and Great Britain, a considerable trade had been carried on by Americans with the Indians inhabiting the countries about the Upper Mississippi and Lake Superior. The returns from this traffic were made exclusively in furs, which were transported to New York, and thence shipped for London or Canton; the business was conducted chiefly under the direction and by means of the funds of John Jacob Astor, a German merchant of large capital residing in New York; though many individuals in the western States and Territories of the republic were engaged in it on their own account, especially after the acquisition of Louisiana, which opened a much wider field for their exertions. Still, the greater portion of the furs sent from America were those collected by the British trading companies, which were continually extending their establishments westward, and even southward, within the supposed limits of the United States, to the annoyance of the citizens of that republic. To all these individuals and associations the discoveries of Lewis and Clarke presented new views of advantages, which each endeavored without delay to appropriate.

1806.

The British fur-traders made their first establishment beyond the Rocky Mountains in 1806. An expedition* for this purpose had been contemplated by them in the preceding year, in consequence of information respecting the views of the American Government, obtained while Lewis and Clarke were spending the winter of 1804-'5 at the Mandan town on the Mississippi; but it

* The statements in this paragraph are derived principally from D. W. Harmon's Journal of his Voyages and Travels in the northern parts of America, published at Andover, in Vermont, in 1820. Harmon was first a clerk, and afterwards a partner, in the Northwest Company, and for several years presided over all its establishments west of the Rocky Mountains. Some extracts from his journal may be here inserted.

Saturday, November 24, 1804.—Some people have just arrived from Montagne la Basse, with a letter from Mr. Chaboillez, who informs me that two captains, Clarke and Lewis, with one hundred and eighty soldiers, have arrived at the Mandan village, on the Missouri River, which place is situated about three days' distance from the residence of Mr. Chaboillez. They have invited Mr. Chaboillez to visit them. It is said that, on their arrival, they hoisted the American flag, and informed the natives that their object was not to trade, but merely to explore the country; and that, as soon as the navigation shall open, they design to continue their route across the Rocky Mountains, and thence descend to the Pacific Ocean.

Wednesday, April 10, 1805.—While at Montagne la Basse, Mr. Chaboillez induced me to consent to undertake a long and arduous tour of discovery. I am to leave that place about the beginning of June, accompanied by six or seven Canadians and two or three Indians. The first place at which we shall stop will be the Mandan village, on the Missouri River; thence we shall steer our course towards the Rocky Mountains, accompanied by a number of the Mandan Indians, who proceed in that direction every spring, to meet and trade with another tribe of Indians, who reside on the other side of the Rocky Mountains. [This journey I never undertook; a Mr. La Roche attempted to make this tour, but went no farther than the Mandan village.]

At page 281 he says: "The part of the country west of the Rocky Mountains, with which I am acquainted, has ever since the Northwest Company first made an establishment there, which was in 1806, gone by the name of New Caledonia," &c. In many parts of his work he speaks of Mr. Simon Frazer as having led the first party of traders beyond the Rocky Mountains in 1806.

A review of the work may be found in the London Quarterly Review for January, 1822.

1806. was not carried into effect until the spring of 1806, when Mr. Simon Frazer, a partner of the Northwest Company, established a trading-post on *Frazer's Lake*, near the 54th parallel, in the country since called *New Caledonia*.

The earliest attempts made by citizens of the United States, for similar purposes, were those of an association formed at St. Louis in 1808, called the *Missouri Fur Company*; at its head was an enterprising Spaniard, named Manuel Lisa, through whose exertions, chiefly, several trading-posts were, within the two ensuing years, established on the Upper Missouri, and one beyond the Rocky Mountains, on the head-waters of the Lewis, the southern branch of the Columbia. The post on the Lewis appears to have been the first ever formed by white men in the country drained by the Columbia; the enmity of the savages in its vicinity, and the difficulty of procuring a regular supply of food, however, obliged Mr. Henry, the superintendent, to abandon it in 1810.

1810. Another association, for the prosecution of the fur trade on the northwestern side of the continent, which was formed at New York in 1810, requires particular notice, as the transactions connected with it have assumed a character decidedly political. This association was called the *Pacific Fur Company*.* Its originator was John Jacob Astor, the German merchant above mentioned, on whose commercial sagacity and efficiency it would be needless to dilate. He was, in fact, the company; one-half of its shares were held, nominally at least, by other persons, but every measure was dictated by him, and carried into effect by means of his capital. His plan was to establish trading-posts on the Columbia and its branches, as well as on the Pacific coasts and the head-waters of the Missouri, which were to be supplied with the necessary articles, either by way of the latter river, or from a principal factory, to be founded at the mouth of the Columbia, whither all the furs collected at the other places were, at stated periods, to be brought. The principal factory was to receive goods by ships sent out annually from New York, which, having discharged their cargoes at the mouth of the Columbia, were to be reladen with furs for Canton, whence they would carry back to New York teas, silks, and other Chinese productions. It was also contemplated that the Russian settlements on

* The sketch of the history of the Pacific Company, which follows, has been derived from—

I. Letter from J. J. Astor to Mr. Adams, then Secretary of State, dated January 23, 1823, with documents annexed, published with President Monroe's message to Congress, of the 27th of the same month. Other letters, unpublished, from Mr. Astor, have also been examined, and many curious details have been received from him verbally.

II. Astoria, or Anecdotes of an Enterprise beyond the Rocky Mountains: by Washington Irving; compiled chiefly from the papers of Mr. Astor. The work is too well known to require farther observations respecting it.

III. Adventures on the Columbia River: by Ross Cox. The author had been employed as a clerk in the Pacific Company, which he quitted for a similar situation under the Northwest Company; his book contains many details relative to the fur trade and its establishment in the region of the Columbia.

the Pacific should be furnished by the company's vessels with such foreign articles as they required, furs being taken in exchange; and, in order to effect this more completely, as well as to prevent the occurrence of difficulties, which might otherwise be anticipated, an agent was despatched to St. Petersburg, who concluded an arrangement securing to the Pacific Company, under certain conditions, the exclusive privilege of trading with the Russian American possessions. 1810.

For the execution of these plans, Mr. Astor engaged, as partners in the concern, a number of persons, nearly all Scotchmen, who had been long in the service of the Northwest Company, together with some Americans and Canadians, who were acquainted with the fur trade. These partners were to conduct the business in the west, under the direction of a general agent, chosen by them for five years; and they were to share among themselves one half of the profits, the other half being retained by Mr. Astor, who advanced all the funds, and superintended the affairs at New York. The persons required for the inferior offices and employments having been also engaged, the first party quitted New York for the Columbia in September, 1810, in the ship *Tonquin*, commanded by Jonathan Thorne; in January following, the second detachment set out from St. Louis, on its way across the continent, under the direction of Wilson Price Hunt, of New Jersey, who had been appointed general agent by the board of partners. The ship *Enterprise*, Captain Ebbetts, had also been sent in 1809 to the North Pacific, to make preparatory researches and inquiries among the Russian settlements, and on the coasts which were to be the scenes of the new company's operations.

The *Tonquin* arrived at the mouth of the Columbia in March, 1811; and, her goods and passengers having been there landed, she sailed towards the north in search of furs. Before her departure, a spot was chosen on the south bank of the river, eight miles from the ocean, as the site of the principal factory, which, in compliment to the originator of the enterprise, was named *Astoria*. In the course of the ensuing summer, the most essential buildings were erected, gardens were planted, trade was begun with the natives, a small vessel was built and launched, and every thing appeared to promise success to the establishment. 1811. March 23.

In July a detachment of persons in the service of the North-west Company arrived at Astoria, under the direction of Mr. Thompson, the astronomer of that association, who had left Montreal in the previous year, with the object of anticipating the new company in occupying the mouth of the Columbia. On their way down, they built huts and hoisted flags, and bestowed names on various spots, by way of *taking possession*, as they considered it, of the territory for their sovereign. They, however, arrived too late at the most important point; and were obliged to retrace their course to the northward, having been received and treated with great attention at the factory by their old friends, Messrs. McDougall, Mackay, and Stuart, the partners of the Pacific Company, then directing its affairs in the west. From the in- July.

1811. formation which has been obtained, it appears to be certain that by this party were established the first British trading-posts on the Columbia; and that they were, indeed, the first white men who ever navigated the northern branch of that river.

In the course of this summer, also, several trading-posts were established by the Pacific Fur Company in the interior of the country; of which, the principal was one situated at the confluence of a river, called the Okanagan, with the Columbia, about four hundred miles from the mouth of the latter. During the winter which followed, the people of Astoria were subjected to many discomforts, but nothing occurred calculated to lessen their hopes as to the ultimate success of the undertaking.

Meanwhile, the other party of the Pacific Company's men, proceeding from St. Louis, under Mr. Hunt, ascended the Missouri, to the country of the Arickara Indians, near the Great Bend of the river, and thence pursued their journey by land to the Rocky Mountains. After passing this ridge, near the 45th degree of latitude, they descended one of the branches of the Lewis, (probably that now called *Salmon River*.) to the Columbia, and reached Astoria in the spring of 1812, having undergone innumerable difficulties from cold, fatigue, and want of food. Scarcely had they arrived at the factory, when news was received of the destruction of the ship *Tonquin* and her whole crew, with the exception of the Indian interpreter, at one of the inlets near Nootka Sound; the crew were overpowered by the savages, who killed the greater part of them immediately, and the vessel was then blown up by the clerk and others who had taken refuge in the hold. This disaster was calculated to depress the hopes of the persons engaged in the enterprise; their courage, however, appears to have been undiminished, and they pursued their labors diligently, being confident that the company (that is to say, Mr. Astor) could bear much heavier pecuniary losses without injury to its credit.

1812. In May, 1812, the Astorians were still farther encouraged, by
May 9. the arrival of the ship *Beaver* from New York with supplies and reinforcements; and it was determined (unfortunately for the cause, as will afterwards appear) that Mr. Hunt should sail in her to the northern coasts, and visit the Russian settlements, in order to see what commercial intercourse could be carried on with them. He accordingly took his departure in that vessel in

Aug. August, leaving the affairs of the factory under the direction of Mr. Duncan McDougall, one of the Scotch partners, who had been so long in the service of the Northwest Company.

1813. In January, 1813, the news of the declaration of war by the
January. United States against Great Britain reached Astoria, where it was brought by persons sent for the purpose from New York; and, in the course of June following, Mr. McTavish, one of the partners of the Northwest Company, arrived at the factory from Canada, bringing rumors of the approach of a British naval force to take possession of the mouth of the Columbia. These announcements appear to have been received with satisfaction by Mr. McDougall and his brother Britons, three of whom (including

Ross Cox, the author of *Six Years on the Columbia*) immediately quitted the service of the Pacific Company, and entered that of the rival association; while the others almost unanimously agreed to abandon the enterprise, unless they should speedily receive assistance and supplies from New York. 1813.

From New York, however, nothing came. The ship *Lark* had been despatched by Mr. Astor with articles and men for Astoria; but she was wrecked near the coast of one of the Sandwich Islands, in the latter part of 1813. The Government of the United States had also determined, in consequence of Mr. Astor's representations, to send the frigate *Adams* to the north Pacific, for the protection of the infant settlement; but, just as she was about to sail from New York, it became necessary to transfer her crew to Lake Ontario, and the blockade of the American ports by British fleets rendered all farther efforts to convey succors to Astoria unavailing.

Soon after the partners of the Pacific Company had formed the resolution, as above mentioned, to abandon the concern unless they should receive assistance, Mr. Hunt, the chief agent, returned to Astoria in the ship *Albatross*. He had spent the summer of 1812 in visiting the Russian settlements at Sitka, Unalashka, and Kodiak, and had collected a valuable cargo of furs, which were carried to Canton in the *Beaver*. Hunt, however, accompanied that ship no farther than to the Sandwich Islands, where he was informed of the war between the United States and Great Britain; and, being anxious to convey the news without delay to Astoria, he chartered the ship *Albatross* of Boston, which was then lying at Wahoo, and proceeded in her to the Columbia. He was at first astounded at the resolution adopted by the other partners, but he was at length induced to concur with them as to its propriety; and, after remaining a few days, he again sailed to the south Pacific, in the *Albatross*, for the purpose of finding some ship to convey the furs, then stored in the factory, to Canton. Aug. 20.

At Nooahevah, (one of the Washington Islands, discovered by Ingraham in 1791,) he learned that a British squadron, under Commodore Hillyer, was on its way to the Pacific, in order to occupy the mouth of the Columbia; upon receiving this news, he hastened to the Sandwich Islands, and, having there chartered the American brig *Pedlar*, he sailed in her for Astoria, where he arrived on the 28th of February, 1814. Aug. 26.

The fate of the Pacific Company, and of its establishments in Northwest America, had, however, been decided ere the arrival of the *Pedlar* in the Columbia. Nov.

On the 7th of October a body of men in the service of the Northwest Company came down the river to Astoria, under the direction of Messrs. McTavish and Stuart. They arrived without either ammunition or provisions, while the people of the factory, who nearly equalled them in number, were well supplied in every respect, and their fortifications and heavy guns would have enabled them to withstand any attacks which might have been anticipated under ordinary circumstances. The new comers, however, brought information, upon which the partners Oct. 7.

1813. at Astoria could depend, and which proved to be perfectly correct, that a large armed ship, the *Isaac Todd*, had been fitted out at London, by the Northwest Company, and was on her way to the Columbia, under convoy of a frigate, *with the object of taking and destroying every thing American* in that quarter. Messrs. McTavish and Stuart, on communicating this news, to which they added accounts of the complete blockade of the coasts of the United States by British squadrons, at the same time proposed to purchase the whole of the establishments, furs, and other property of the Pacific Company, in the territory of the Columbia, at prices to be fixed by common consent; they also offered to engage in the service of the Northwest Company any of the persons attached to the American concern, at the same wages which they were then receiving, and to send back to the United States such as might not choose to be thus employed. To these propositions the partners at Astoria resolved to assent; and an agreement was accordingly signed, between them and the chiefs of the other party, on the 16th of the month, by which "*all the establishments, furs, and property,*" above mentioned, were sold to the Northwest Company, for about forty thousand dollars, given in the shape of bills on Montreal.*

The business appears to have been managed, on the side of the Pacific Company, almost entirely by Mr. McDougall, whose conduct on many occasions, during the transaction, as well as afterwards, was such as to induce suspicions that he was actuated by improper motives of self-interest. It is, however, difficult to determine what other course ought to have been pursued by him and the other partners, under existing circumstances. They might, indeed, have held out their stockaded fort against the enemy, or have effected a retreat with their property to some place in the interior; but this would have been to no purpose, while they could expect neither to receive supplies of goods for trading from the United States, nor to send their furs for sale to Canton. Mr. Astor declares that he would have preferred the loss of the place and property by a fair capture to a sale which he considered disgraceful; and those who know him well are convinced that he speaks as he feels. But mercantile men are, in general, supposed to consider discretion among their agents as the better part of valor; and McDougall may have reasonably considered himself bound to act rather for the interests than for the glory of the Pacific Company.

- Dec. 1. While the business of the transfer of the furs and merchandise at Astoria was in progress, the British sloop of war *Raccoon* entered the Columbia, under the command of Captain Black, who had hastened thither in hope of securing a rich share of plunder by the capture of the fort and magazines of the Pacific Company. He found the flag of the United States waving over the

* This contract may be found at length in the American State Papers, edited by Lowrie and Franklin, (Miscellaneous,) vol. ii, page 1011. The fourth article contains a complete list of all "*the establishments, furs, and stock on hand,*" with their respective valuation; the *buildings* are valued at £200.

factory, which was surrendered, immediately on his appearance, by the chief agent McDougall; but the furs and goods which were to reward himself and his crew for their exertions, had become the property of their own fellow-subjects, and were then floating up the river in the barges of the Northwest Company. The captain of the *Raccoon* could, therefore, only lower the flag of the United States, and hoist that of Britain over the factory, the name of which he at the same time, and with *due solemnity*, changed to Fort George. These duties being completed, he took his departure for the south.*

Three months afterwards, (that is, on the 28th of February, 1814,) Mr. Hunt† arrived at the Columbia in the brig *Pedlar*, which he had, as already stated, chartered for the purpose of conveying the property of the Pacific Company to Canton. He found Mr. McDougall in charge of the factory, not, however, as an agent of that company, but as a partner of the Northwest Company, into which he had been already admitted; and Hunt

1813.

Dec. 12.

1814.
Feb. 28.

* It will be interesting, if not useful, here to insert the account of the capture of Astoria, as related by Ross Cox, who received his information at the place, shortly after the event.

"Captain Black took possession of Astoria in the name of his Britannic Majesty, and rebaptized it by the name of 'Fort George.' He also insisted on having an inventory taken of the valuable stock of furs, and all other property purchased from the American company, with a view to the adoption of ulterior proceedings in England for the recovery of the value from the Northwest Company; but he subsequently relinquished this idea, and we heard no more about his claims. The Indians at the mouth of the Columbia knew well that Great Britain and America were distinct nations, and that they were then at war, but were ignorant of the arrangement made between Messrs. McDougall and McI'Avish, the former of whom still continued as nominal chief at the fort. On the arrival of the *Raccoon*, which they quickly discovered to be one of 'King George's fighting ships,' they repaired armed to the fort, and requested an audience of Mr. M. Dougall. He was somewhat surprised at their numbers and warlike appearance, and demanded the object of such an unusual visit. Comcomy, the principal chief of the Chinooks, (whose daughter McDougall had married,) thereupon addressed him in a long speech; in the course of which he said that King George had sent a ship full of warriors, and loaded with nothing but big guns, to take the Americans and make them all slaves, and that, as they (the Americans) were the first white men who settled in their country, and treated the Indians like good relations, they had resolved to defend them from King George's warriors, and were now ready to conceal themselves in the woods close to the wharf, from whence they would be able with their guns and arrows to shoot all the men that should attempt to land from the English boats, while the people in the fort could fire at them with their big guns and rifles. This proposition was uttered with an earnestness of manner that admitted no doubt of its sincerity; two armed boats from the *Raccoon* were approaching, and, had the people in the fort felt disposed to accede to the wishes of the Indians, every man in them would have been destroyed by an invisible enemy. Mr. McDougall thanked them for their friendly offer; but added, that notwithstanding the nations were at war, the people in the boats would not injure him or any of his people, and, therefore, requested them to throw by their war shirts and arms, and receive the strangers as their friends. They at first seemed astonished at this answer; but, on assuring them in the most positive manner that he was under no apprehensions, they consented to give up their weapons for a few days. They afterwards declared they were sorry for having complied with Mr. McDougall's wishes; for when they observed Captain Black, surrounded by his officers and marines, break the bottle of port on the flag staff, and hoist the British ensign after changing the name of the fort, they remarked that, however we might wish to conceal the fact, the Americans were undoubtedly made slaves; and they were not convinced of their mistake until the sloop of war had departed without taking any prisoners."

† Mr. Hunt is now the postmaster at St. Louis.

1814. had, therefore, merely to close the concerns of the former association in that part of America, and to receive the bills given in payment for its effects. Having done this, he re-embarked in the *Pedlar*; and, taking with him three of his former companions in trade, he sailed for the United States, by way of Canton. Of the other persons who had been connected with this enterprise, some engaged in the service of the Northwest Company, and some returned across the continent to the United States.

Such was the termination of the Astoria enterprise, for no attempt has been since made by the Pacific Company, or by any of its members, to form a trading establishment on the northwest coast of America. The scheme was most wisely projected, and its failure can scarcely be attributed to any circumstances, the occurrence of which might have been anticipated when its execution was begun. That ships might be lost at sea, and that the adventurers might suffer from cold, or hunger, or the attacks of savages—casualties such as those were to be expected, and provision was made against them; but in 1810, when the *Tonquin* sailed from New York, no one anticipated that before the end of two years the United States would have been at war with the most powerful maritime nation in the world. The war traversed every part of the plan. Communications between the ports of the United States and the Columbia by sea, were rendered difficult and uncertain; while those by land were of little advantage, and were liable to interruption by the Northwest Company; besides which, the furs could no longer be transported with safety to Canton. Moreover, all the most active and skilful persons in the employment of the Pacific Company, except Mr. Hunt, were British subjects, whose feelings of attachment for their native land and its cause naturally rendered them discontented, when they were thus placed, in a manner, conspicuously among the ranks of its enemies. If Mr. Astor may be considered as having acted imprudently in any part of his arrangement, it was certainly in engaging so large a proportion of persons unconnected with the United States by birth, citizenship, or feelings, in the formation of establishments which were so essentially American in character and objects. That those establishments should have fallen, must be a subject of regret to every American, as there can be little if any doubt that, had they been maintained until the termination of the war, the enterprise would have succeeded, and the whole region drained by the Columbia would now be in the quiet and undisputed possession of the people of the United States.

CHAPTER IX.

Restoration of the settlement at the mouth of the Columbia to the United States, agreeably to the treaty of Ghent, and subsequent assertions of the British Government with regard to that act—Convention of October, 1818, between Great Britain and the United States, relative to the countries west of the Rocky Mountains—Florida treaty between Spain and the United States, concluded in 1819—Remarks on the convention of 1790—Proceedings in the Congress of the United States relative to the northwest coasts, in the year 1820 and in subsequent years—Measures adopted by Great Britain with regard to those territories, in 1821—Act of Parliament establishing jurisdiction of British courts throughout the Indian countries of North America—Coalition of the Hudson's Bay and the Northwest Companies—Decree of the Russian Emperor in 1821, and negotiations between the Governments of the United States, Great Britain, and Russia, for the settlement of their several claims—Conventions of 1824 between Russia and the United States, and of 1825 between Russia and Great Britain—Renewal, in 1827, of the convention of 1818 between Great Britain and the United States—Negotiation between the American and the Russian Governments relative to the renewal of the fourth article of the convention of 1824.

THE capture of Astoria was not known to the plenipotentiaries of the United States at Ghent, when they signed the treaty of December 24, 1814. That treaty contained no allusion to boundaries west of the Lake of the Woods; the subject, however, had been discussed during the negotiation, and the American ministers were instructed by their Government to consent to no claim on the part of Great Britain to the post at the mouth of the Columbia, or to any other territory south of the line forming the northern boundary of the United States, which was considered as running along the 49th parallel of latitude. The representatives of the Republic at Ghent accordingly proposed that the said parallel should form the dividing-line between the British territories on the north and those of the United States on the south, to the westward of the Lake of the Woods, "as far as the said respective territories extend in that quarter: *Provided*, That nothing in the present article shall be construed to extend to the northwest coast of America, or to the territories belonging to, or claimed by, either party on the continent of America, to the westward of the Stoney Mountains." The British accepted the proposition; but they insisted on adding to it a stipulation, that their subjects should at all times have access through the territories of the United States to the Mississippi, and the right of navigating that river; which being rejected by the Americans, the subject of boundaries west of the Lake of the Woods was dropped.

1814.

* By the first article of the treaty of Ghent, it was nevertheless agreed, "that all territory, places, and possessions whatsoever,

* See President Monroe's message to Congress of April 11, 1815, with the documents annexed; also, the *statement* presented by the British ministers at London to Mr. Gallatin, on the 26th of December, 1826, among the documents accompanying President Adams's message to the House of Representatives of March 15, 1828.

1815. *taken by either party from the other during or after the war;* except certain islands in the Atlantic claimed by both, "*should be restored without delay;*" and Mr. Monroe, then Secretary of State of the United States, accordingly announced to the British chargé d'affaires at Washington, in July, 1815, the intention of the President to cause the post at the mouth of the Columbia to be re-occupied immediately. No measure for that purpose was, however, taken until the latter part of 1817, when Mr. J. B. Prevost and Captain J. Biddle, the commander of the sloop of war Ontario, were jointly commissioned to proceed to the mouth of the Columbia, and there to assert the claim of the United States to the sovereignty of the country, in a friendly and peaceful manner, and without the employment of force. Mr. Astor had, in the mean time, made several applications to the Government for its aid towards the re-establishment of his factories in that quarter; and it was chiefly in consequence of his solicitations that these measures were adopted.
- The Ontario sailed from New York for the Pacific on the 4th of October, 1817, under the command of Captain Biddle, carrying out also the other commissioner, Mr. Prevost. In the following month Mr. Bagot, the British envoy at Washington, addressed to the Secretary of State some inquiries respecting the destination of that ship, and the objects of her voyage; and having been informed on those points, he, in a succeeding communication, remonstrated against any attempt by the United States to occupy the country adjacent to the Columbia, contending that the whole region belonged to Great Britain, "having been early taken possession of in his Majesty's name, and been ever since considered as part of his Majesty's dominions;" and that the establishment there made by American citizens had been voluntarily abandoned, "under an agreement with the Northwest Company, which had purchased their effects, and had ever since retained peaceable possession of the coast."
- Nov. 26. 1818. As soon as the news of the departure of the Ontario and of the objects of her voyage reached London, Lord Bathurst, the British Secretary for the Colonial Department, despatched an order to the agents of the Northwest Company at the mouth of the Columbia, directing them to give due facility for the re-occupation of that settlement by the officers of the United States, in pursuance of the first article of the treaty of Ghent; and a similar order was sent from the Admiralty to the commander of the British naval forces in the Pacific. About the same time, Lord Castlereagh proposed to Mr. Rush, the American envoy at London, that the question respecting the possession of the post on the Columbia should be referred to commissioners. To this Mr. Rush objected, on the simple grounds that the spot was in the possession of the United States before the war, and that it fell by belligerent capture into the hands of Great Britain during the war; which facts being notorious, there could be no doubt that it should be restored agreeably to the treaty. Lord Castlereagh, upon this, admitted the full right of the Americans to be reinstated, and to be the party in possession while treating of the title; although he
- Jan. 26. Feb. 1.

expressed his regret at the manner adopted by the United States ^{1818.} to obtain the restitution, which he feared might occasion some dif- ^{February.} ficulty. Mr. Rush assured him that the intentions of the American Government were in every respect amicable, and that particular care had been taken to avoid all cause of ill feeling.

* The Ontario entered the Pacific early in 1818; and it was agreed between the two commissioners, that Captain Biddle should proceed in her to the Columbia, and take possession of the territory, while Mr. Prevost should remain in Chili to attend to some other business. Conformably with this arrangement, Biddle sailed to the Columbia, which he entered in August; and on the 19th of that month he, without any opposition, displayed the flag of the United States, and asserted their claims to the river and the surrounding territory; after which ceremonies, he returned to the South Pacific.

In the mean time Commodore Bowles, commanding the British naval forces in the river of La Plata, received an order from his Government to aid in the surrender of the post on the Columbia to any American officer who might be commissioned to receive it. This order was transmitted, with directions to see it executed, to Captain Sheriff, the senior officer of the British ships in the Pacific, who detached Captain F. Hickey in the frigate Blossom for that purpose; and the latter gentleman, meeting Mr. Prevost at Valparaiso, offered him a passage to the northwest coast, with the object of effecting the proposed transfer. The American commissioner accepted the offer, and embarked in the Blossom in August. On the 1st of October the ship entered the Columbia; and on the 6th, the settlement of Fort George, or Astoria, was surrendered to Mr. Prevost, in due form, by Captain Hickey, and James Keith, the superintendent for the Northwest Company at this place. July.

That no reservation of rights on the part of Great Britain was made on this occasion, the following copies of the acts of delivery and acceptance, the only documents which passed, will fully show. The act of delivery is as follows:

"In obedience to the commands of his Royal Highness the Prince Regent, signified in a despatch from the right honorable the Earl Bathurst, addressed to the partners or agents of the Northwest Company, bearing date the 27th of January, 1818, and in obedience to a subsequent order, dated the 26th of July, from W. H. Sheriff, Esq., captain of his Majesty's ship *Andromache*, we, the undersigned, do, in conformity to the first article of the treaty of Ghent, restore to the Government of the United States, through its agent, J. B. Prevost, Esq., the settlement of Fort George, on the Columbia River. Given under our hands, in triplicate, at Fort George, (Columbia River,) this 6th day of October, 1818.—F. HICKEY, *Captain of his Majesty's ship Blossom.*

J. KEITH, *of the Northwest Company.*"

* The following account of the restoration of the settlement at the mouth of the Columbia to the United States, is taken from Mr. Prevost's letter to the Secretary of State, written from Monterey, November 11, 1818, and published with President Monroe's message to Congress of April 17, 1822.

1818. To which Mr. Prevost returned this acceptance :

"I do hereby acknowledge to have this day received, in behalf of the Government of the United States, the possession of the settlement designated above, in conformity to the first article of the treaty of Ghent. Given under my hand, in triplicate, at Fort George, (Columbia River,) this 6th of October, 1818.

"J. B. PREVOST, *Agent for the United States.*"

It was nevertheless maintained by the British plenipotentiaries at London, in 1826, during the negotiation between their Government and that of the United States relative to the northwest territories—that the restitution of Astoria could not have been demanded as a right by the Americans, agreeably to the treaty of Ghent, because the place was not a national possession, nor a military post, and it was not taken during war; but that, in order to prevent any imputation on the good faith of Great Britain, the most liberal extension had been given to the terms of the treaty; and, in 1818, the purchase which the British company had made in 1813, was restored to the United States; but that particular care was taken, on the occasion of this restitution, to prevent any misapprehension as to the extent of the concession. Whether or not Astoria were a *national possession*, according to the rules of civilized nations in general, it is unnecessary to inquire, as there can be no doubt that it was such, agreeably to the principles always supported by Great Britain. In proof of this, nothing more is necessary than to repeat, that the chief cause of the dispute between that Power and Spain, in 1790, was the occupation by Spain of a territory on the northwest coast, which was supposed to have previously become the property of British subjects. Whether the establishment of the Columbia were a *military post*, or not, was of no consequence, as the treaty provided for the restoration of "*all territory, places, and possessions, whatever, taken by either party from the other during the war;*" and that the said establishment was so *taken* by the British from the Americans, has been already sufficiently shown. The flag of the United States was flying over the fort at Astoria, on the 12th of December, 1813, when the British ship *Raccoon* appeared in the Columbia; and it was hauled down by the commander of that vessel, after the surrender of the place by the chief agent, McDougall. The sale of the effects of the Pacific Fur Company to the British traders, at a moment when an overpowering force was daily expected, cannot be, in justice, regarded in any other light than as a *capitulation*, such as are frequently made during war, for the purpose of preserving lives or property, which might otherwise be destroyed. Circumstances precisely similar might have occurred, if Astoria had been situated in Virginia or Maine; but would the British have been thereby justified in retaining the sovereignty of the place?

In proof of the assertion that particular care had been taken on the occasion of this restitution "to prevent any misapprehension as to the extent of the concession made by Great Britain," the British plenipotentiaries cited—first, a despatch from Lord Castle-

reach to the British envoy at Washington, dated February 4, 1818, 1818.
 in which he says: "You will observe, that whilst this Govern-
 ment is not disposed to contest with the American Government
 the point of possession, as it stood in the Columbia River, at the
 moment of the rupture, they are not prepared to admit the valid-
 ity of the title of the Government of the United States to this set-
 tlement. In signifying, therefore, to Mr. Adams the full acqui-
 escence of your Government in the re-occupation of the limited
 position which the United States held in that river at the break-
 ing out of the war, you will, at the same time, assert in suitable
 terms the claim of Great Britain to that territory, upon which the
 American settlement must be considered an encroachment."

The plenipotentiaries add, that "this instruction was executed
 verbally by the person to whom it was addressed;" and they next
 cite the despatch from Earl Bathurst to the partners or agents of
 the Northwest Company, mentioned in the act of delivery, of
 which the following copy is taken from their statement:

"DOWNING STREET, *January 27, 1818.*

"Intelligence having been received that the United States
 sloop of war Ontario has been sent by the American Government
 to establish a settlement on the Columbia River, which was held
 by that State on the breaking out of the last war, I am to acquaint
 you that it is the Prince Regent's pleasure, (without, however,
 admitting the right of that Government to the possession in ques-
 tion,) that, in pursuance of the first article of the treaty of Ghent,
 the facility should be given to the re-occupation of the said set-
 tlement by the officers of the United States; and I am to desire
 that you would contribute, as much as lies in your power, to the
 execution of his Royal Highness's commands. I have, &c. &c.
 "BATHURST."

"The above documents," conclude the plenipotentiaries, with
 reference to the two despatches and the act of delivery, which
 are simply inserted as above in their statement, without remark,
 "put the case of the restoration of Fort Astoria in too clear a
 light to require farther observation;" and certainly nothing more
 appears to be wanting, in order "to prevent any misapprehension
 as to the extent of the concession made by Great Britain." The
 only communication received by the American agent on the oc-
 casion of the surrender of the post, is explicit: "We, the under-
 signed, do, in conformity to the first article of the treaty of Ghent,
 restore to the Government of the United States the settlement of
 Fort George, on the Columbia." The restoration is made posi-
 tively and unconditionally, by persons duly commissioned, in
 obedience to the command of the head of the British nation; and
 the meaning of this public act cannot be affected by any private
 communications which the British ministers may have addressed
 to their own agents. With those private despatches the United
 States have no concern; and the attempt to represent them as
 reservations of right on the part of Great Britain to the very ter-
 ritory which she was then restoring to the United States in pur-
 suance of a treaty, is alike at variance with the common sense

1818. and the common morals of the day. No arguments are required to show that, if such reservations were allowable, all engagements would be nugatory, and all faith at an end. With regard to the protest said to have been conveyed *verbally* by the British envoy at Washington to the American Secretary of State, Mr. Gallatin justly observed, in his reply, that "it is not declared how the communication was received, nor whether the Government of the United States consented to accept the restitution with the reservation." It is, moreover, by no means consonant with the customs of civilized nations, at present, to treat *verbally* on points so important as those of territorial sovereignty; or to consider as sufficient, protests and exceptions made in that manner, and adduced long afterwards, without acknowledgment or evidence from the party to which they are said to have been addressed.

Immediately after the completion of this transfer, Mr. Keith, the agent of the factory, presented a letter to Mr. Prevost, containing inquiries—whether the Government of the United States would insist upon the relinquishment of Fort George to any American citizens, before the final decision of the question as to the sovereignty of the territory; and whether, in the event of such decision being in favor of the United States, their Government would indemnify the company for any extension of business, or ameliorations, which might in the *interim* be made. Mr. Prevost, having no instructions on those points, could only reply as he did, to the effect that his Government would doubtless, in any event, satisfy such claims on the part of the Northwest Company as should be justified by the usages of nations.*

While these measures for the restitution of Astoria were in progress,† a negotiation was carried on at London between the British and American Governments, one of the objects of which was to settle definitively the boundaries west of the Lake of the Woods, left undetermined by the treaty of Ghent. Messrs. Rush and Gallatin, the plenipotentiaries of the United States, proposed that the dividing-line should be drawn from the northwestern extremity of that lake (north or south, as the case might be) to the 49th parallel of latitude, and from the point of intersection westward to the Pacific; it being expressed, that the agreement was intended only for the parties themselves, without reference or prejudice to the claims of any other Power. To this Messrs. Goulburn and Robinson, the British commissioners, would consent only in part; and they endeavored to annex the condition, that British subjects should have access to the Mississippi, (the

* Agreeably to the plan and description of Fort George, sent by Mr. Prevost to the Department of State, but not published with his letter, the factory consisted (in 1818) of a stockade, enclosing a parallelogram of one hundred and fifty feet by two hundred and fifty feet, extending, in its greatest length, from northwest to southeast. Within this enclosure were all the buildings attached to the establishment, such as dwelling-houses, stores, mechanics' shops, &c. On the fort were mounted two 18-pounders, four 4-pounders, two 6-pound cohorns, and seven swivels. The number of persons belonging to the factory, besides a few women and children, was sixty-five; of whom twenty-three were whites, twenty-six Sandwich Islanders, and the remainder persons of mixed blood from Canada.

† President Monroe's message of December 29, 1818, and accompanying documents.

sources of which lie south of the said parallel,) and the liberty of navigating that river to the sea. The Americans having, however, positively refused to subscribe to such a condition, it was not pressed farther; and an article was agreed on, by which the 49th parallel was fixed as the dividing-line, from the Lake of the Woods, or the meridian of its northwest extremity, to the Rocky Mountains. 1818.

The claims of the respective nations to territories bordering on the Pacific were then discussed separately. Messrs. Rush and Gallatin cited, in support of those of the United States, the facts of the discovery of the Columbia, of its first exploration from its source to the ocean, and of the formation of the first establishments in the country through which it flows, by American citizens; they "did not assert that the United States had a perfect right to this country," but they "insisted that their claim was at least good against Great Britain." Messrs. Goulburn and Robinson, on the other hand, affirmed that the discoveries of British navigators, especially those of Cook, and purchases made from the natives south of the Columbia, (when and by whom they did not state,) had given to Great Britain claims in that part of America superior to any which could be deduced from the alleged discoveries and establishments of citizens of the United States; "they made no formal proposition for a boundary, but intimated that the Columbia was the most convenient that could be adopted; and they would agree to none which did not give them the harbor at the mouth of that river, in common with the United States." As the pretensions of the parties were more fully developed, it became more probable that they would not agree upon any arrangement for the partition of the country west of the Rocky Mountains; and it was at length determined—that all territories claimed by the United States or by Great Britain, between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific, should, with their harbors, bays, and rivers, be free and open for ten years to the vessels, subjects, or citizens of both nations; it being, at the same time, expressly understood that the said agreement was not to be construed to affect or prejudice the claims of either party, or of any other Power, to any portion of those territories. Oct.

This compromise was, perhaps, the wisest which could have been made at the time, considering that neither of the parties had, or pretended to have, a perfect title to any portion of the territories in question, and there was then no probability that an arrangement would be effected respecting those territories between either, and the third or principal claimant, Spain. The convention could not have been considered unfavorable to the United States, as the British Government had previously given orders for the restoration of the important post at the mouth of the Columbia, which had been taken from their citizens during the war. There was every reason to suppose that this post would be immediately

* See the second and third articles of the convention of 1818 between the United States and Great Britain, in the Laws and in the Diplomatic Code of the United States; and in the Appendix [F] to this memoir.

1818. re-occupied by those to whom it belonged, and that the power and population of the Americans in the northwest side of the continent would thenceforth be constantly increasing.

With regard to the assertion by the British commissioners of claims of Great Britain, founded on discoveries and purchases of her subjects on the northwest coasts, it is scarcely necessary to repeat, that neither Cook nor any other British navigator discovered any part of those coasts south of the 49th degree of latitude, the Spaniards having explored them all before they were seen by the people of any other civilized nation. Nor does history furnish accounts of any acquisition of territory from the natives in that quarter by British subjects, except in the case of Drake, whose acceptance of the "crown, sceptre, and dignity" of the country about Port San Francisco, in 1579, the commissioners could not have intended to urge seriously, in 1818, as the basis of a claim to the possession of the region drained by the Columbia.

The Government of the United States was, in the same year, engaged in a negotiation with that of Spain, in which the question of territorial limits on the northwest side of America was also discussed. Upon this subject the Spanish minister, Don Luis de Onis, began by declaring that "the right and dominion of the Crown of Spain to the northwest coast of America, as high as the Californias, is certain and indisputable; the Spaniards having explored it as far as the 47th degree, in the expedition under Juan de Fuca, in 1592, and in that under Admiral Fonté, to the 55th degree, in 1640. The dominion of Spain in these vast regions being thus established, and her rights of discovery, conquest, and possession being never disputed, she could scarcely possess a property founded on more respectable principles, whether of the law of nations, of public law, or of any others which serve as a basis to such acquisitions as compose all the independent kingdoms and states of the earth."* On these assertions, (each of which was calculated to excite a smile,) the American Secretary of State, Mr. J. Q. Adams, who conducted the negotiation on the part of his Government, did not think proper to offer any remarks; and the origin, extent, and value of the claims of Spain to territories in Northwest America, remained unquestioned during the discussion.

1819.
Feb. 22.

This negotiation was soon broken off; it was, however, renewed in October, 1818, after the conclusion of the convention between the United States and Great Britain; and it was terminated on the 22d of February, 1819, by the signature of a treaty generally called the *Florida Treaty*,† in which the southern and southwestern limits of the United States were definitively fixed. The Spaniards ceded Florida to the Americans, who, at the same time, relinquished all pretensions to the country west of the river Sabine; and it was agreed that a line drawn from the source of

* See message and documents sent by President Monroe to Congress, February 22, 1819.

† See the third article of the Florida Treaty, in the Laws and the Diplomatic Code of the United States, and in the Appendix [F] to this memoir.

the river Arkansas, north or south, as the case might be, to the 42d parallel of latitude, and thence along that parallel westward to the Pacific, should form the northern boundary of the Spanish possessions, and the southern boundary of those of the United States on the western side of the continent—"his Catholic Majesty ceding to the United States all his rights, claims, and pretensions to any territories north of the said line." The American plenipotentiary proposed the 41st parallel as the boundary; but the Spaniards refused to admit it, fearing, no doubt, that a portion of the Rio del Norte, or the Colorado, or of some other river flowing through their dominions, might thus be included within the limits of the United States, whose citizens would not fail in such case to claim the right of navigating the stream to the sea. The most natural and convenient boundary would have been a line drawn along the summits of the *Snowy Mountains*, which extend in a continuous chain from a point in the Rocky Mountains, near the 43d degree of latitude, westward to the Pacific, where they terminate at Cape Mendocino, near the 40th degree.

1819.

Before proceeding farther, it will be proper to inquire into the nature and value of the claims thus ceded by Spain to the United States; for which purpose it will be requisite to look back to the convention of 1790 between the former Power and Great Britain.

On analysing the convention of 1790, it will be found that—

The *first* and *second* articles consist of engagements for the immediate performance of certain specified acts, by one or both of the parties, as the case might require; which acts were duly performed.

The *third* article is a declaration of rights, admitted to be equally possessed by both parties, to navigate and fish in the Pacific and Southern Oceans; and to trade with the natives, or to make settlements on the coasts of those seas in places not previously occupied.

The *fourth*, *fifth*, and *sixth* articles are devoted to the exposition of certain limitations and restrictions with regard to the exercise of those rights, which the parties mutually consent to observe, for the sake of peace and good understanding between themselves, without reference to any other nation.

The two remaining articles contain engagements respecting the ratification of the agreement, and the mode of proceeding to be observed by each party in case of infraction by the officers of the other.

Nothing is expressed with regard to the *period* during which the stipulations are to remain in force. Whether either of the parties could have withdrawn from them during peace, without a breach of good faith, it is needless here to inquire; but there can be no doubt that the restrictions and limitations would cease on the breaking out of war between the two countries, and that they could not be considered as again in force until after a formal renewal of the engagement. Spain declared war against Great Britain in October, 1796; and, since that period, the only arrangement which has been made between those Powers for the renewal of former agreements is contained in the *first* of the two

1819. additional articles to the treaty of Madrid, of July 5, 1814. That article is as follows: "It is agreed, that during the negotiation of a new treaty of commerce, Great Britain shall be admitted to trade with Spain, upon the same conditions as those which existed previously to 1796; all the treaties of commerce which at that period subsisted between the two nations being hereby ratified and confirmed." That this article related *only to treaties of commerce, and between Great Britain and Spain only*, without reference to the possessions of either party out of Europe, is clear; for, in the first place, no commerce had ever been allowed by treaty, between either party or its colonies and the colonies of the other; and, secondly, another article in the same treaty of Madrid provides, that "in the event of the commerce of the Spanish American colonies being opened to foreign nations, his Catholic Majesty promises that Great Britain shall be admitted to trade with those possessions as the most favored nations." Moreover, that the convention of 1790 should be considered as a commercial treaty between Spain and Great Britain, is impossible, seeing that one of its most clearly expressed objects was to prevent British subjects from carrying on any commerce with the Spanish American dominions.

These considerations appear to be sufficient to show that the convention of 1790 expired in 1796, and that it had not been renewed when Spain ceded to the United States all her rights to territories on the western side of America north of the 42d parallel. The restrictions and limitations which the parties to that convention imposed upon themselves in 1790, therefore, disappeared in 1796; and the rights of each were afterwards to be regulated only according to the general law of nations. Before the convention was concluded, the rights of Spain to the territory drained by the Columbia were undoubtedly stronger, agreeably to the law of nations, than those of any other Power. While the convention subsisted, neither party could acquire absolute sovereignty over any spot in that territory, even by occupation, and no attempt at occupation was made by Great Britain; so that, on the expiration of the convention, the rights of Spain became again stronger than those of any other Power. Between 1796 and 1819, the people of the United States had explored the region of the Columbia, and had established themselves on that river, before any attempt either to explore or to occupy the country had been made by British subjects. The American settlements taken by the British during war had been restored, agreeably to the treaty of peace; and on the 22d of February, 1819, when all the titles of Spain were transferred to the United States, Great Britain possessed no other just claims with regard to the country drained by the Columbia, than those derived from the convention of October previous; while the rights of the Americans were thenceforth founded on the bases of priority of discovery and priority of occupation.

The British Government has, however, positively refused to admit that the convention of 1790 has been abrogated, or that Spain could convey to the United States any other rights than

those which were secured to her by that convention. In the statement presented by the British plenipotentiaries to the American minister, during the negotiations at London in 1826, it is declared—that all arguments and pretensions on the part of Great Britain or of Spain, whether resting on priority of discovery, or upon any other ground, were definitively set at rest by the convention of 1790, which opened all parts of the northwest coast of America to them both, for all purposes of commerce and settlement, and all the waters to be freely navigated by the vessels and subjects of both—that the rights of Spain having been conveyed to the United States by the Florida treaty, in 1819, the United States necessarily succeeded to the limitations by which those rights were defined, and to the obligations under which they were to be exercised—and that Great Britain could not be expected to release those countries from the obligations and limitations contracted towards herself, merely because the rights of the party originally bound had been transferred to a third Power. In order to sustain these propositions, it was assumed, and attempts were made, as already stated, to prove—that the United States possessed no other claims to the countries in question than those derived from Spain in 1819—that the Americans were not the first to enter the Columbia River,* nor to explore the region through which it flows,† nor to make settlements on its banks—and that the restitution of Astoria was accompanied by an express reservation of the rights of Great Britain to the sovereignty of the surrounding country.‡

1819.

The Florida treaty was not ratified until nearly two years after its signature by the plenipotentiaries; and before another year had elapsed, the authority of Spain had ceased in every part of America contiguous to the United States. In 1828, a treaty of limits was concluded between the United States and Mexico, by which the line of boundary agreed on with Spain, in 1819, was admitted as separating the territories of the two republics, Mexico taking the place of Spain. The provisions for running and marking the said line have, however, not as yet been complied with by the Mexican Government.

In December, 1820, after the ratification of the Florida treaty, a resolution was passed by the House of Representatives in the Congress of the United States, on the motion of Mr. Floyd, of Virginia, “that an inquiry should be made as to the situation of the settlements on the Pacific Ocean, and as to the expediency of occupying the Columbia River.” The committee to which this resolution was referred, presented a long Report, drawn up by Mr. Floyd, containing a sketch of the history of colonization in America, an account of the fur trade in the northern and north-western sections of the continent, and a description of the country claimed by the United States in those directions; from all which are drawn the conclusions—that the whole territory of America bordering upon the Pacific from the 41st degree of latitude to the

1820.
Dec. 19.1821.
Jan. 20.

* See page 128.

† See page 153.

‡ See page 166.

1821. 53d, if not to the 60th, belonged of right to the United States, in virtue of the purchase of Louisiana from France in 1803, of the late acquisition of the Spanish titles, and of the discoveries and settlements of American citizens—that the trade of those countries in furs and other articles, and the fisheries on their coasts, might be rendered highly productive—and that these advantages might be secured to citizens of the United States exclusively, by establishing “small trading-guards” on the most northeastern point of the Missouri, and at the mouth of the Columbia, and favoring emigration to the country west of the Rocky Mountains, not only from the United States, but also from China. The committee thereupon reported “a bill for the occupation of the Columbia, and the regulation of the trade with the Indians in the territories of the United States.”

Without making any remarks upon the contents of this Report, it may be observed with regard to the bill, that its terms are directly at variance with the provisions of the third article of the convention of October, 1818, between the United States and Great Britain; inasmuch as the Columbia could not possibly be *free and open to the vessels, citizens, and subjects of both those nations*, if it were *occupied* by either. The bill was suffered to lie on the table of the House of Representatives during the remainder of the session. The subject was again brought before Congress in the ensuing year, and an estimate was obtained from the Navy Commissioners of the expense of transporting cannon, ammunition, and stores to the Columbia; but no further action was taken on the matter, either in that or the next session of the Legislature of the Union.

In the mean time, important measures with respect to the northwest territories of America had been adopted and enforced by the British and the Russian Governments.

The enmity subsisting between the Hudson's Bay and the Northwest Companies was for many years displayed only in words, or in the commission of trifling injuries by each party against the other. At length, however, in 1814, a regular war broke out, and was for some time openly carried on between them. The scene of the hostilities was the territory on the Red River, contiguous to the frontiers of the United States, in which a colony of Scotch highlanders was established in 1812, by Lord Selkirk, in virtue of a grant of the country from the Hudson's Bay Company. The validity of that grant was denied by the Northwest Company, to which the colony had proved injurious, as the supplies of provisions for the use of the northwest posts had been before obtained almost wholly from the Red River lands. The consequences were disputes and various acts of violence, until, finally, in 1814, the Scotchmen were driven away, and their houses were destroyed by their opponents. The colony was re-established in the following year; after which, the hostilities were renewed, posts were taken and burnt by each party, and on the 19th of June, 1816, a battle was fought, in which the Scotchmen were routed; their governor, Mr. Semple, and seventeen of his followers, being killed.

These affairs were brought before the British Parliament in 1821. June, 1819; and two years afterwards, a compromise was effected between the rival companies, through the intervention of the Colonial Department, by which they were united into one body, under the name of the *Hudson's Bay Company*; an Act being at the same time, and in connexion with the arrangement, passed by Parliament, on the authority of which the trade of all the Indian territories in northern America owned or claimed by Great Britain was granted exclusively to that company for twenty-one years.

By this act, "for regulating the fur trade, and establishing a criminal and civil jurisdiction in certain parts of North America," the King was authorized to make grants, or give "licenses to any body corporate, company, or person, for the exclusive privilege of trading with the Indians in all parts of North America, not being parts of the territories heretofore granted to the Hudson's Bay Company, or of any of his Majesty's provinces, or of territories belonging to the United States;" it being, however, provided—that no such grant or license was to be given for a longer period than twenty-one years—that no grant or license of exclusive trade in the part of America west of the Rocky Mountains, which was, by the convention of 1818 with the United States, to remain free and open to the citizens or subjects of both nations, should be used to the prejudice or exclusion of any citizens of the United States engaged in such trade—and that no British subject should trade in the said territories west of the Rocky Mountains, without such license or grant. Courts of judicature established in Upper Canada were empowered to take cognizance of all causes within the above described parts of America, as also within those belonging to the Hudson's Bay Company; and justices of the peace, or persons specially commissioned for the purpose, were to determine causes, and to execute and enforce the orders and judgments of the aforesaid courts, in different parts of those regions; they being also authorized to commit to custody, and to convey to Upper Canada for trial, any person refusing to obey such orders and judgments. The justices of the peace might likewise be empowered to hold courts in the Indian countries, for trial of minor offences and of civil causes in which the amount in issue should not exceed two hundred pounds.

Immediately after the passage of this act, the coalition of the two companies took place; and the Hudson's Bay Company received grants for exclusive trade in all the territories north of Canada, and of the United States, not already belonging to it, as also in those west of the Rocky Mountains, under the conditions expressed in the act. Persons in the service of the company were likewise commissioned as justices of the peace, and the jurisdiction of the courts of Upper Canada was rendered effective as far as the shores of the Pacific; no exception in that respect being made by the terms of the act, with regard to any of the territories in which licenses for trade could be granted.

The Russians were at the same period endeavoring to extend their dominion over the coasts of the north Pacific, by means more arbitrary, though less effective, as the result proved.

1821. On the 8th of July, 1819, the charter of the Russian-American Company was renewed for twenty years, by the Emperor Alexander; and on the 4th of September, 1821, an imperial *ukase*, or edict, was issued at Saint Petersburg, by which the whole west coast of America north of the 51st parallel, and the whole east coast of Asia north of the latitude of 45 degrees 50 minutes, and all the adjacent and intervening islands, were declared to belong exclusively to Russia; foreigners being prohibited, under heavy penalties, from approaching within a hundred miles of any of those territories, except in cases of extreme necessity.
1822. This *ukase* was communicated to the Government of the United States by the Chevalier de Poletica, Russian envoy at Washington, between whom and Mr. J. Q. Adams, the American Secretary of State, a correspondence took place on the subject. Mr. Feb. 11.
- Feb. 25. Adams began by expressing the astonishment of the President at these claims and assumptions of the Russian Government, and desired to know upon what circumstances they were founded.
- Feb. 28. To this the envoy replied by a long communication, containing a sketch (generally erroneous) of the discoveries of his countrymen on the northwest coast of America, which he insisted to have extended southward as far as the 49th degree of latitude; he defended the assumption of the 55th parallel as the southern limit of the possessions of his Sovereign, upon the ground that this line was midway between the mouth of the Columbia, where the Americans had formed a settlement, and New Archangel, the most southern Russian establishment; and he finally maintained that his Government would be justifiable in exercising the rights of sovereignty over the whole of the Pacific north of the said parallel, inasmuch as that section of the sea was bounded on both sides by Russian territories, and was thus in fact a *close sea*.
- Mar. 30. The Secretary of State, in return, asserted that "from the period of the existence of the United States as an independent nation, their vessels had freely navigated those seas; and the right to navigate them was a part of that independence, as also the right of their citizens to trade, even in arms and munitions of war, with the aboriginal natives of the northwest coast of America, who were not under the territorial jurisdiction of other nations." He denied *in toto* the claim of the Russians to any part of America south of the 55th degree of latitude, on the ground that this parallel was declared in the charter* of the Russian-American

* The first article of the charter or privilege granted by the Emperor Paul to the Russian-American Company, on the 8th of July, 1799, is as follows:

"In virtue of the discovery by Russian navigators of a part of the coast of America in the northeast, beginning from the 55th degree of latitude, and of chains of islands extending from Kamscharka, northward towards America, and southward towards Japan, Russia has acquired the right of possessing those lands; and the said company is authorized to enjoy all the advantages of industry, and all the establishments upon the said coast of America in the northeast, from the 55th degree of latitude to Bering's Strait, and beyond it, as also upon the Aleutian and Kurile Islands, and the others situated in the eastern Arctic Ocean."

By the second article—

"The company may make new discoveries, not only north, but also south of the said 55th parallel of latitude; and may occupy and bring under the dominion of Russia all territories thus discovered; observing the rule, that such territories should not have been previously occupied and placed under subjection by another nation."

Company to be the southern limit of the discoveries of the Russians in 1799, since which period they had made no discoveries or establishments south of the said line, on the coast now claimed by them. With regard to the suggestion that the Russian Government might justly exercise sovereignty over the Pacific Ocean as a *close sea*, because it claims territories both on the Asiatic and the American shores, Mr. Adams merely observed, that the distance between those shores, on the parallel of 51 degrees north, is *four thousand miles*; and he concluded by expressing the persuasion of the President that the citizens of the United States would remain unmolested in the prosecution of their lawful commerce, and that no effect would be given to a prohibition manifestly incompatible with their rights. M. de Poletica, a few days after the receipt of Mr. Adams's second note, sent another communication respecting the rights of his Sovereign, in which he advanced "the authentic fact, that in 1789, the Spanish packet Saint Charles, commanded by Captain Haro, found, in the latitude of *forty-eight and forty-nine degrees*, Russian establishments to the number of eight, consisting, in the whole, of twenty families and four hundred and sixty-two individuals, who were the descendants of the companions of Captain Tschirikof, supposed until then to have perished." It is scarcely necessary to occupy time in exposing the erroneousness of this "*authentic fact*." Martinez and Haro did, indeed, find Russian establishments on the American coast of the north Pacific in 1788; but they were all situated in the latitudes of *fifty-eight and fifty-nine degrees*; and the individuals inhabiting them had been, a short time previous, transported thither from Kamschatka and the Aleutian Islands, by Shellikof, the founder of the Russian-American Company.*

The prohibitory edict of the Russian Emperor, and the correspondence relating to it, were submitted to the Congress of the United States in April, 1822; and in the course of the ensuing year a negotiation was begun at Saint Petersburg, with the object of arranging amicably the rights and interests of the respective parties on the northwest side of America. Another negotiation with regard to that part of the world was also, at the same time and place, in progress between the plenipotentiaries of Russia and Great Britain; the latter Power having protested formally against the claims and principles set forth in the *ukase*, immediately on its appearance, and afterwards at Verona, whilst the Congress of Sovereigns was held there.† Under these circumstances, the Government of the United States became anxious that a joint convention should be concluded between the three nations having claims to the territories in question; and the envoys of the Republic at London and Saint Petersburg were therefore instructed to propose an agreement, to the effect—that no

1822.

Mar. 30.

April 2.

1823.

* See page 96. Fleuriu, in his Introduction to Marchand's Journal, mentions the rumor that Haro had found Russian settlements in 1788, between the 48th and 49th degrees; but he at the same time exposes the error.

† Debate in Parliament on the inquiry made by Sir J. Mackintosh, May 21, 1823.

1823. settlement should be made on the northwest coast, or the adjacent islands, during the next ten years, by Russians, south of the latitude of 55 degrees; or by citizens of the United States north of the latitude of 51 degrees; or by British subjects either south of the 51st, or north of the 55th parallels.

The proposition for a joint convention was not accepted by either of the Governments to which it was addressed, partly in consequence of a clause in the annual message sent by President Monroe to Congress, in December, 1823, stating—that in the discussions and arrangements relative to the northwest coast then going on, “the occasion had been judged proper for asserting, as a principle in which the rights and interests of the United States are involved, that the American continents, by the free and independent condition which they have assumed and maintain, are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for colonization by any European Power.” This principle (which it would, perhaps, have been more politic to keep *in petto* than to assert openly) the British and Russian Governments each refused to admit; and there being many other points on which it was not probable that the three parties could ever agree, it was considered preferable that the negotiations should be carried on separately, as they had been, at London and at Saint Petersburg.

Another publication, on the part of the American Government, soon after contributed to render more difficult the settlement of the question of boundaries on the Pacific between the United States and Great Britain.

Dec. 29. A select committee was appointed by the House of Representatives of the United States, in December, 1823, with instructions to inquire into the expediency of occupying the mouth of the Columbia. This committee, in the course of its duties, requested General Thomas S. Jesup, the Quartermaster General of the army, to communicate his opinions respecting the propriety of the measure proposed, as well as its practicability and the best method of executing it; in reply to which, the General sent a letter containing an exposition of his views of the true policy of the United States with regard to the northwest coasts and territories of America, and of the means by which they might be carried into effect. Leaving aside the question as to the rights of the United States, he considered the possession and military command of the Columbia and of the upper Missouri necessary for the protection, not only of the fur trade, but also of the whole western frontier of the republic, which is everywhere in contact with numerous, powerful, and warlike tribes of savages; and, for this purpose, he recommended the immediate despatch of two hundred men across the continent to the mouth of the Columbia, while two merchant vessels should transport thither the cannon, ammunition, materials, and stores requisite for the first establishment; after which, four or five intermediate posts should be formed at points between Council Bluffs, on the Missouri, (the most western spot then occupied by American troops,) and the Pacific. By such means, says the letter, “present protection would be afforded to our traders, and, on the ex-

piration of the privilege granted to British subjects to trade on the waters of the Columbia, we should be enabled to remove them from our territory, and to secure the whole trade to our own citizens."

The report, to which this letter was annexed, was ordered to lie on the table of the House; and nothing more was done on the subject during that session. The papers, however, were published, and they immediately attracted the attention of the British ministry. In a conference held at London in July following, between the American envoy, Mr. Rush, and the British commissioners, Messrs. Huskisson and Stratford Canning, the latter gentlemen commented upon the observations of General Jesup, particularly upon those respecting the removal of British traders from the territories of the Columbia, which they said "were calculated to put Great Britain especially upon her guard, appearing as they did at a moment when a friendly negotiation was pending between the two Powers for the adjustment of their relative and conflicting claims to that entire district of country." From the accounts of Mr. Rush, and those given subsequently by Mr. Gallatin, there is no doubt that the publication of General Jesup's letter, and the declaration in President Monroe's message against the establishment of European colonies in America, rendered the British Government much more indisposed to any concession, with regard to the northwest territories, than it would otherwise have been.

The negotiation mentioned in the preceding paragraph was not long continued; the parties being so entirely at variance with regard to facts as well as principles, that the impossibility of effecting any arrangement soon became evident to the plenipotentiaries on both sides. Mr. Rush cited the discoveries of the Spaniards on the northwest coasts of America, to the benefit of which he maintained that the United States were entitled in virtue of the Florida treaty; and also the discovery of the Columbia by Gray, as endowing his nation with the strongest rights to the possession of the territories drained by that river; and he insisted, agreeably to express instructions from his Government, "that no part of the American continent was henceforth to be open to colonization from Europe." The British commissioners, on the other hand, doubted the truth of many of the circumstances related with regard to the Spanish expeditions in the north Pacific, and alleged, as more authentic, the accounts of the voyage of Drake, from which it appeared that he had in 1579 explored the west coast of America to the 48th parallel of latitude, five or six degrees farther north than the Spaniards pretended to have advanced before that period. They refused "to admit that the mere fact of Spanish navigators having first seen the coast at particular points, even where this was capable of being substantiated, without any subsequent or efficient acts of sovereignty or settlement, should exclude all other nations from that portion of the globe." They also denied that the circumstance of an American merchant vessel having penetrated the coast of the continent at the Columbia River could confer on the United States any claim

1824.

July.

1824. along the same coast, which had been discovered and explored by Great Britain herself, in expeditions fitted out under the authority and with the resources of the nation. Finally, they declared "that the claim of the United States respecting the territory watered by the Columbia and its tributaries, as set forth by Mr. Rush, besides being essentially objectionable in its general bearing, had the effect of interfering directly with the actual rights of Great Britain, derived from use, occupancy, and settlement; and that they considered the unoccupied parts of America open, as heretofore, to colonization by Great Britain, or by other European Powers, agreeably to the convention of 1790," which they contended had become a part of the universal law of nations.
- June 29. After much discussion on these points, Mr. Rush presented, on the part of his Government, a proposal—that any country west of the Rocky Mountains, which might be claimed by either nation, should, with the navigation of all its waters, be free and open to both nations for ten years; *provided* that, during the said period, no settlements were to be made by British subjects south of the 51st degree of latitude, or by American citizens north of that parallel. To this proposal, which Mr. Rush afterwards varied by substituting the 49th degree for the 51st, Messrs. Huskisson and Canning replied, definitively, by a counter-project, to the effect—that the boundary between the territories of Great Britain and those of the United States, west of the Rocky Mountains, should be a line drawn from those mountains westward, along the 49th parallel, to the nearest head-waters of the Columbia, and thence down the middle of the stream to its termination in the Pacific; the British possessing the country north and west of such line, and the Americans that on the other side: *provided*, that the citizens or subjects of both nations should be at liberty, during the next ten years, to pass by land or by water through all the territories, and to retain and use their establishments already formed in any part of them. Immediately after the presentation of this counter-project, the negotiation respecting the northwest territories of America was suspended, and it was not renewed until November, 1826.*
- July 13.

In the mean time the negotiation in progress at St. Petersburg, between the Russian and the American Governments, was terminated by a convention, signed on the 17th of April, 1824, of which the following is the substance: The citizens or subjects of the two nations are not to be disturbed or restrained in navigating any part of the Pacific, or in resorting to its coasts for the purposes of fishing or of trading with the natives, in places not already occupied; *provided*, that citizens of the United States are not to resort to any Russian establishment, nor Russian subjects to any American establishment, on the northwest coasts of America, without permission from the governor or commander of such place. No establishment is in future to be formed upon the northwest coasts of America, or the adjacent islands, by citizens of the United States, north of the latitude of 54

* Documents accompanying the President's message of January 31, 1826.

degrees and 40 minutes, nor by Russians; or under the authority of Russia, south of that latitude. The citizens or subjects of both nations may, during the next ten years, frequent the interior seas, gulfs, harbors, and creeks upon the said coasts, for the purposes of fishing or of trading with the natives. The two Powers, nevertheless, engage, reciprocally, neither to sell, nor to suffer their citizens or subjects to sell, to the natives on the said coasts, any arms, powder, munitions of war, or spirituous liquors; *provided*, that this restriction is not to be regarded as affording a pretext for the search or detention of vessels engaged in trading, or for the seizure of the articles, or for any measure of restraint against the merchants or their crews; the parties respectively reserving to themselves the right of determining upon the penalties, and of inflicting the punishments, in cases of contravention of this prohibition by their citizens or subjects.*

1821.

Thus was the *ukase* of September, 1821, virtually annulled, so far as regarded American citizens, against whom it had been enforced in one instance only. The brig Pearl, of Boston, was turned away from Sitca in October, 1822; her owners, however, were, after the conclusion of the convention, indemnified for their injuries by the Russian Government. It may be here stated, that the stipulation respecting the trade and fishery in the interior waters on the northwest side of America has not been renewed; the other engagements continue in force, unchanged.

On the 28th of February, 1825, a convention, relative to the northwest coast of America and the adjacent seas, was also concluded between the Governments of Russia and Great Britain.† Its provisions concerning the navigation of the Pacific, and the trade with the natives of the American coasts, were nearly identical with those agreed on between the United States and Russia, in the preceding year; it is, however, much more particular and definite as regards territorial limits. "The line of demarcation between the possessions of the parties upon the coasts of the continent and the islands of America, in the northwest," is made to commence from the southernmost point of Prince of Wales's Island, in the latitude of 54 degrees and 40 minutes, and to run eastward to the Portland Channel, which it ascends to the 56th degree of latitude; thence it follows the summit of the mountains situated parallel to the coast, as far as the point of intersection of the 141st degree of longitude west from Greenwich, (passing through the west side of Mount Saint Elias,) and continues along that meridian, northward, to the Arctic Ocean; but, wherever the said summit of the mountains is more than ten leagues from the sea, the boundary runs parallel to the coast at the distance of ten leagues from it. The Russians are never to form an establishment south or east of this line, nor are the British to form any on the other side of it; but the British are

1825.

Feb. 28.

* Appendix [F] to this memoir. By the act of Congress of May 19, 1828, any American citizen contravening this prohibition becomes liable to fine and imprisonment.

† Herstlett's British Treaties, vol. iii, page 362; and appendix [F] to this memoir.

1825. to enjoy forever the right of navigating all streams, which may cross the said boundary in their course from the interior of the continent to the sea. The navigation of the inland seas, gulfs, harbors, and creeks on the coasts, for the purposes of fishing or of trading with the natives, is left free to both parties for ten years, under restrictions similar to those set forth in the convention between Russia and the United States; and the port of Sitca, or New Archangel, is opened to British subjects during the same period. These provisions were not renewed at the expiration of the ten years; all the other stipulations still remain in force.

In these two conventions the Governments of the United States and Great Britain, separately and independently, yet equally and clearly, though implicitly, recognise the exclusive privilege of Russia to occupy all the coasts and islands of the Pacific side of America, north of the latitude of 54 degrees and 40 minutes, and to exercise sovereignty over the places thus occupied, *but without acknowledging her absolute and entire possession of all that part of America.* With regard to the territories extending southward from the said parallel, in which the Russians are to make no establishment, the right of occupation is claimed by both the other Powers; indirectly by the United States, but distinctly and to the exclusion of all other nations by Great Britain.

In December, 1824, President Monroe, by his last annual message to Congress, advised the immediate establishment of a military post at the mouth of the Columbia, and also the despatch of a frigate for the survey of the coasts contiguous to that point, and for the protection of American interests in the north Pacific. The same measures were in the following year recommended by President Adams, among the various plans for the advantage of the United States, and of the world in general, to which he directed the attention of the Federal Legislature, at the commencement of its session. In compliance with this recommendation, a committee was appointed by the House of Representatives, the chairman of which (Mr. Baylies) submitted two reports, containing numerous details respecting—the history of discovery and trade in Northwest America; the geography, soil, climate, and productions of the portion claimed by the United States; the number and value of the furs procured in it; the expenses of surveying its coasts, and of forming military establishments for its occupation; and many other points connected with those matters: and he concluded by bringing in a bill for the immediate execution of the measures proposed by the President.* This bill was laid on the table of the House, and the subject was not again agitated in Congress until two years afterwards; little or no interest respecting the northwest territories of America was in fact then felt by citizens of the United States, either in or out of Congress.

By this time, the period of ten years, during which the countries claimed by Great Britain, or by the United States, west of the Rocky Mountains, were to remain free and open to the people of both nations, was drawing to a close; and it was desirable that

* See reports of the House of Representatives, 1st session of the 19th Congress.

some definitive arrangement respecting those countries should, 1826.
if possible, be made between the two Governments, before the
expiration of that term. With this object, a negotiation was com-
menced at London; or, rather, the negotiation which had been
broken off in 1824, was renewed in November, 1826; Mr. Al-
bert Gallatin representing the interests of the United States, and
Messrs. Huskisson and Addington those of Great Britain.

Before entering upon the details of this negotiation, it should
be observed, that the difficulty of effecting a satisfactory arrange-
ment for the partition of the disputed territories had been materi-
ally increased since 1818, in consequence of the great inequality
which had been produced in the relative positions of the two par-
ties, as regards actual occupation by their respective citizens or
subjects. In 1826 the British were enjoying, almost exclusively,
the use and control of the whole country beyond the Rocky
Mountains, north of the mouth of the Columbia. The union of
the two rival companies in 1821, and the establishment of civil and
criminal jurisdiction throughout the division of America allotted
to them, proved very advantageous to Great Britain, politically as
well as commercially. The Hudson's Bay Company became at
once a powerful body; its resources were no longer wasted in
disputes with a rival association; its regulations were enforced;
its operations were conducted with security and efficiency; and
encouragement was afforded for the extension of its posts and
communications, by the assurance that the honor of the Govern-
ment was thereby more strongly engaged in its support. Many
of these posts were fortified, and could be defended by their in-
mates—men inured to dangers and hardships of all kinds—against
any attacks which might be apprehended; and thus, in the course
of a few years, the whole region north and northwest of the Uni-
ted States, from Hudson's Bay and Canada to the Pacific, particu-
larly the portion traversed by the Columbia and its branches,
was *occupied*, in a military sense, by British forces, although
there was not a single British soldier, strictly speaking, within
its limits.

The United States, on the other hand, possessed no establish-
ments, and exercised no authority or jurisdiction whatsoever, be-
yond the Rocky Mountains; and the number of their citizens in
that whole territory did not probably exceed two hundred. This,
however, is not to be attributed to want of enterprise in the
Americans, but simply to the fact that they had already at their
disposal much finer countries in their immediate vicinity.

Under such circumstances were the negotiations between the
Governments of Great Britain and the United States, relative to
these territories, renewed at London in November, 1826. The
British plenipotentiaries began by declaring the readiness of their
Government to abide by its offer, made in 1824—to admit the Co-
lumbia as the line of separation between the territories of the two
nations, west of the Rocky Mountains, securing to the United
States all that lies east of that river, and south of the 49th parallel
of latitude. To this offer Mr. Gallatin gave a decided negative;
and then repeated the proposition which had been submitted by

1825. himself and Mr. Rush in 1818, for the adoption of the 49th parallel as the boundary from the mountains to the Pacific; with the additions—that if the said line should cross any of the branches of the Columbia at points from which they are navigable by boat to the main stream, the navigation of such branches, and of the main stream, should be perpetually free and common to the people of both nations; that the citizens or subjects of neither party should thenceforward make any settlements in the territories of the other; but that all settlements already formed by the people of either nation within the limits of the other, might be occupied and used by them for ten years, and no longer; during which, all the remaining provisions of the existing convention should continue in force. This proposition was in like manner rejected by the British, who then expressed their willingness, in addition to their first offer, to yield to the United States a detached territory north of the Columbia, in the angle formed by the Pacific coast and the south side of the Strait of Fuca, embracing Port Discovery and Bulfinch's Harbor. Mr. Gallatin refused his assent to this, or any other arrangement giving to Great Britain the possession of territory south of the 49th parallel; and the negotiators, having no expectation of effecting a partition of the country in dispute, directed their attention solely to the subject of the continuance of the joint occupancy of the whole region.
- Dec. 1. For that object, the British proposed that the arrangement actually subsisting should be renewed and prolonged for fifteen years, with the provisions that neither Power should assume or exercise any right of sovereignty or dominion over any part of the country during that period; and that no settlement then existing, or which might in future be formed, should ever be ad-
duced by either party in support or furtherance of such claims of sovereignty or dominion. This proposition was taken by Mr. Gallatin for reference to his Government; and the discussions were in consequence suspended until May of the following year.
- Dec. 16. The President of the United States refused to agree to any modification of the terms of the joint occupancy; and Mr. Gallatin was at the same time instructed to declare, that *the American Government did not hold itself bound hereafter, in consequence of any proposal which it had made, for a line of separation between the territories of the two nations beyond the Rocky Mountains; but would consider itself at liberty to contend for the full extent of the claims of the United States.* The British commissioners made a similar declaration with regard to the proposals which had been advanced on the part of their Government; and intimated their readiness to agree to a simple renewal of the existing arrangement, provided an article were appended, explanatory of what they considered to be its true meaning and bearing. Mr. Gallatin was unable to assent to any addition, of that or any other nature; and at length, on the 20th of August, a convention* was signed, to the effect—that all the provisions of the third article of the convention
1827. *the American Government did not hold itself bound hereafter, in consequence of any proposal which it had made, for a line of separation between the territories of the two nations beyond the Rocky Mountains; but would consider itself at liberty to contend for the full extent of the claims of the United States.* The British commissioners made a similar declaration with regard to the proposals which had been advanced on the part of their Government; and intimated their readiness to agree to a simple renewal of the existing arrangement, provided an article were appended, explanatory of what they considered to be its true meaning and bearing. Mr. Gallatin was unable to assent to any addition, of that or any other nature; and at length, on the 20th of August, a convention* was signed, to the effect—that all the provisions of the third article of the convention
- Aug. 20.

* Convention of 1827 between the United States and Great Britain, in the Appendix [F] to this memoir.

of October, 1818, should be further indefinitely continued in force; either party being, however, at liberty, after the 20th of October, 1828, to annul and abrogate the engagement, on giving due notice of twelve months to the other. This agreement still remains in force, notwithstanding the many efforts which have been made in the Congress of the United States to procure its abrogation. 1827.

In the course of this negotiation, the claims of the respective parties to the territories were fully set forth, and thoroughly examined, not only in conferences between the plenipotentiaries, but also in written *statements*,* submitted on each side. To review all the assumptions and arguments thus advanced, in detail, would be superfluous, as they have been kept in mind throughout this memoir; it will be proper, however, to present a summary of them, with remarks on points not already noticed, as the best means of showing the positions assumed by each Government at that time.

Mr. Gallatin claimed for the United States the possession of the country west of the Rocky Mountains, between the 42d and the 49th parallels of latitude, upon the grounds of—

The first discovery of the Columbia, by Gray; the first exploration of the territory through which that river flows, by Lewis and Clarke; and the establishment of the first posts and settlements in the said territory, by citizens of the United States:

The virtual recognition by the British Government of the title of the United States, in the restitution of the post near the mouth of the Columbia, agreeably to the first article of the treaty of Ghent, without any reservation or exception whatsoever:

The acquisition by the United States of all the titles of Spain, which titles were derived from the discovery and exploration of the coasts of the region in question, by Spanish subjects, before they had been seen by the people of any other civilized nation:

And, lastly, upon the ground of *contiguity*, which should give to the United States a stronger right to those territories than could be advanced by any other Power. "If," said Mr. Gallatin, "a few trading factories on the shores of Hudson's Bay have been considered by Great Britain as giving an exclusive right of occupancy as far as the Rocky Mountains—if the infant settlements on the more southern Atlantic shores justified a claim thence to the South Seas, and which was actually enforced to the Mississippi—that of the millions of American citizens already within reach of those seas, cannot consistently be rejected. It will not be denied, that the extent of contiguous country to which an actual settlement gives a prior right, must depend, in a considerable degree, on the magnitude and population of that settlement, and on the facility with which the vacant adjacent land may, within a short time, be occupied, settled, and cultivated by such population, compared with the probability of its being occupied and settled from any other quarter. This doctrine was admitted to its fullest extent by Great Britain, as appeared by all her char-

* Document of the House of Representatives, 20th Congress, 1st session, No. 199.

1827. ters, extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific, given to colonies established then only on the borders of the Atlantic. How much more natural and stronger the claim, when made by a nation whose population extended to the central parts of the continent, and whose dominions were by all acknowledged to extend to the Rocky Mountains."

The British plenipotentiaries, on the other hand, endeavored to prove, as already stated—

That the Columbia was not discovered by Gray, who had only entered the bay at its mouth, discovered four years previous by Lieutenant Meares, of the British navy.*

That the exploration of the interior of the country of the Columbia by Lewis and Clarke, could not be cited by the United States as strengthening and confirming their claim to that territory, because, "*if not before, at least in the same and subsequent years*, the British Northwest Company had, by means of their agent, Mr. Thompson, already established their posts on the head-waters or main branch of the Columbia:†

That the restitution of Astoria in 1818 was accompanied by express reservations of the right of Great Britain to the territory on which that settlement was declared to be an encroachment.‡

That the titles to the territories in question, derived by the United States from Spain, through the Florida Treaty, amounted to nothing more than the rights secured to Spain equally with Great Britain, by the convention|| of 1790, namely, to settle on any part of those countries, to navigate and fish in their waters, and to trade with their natives. Whether Louisiana extended to the Pacific, or not, was of no consequence, inasmuch as it was a Spanish possession in 1790; and if a portion of it bordered upon the Pacific, such portion was, of course, included in the stipulations of the convention signed in that year:

That the charters granted by British Sovereigns to colonies on the Atlantic coasts, were nothing more than cessions to the grantees, of whatever rights the grantor might consider himself to possess, and could not be regarded as binding on the subjects of any other nation, or as part of the law of nations, until they had been confirmed by treaties; had the Government of the United States thought fit, in 1790, to grant by charter to Mr. Gray the whole territory bordering upon the Columbia, such charter would have been valid against all other citizens of the United States; but it would not have been recognised either by Great Britain or by Spain, as those Powers were in that year preparing to contest by arms the possession of the very territory which would have formed the subject of the grant. [With regard to these latter assertions, whatever may have been the ideas of British Sovereigns as to the extent of their rights in North America, certain

* The entire groundlessness of these assertions may be seen by reference to pages 93 and 138.

† At page 153, explanations are given with regard to the just value of the words here quoted from the *statement* of the British plenipotentiaries.

‡ See page 165.

|| For a review of the convention of 1790, and inquiries as to its bearing upon this question, see page 171.

it is, that the charters granted by them to colonies on the Atlantic coast were considered by the British Government as valid, and were enforced against the subjects of other nations, on various occasions, between 1606 and 1763. In proof of this, may be cited the charters granted to the Virginia Company by King James I, in 1609 and 1611; in virtue of which, the Dutch settlements on the Hudson, in a country first discovered, explored, and settled under the flag of the United Provinces, were, in 1664, during a period of profound peace between the two nations, seized by British forces, as being included within the territories granted to the Virginia Company. In like manner, the settlements made by British subjects, under a British charter, on the Ohio, in a country first discovered, explored, and occupied by the French, were sustained by the British Government; and the disputes on account of those settlements are well known to have been among the principal causes of the war of 1755 between those Powers. These facts are here cited, not in vindication of the justice of such charters, but merely in order to show in what light they have been hitherto really regarded by the British Government. In this, as in all the other points of the controversy, it will be seen that the arguments of the commissioners were founded upon the views of natural right, or of the principles of international law, which their Government chose to adopt and recognise at the moment, without reference to precedent.]

Messrs. Huskisson and Addington, in conclusion, presented the following summary of the pretensions of their Government, which may be considered as definitively indicating its views and proposed course with regard to Northwest America:

"Great Britain claims no exclusive sovereignty over any portion of the territory on the Pacific between the 42d and the 49th parallels of latitude; her present claim, not in respect to any part, but to the whole, is limited to a right of joint occupancy in common with other states, leaving the right of exclusive dominion *in obedience*; and her pretensions tend to the mere maintenance of her own rights, in resistance to the exclusive character of the pretensions of the United States.

"The rights of Great Britain are recorded and defined in the convention of 1790; they embrace the right to navigate the waters of those countries, to settle in and over any part of them, and to trade with the inhabitants and occupiers of the same. These rights have been peaceably exercised ever since the date of that convention; that is, for a period of nearly forty years. Under that convention, valuable British interests have grown up in those countries. It is admitted that the United States possess the same rights, although they have been exercised by them only in a single instance, and have not, since the year 1813, been exercised at all; but beyond those rights, they possess none.

"In the interior of the territory in question, the subjects of Great Britain have had for many years numerous settlements and trading-posts; several of these posts are on the tributary streams of the Columbia; several upon the Columbia itself; some to the northward, and others to the southward of that river. And they

1827.

1831

1834

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1827. navigate the Columbia as the sole channel for the conveyance of their produce to the British stations nearest the sea, and for the shipment of it from thence to Great Britain; it is also by the Columbia and its tributary streams that these posts and settlements received their annual supplies from Great Britain.

“To the interests and establishments which British industry and enterprise have created, Great Britain owes protection; that protection will be given, both as regards settlement, and freedom of trade and navigation, with every attention not to infringe the co-ordinate rights of the United States; it being the desire of the British Government, *so long as the joint occupancy continues*, to regulate its own obligations by the same rules which govern the obligations of every other occupying party.”

These concluding declarations of the British commissioners are sufficiently explicit. When taken in connexion with the reasonings which precede them, they show clearly that all farther attempts on the part of the United States to establish the justice of their claims by negotiation with Great Britain should be deferred until the two parties are more nearly equal as regards the power of enforcing their respective determinations.

The new convention was submitted by President Adams to the Senate of the United States in the winter of 1827, and, having been approved, was immediately ratified; since which, no communication whatsoever, on subjects connected with the northwest coasts of America, has passed between the Government of the Republic and that of Great Britain.

1828. The documents relative to the negotiation were laid before the House of Representatives at Washington in the spring of 1828, and were published by its order. In the ensuing session the subject of the occupation of the mouth of the Columbia was again brought before that House, and, after a long series of debates,

1829. a bill was reported, authorizing the President to erect forts beyond the Rocky Mountains, and to cause those territories to be explored; and providing for the punishment of offences committed there by American citizens. This bill was rejected on the
Jan. 7.

1831. In January, 1831, President Jackson, in reply to a call for information, sent to the Senate a report from the Secretary of War, relative to the *British establishments on the Columbia, and the state of the fur trade*, containing several interesting communications from persons engaged in that business, or acquainted with it; but no action was taken on the subject, and very little attention was given in either House to matters concerning the countries in question until 1838.

1834. Before that year, the Government of the United States had been engaged in another discussion with that of Russia, respecting the northwest coasts. It will be remembered, that by the convention of 1824 it was understood that, during a term of ten years, counting from the signature of the convention, the ships of both Powers, or which belong to their citizens or subjects, respectively, might reciprocally frequent, without any hindrance whatever, the interior seas, gulfs, harbors, and creeks, upon the coast mentioned in the preceding article, for the purpose of fish-

ing and trading with the natives of the country. The period during which this right was to be exercised by both parties expired in April, 1834, and immediately afterwards two American vessels were ordered by Baron Wrangel, the governor of the Russian settlements in America, to cease their trade on the coasts north of the parallel of 54 degrees 40 minutes. The Russian minister at Washington, about the same time, gave notice of the expiration of this agreement to Mr. Forsyth, the Secretary of State of the United States,* suggesting to him, also, the propriety of communicating the fact officially to the citizens of the Republic. Mr. Forsyth, in his answer, expressed a wish to know whether a proposition for the continuance of the arrangement would be favorably received at Saint Petersburg; and the Russian minister being unable to answer the question, the representative of the United States near the Imperial Government was instructed to propose formally the renewal of the stipulations for an indefinite period. In the mean time, however, a notice of the expiration of the agreement, and of the order given by Baron Wrangel, was published in the newspapers of the United States.†

1834.

The reasoning of Mr. Forsyth on this question, as presented in his letter of instruction to Mr. Dallas, the envoy of the United States at Saint Petersburg, can scarcely be abridged without materially impairing its strength. Mr. Forsyth, after repeating the cardinal rule as to the construction of instruments of every kind, namely—*that they should be so construed, if possible, as that every part may stand*—maintains that the fourth article of the convention cannot “be understood as implying an acknowledgment on the part of the United States of the right of Russia to the possession of the coast above the latitude of 54 degrees 40 minutes north; but that it should be taken in connexion with the other articles, which have, in fact, no reference whatever to the question of the right of possession of the unoccupied parts of the coast. In a spirit of compromise, and to prevent future collisions or difficulties, it was agreed that no new establishments should be formed by the respective parties, north or south of a certain parallel of latitude, after the conclusion of the agreement; but the question of the *right of possession* beyond the existing establishments, as it subsisted previous to, or at the time of, the conclusion of the convention, was left untouched. The United States, in agreeing not to form new establishments north of the latitude of 54 degrees and 40 minutes, made no acknowledgment of the right of Russia to the possession of the territory above that line. If such admission had been made, Russia, by the same construction of the article referred to, must have acknowledged the right of the United States to the territory south of the line. But that Russia did not so understand the article, is conclusively proved by her having entered into a similar agreement in a subsequent treaty (1825) with Great Britain, and having, in fact,

1837.

Nov. 3.

* Message of President Van Buren of December 4, 1838, and the accompanying document No. 2.

† See the Washington Globe of July 22, 1835.

1837. acknowledged in that instrument the right of possession of the
 Nov. 3. same territory by Great Britain. The United States can only be considered as acknowledging the right of Russia to acquire, by actual occupation, a just claim to unoccupied lands above the latitude of 54 degrees 40 minutes north; and even this is a mere matter of inference, as the convention of 1824 contains nothing more than a negation of the right of the United States to occupy new points within that limit. Admitting that this inference was in contemplation of the parties to the convention, it cannot follow that the United States ever intended to abandon the just right, acknowledged by the first article to belong to them, under the law of nations; that is—to frequent any part of the unoccupied coast of North America, for the purpose of fishing or trading with the natives. All that the convention admits is, an inference of the right of Russia to acquire possession by settlement north of 54 degrees and 40 minutes north; and until that possession is taken, the first article of the convention acknowledges the right of the United States to fish and trade, as prior to its negotiation.”

These arguments, the conclusiveness of which appears to be unquestionable, the Russian Chancellor of State, Count Nesselrode, did not attempt to controvert. He contented himself simply with declining, in behalf of his Government, the proposition for the renewal of the engagements contained in the fourth article of the convention; and thus the matter rests. American vessels are prohibited from frequenting a large portion of the unoccupied west coasts of the continent, north of the latitude of 54 degrees and 40 minutes; and the trade of the United States in the north Pacific has been doubtless somewhat diminished in consequence.

The Russians have, in like manner, refused to renew the stipulations of the same nature contained in the fifth article of the treaty of 1825 between their Government and that of Great Britain, and have, moreover, directly opposed the enforcement of the right, secured to the latter Power, by another article of that treaty, to navigate any rivers which may flow from the interior of the continent to the ocean, across the line of boundary there established. The circumstances as related* are the following: In 1834, the Hudson's Bay Company fitted out an expedition for the purpose of establishing a trading-post on the *Stikine*, a river lately discovered, entering the ocean in latitude of 56 degrees 50 minutes, which is said to be three miles broad at its mouth, and a mile broad at the distance of thirty-five miles higher up. Baron Wrangel, the Governor of the Russian-American possessions, having been informed of this project, erected a block-house at the mouth of the river, and stationed a sloop of war there; and on the appearance of the vessel bearing the men and materials for the contemplated establishments, the British were informed that they would not be allowed to pass. All appeals to the treaty were ineffectual; and the Hudson's Bay Company were foiled in their attempt, after having spent, as is asserted, twenty thousand pounds in preparations.

* London and Westminster Review for August, 1838.

CHAPTER X.

Account of the Hudson's Bay Company's establishments—Fur trade over land between the United States and the northwest territories—The North American and the Rocky Mountain Fur Companies—Expeditions of Wyeth and Bonneville—Emigration from the United States to the countries of the Columbia—Conclusion.

In the preceding chapter, it was shown that the *Northwest* and *Hudson's Bay* trading companies were, in 1821, united; or rather, that the former was merged in the latter, which afterwards, in virtue of an act of Parliament, passed in the same year, received from the British crown the exclusive privilege of trade in all the territories of America north of Canada and the United States, not already possessed by the company, as well as in those west of the Rocky Mountains, so far as the claims of Great Britain extended, agreeably to the convention of 1818 between her Government and that of the United States; that the jurisdiction of the courts of Upper Canada over British subjects in all those territories, was established by the abovementioned act of Parliament; and that the stipulations of the convention of 1818, by which American citizens and British subjects were, during ten years, equally entitled to trade or settle in any country west of the Rocky Mountains, claimed by either party, had been continued in force for an indefinite period, with the understanding that they might be abrogated by either Government, after due notice of twelve months to the other.

These arrangements, all of which remain at present in vigor, have proved highly advantageous to the British in every respect. The northern and northwestern regions of the continent have been explored by their officers and men of science, and new means of commercial intercourse have been discovered, of which the Hudson's Bay Company have availed themselves, by increasing their establishments and extending their operations. That company is, indeed, a powerful body, or rather a great Power, in America. Its posts may be found occupying all the most important points in those regions; its boats may be met on every stream, conveying British manufactures to the interior, or furs to the great depositories on the seaboard, for shipment to England in British vessels; and the Indians are everywhere so tutored and managed by its agents, that they have become the willing slaves of the association, and are ready at any time to strike at its adversaries. Yet the whole number of persons in the service of the company, in 1834, was, according to Mr. Montgomery Martin,* less than one thousand, and it has probably not since been increased.

1821.

1827.

* History of the British Colonies, vol. iii, page 533.

1838. The concerns of the Hudson's Bay Company are managed by a governor, deputy governor, and a committee of directors, established in London, by whom all orders for the regulation of the business are devised and issued, and to whom all the reports and accounts are transmitted. The trade in America is under the immediate superintendence of a resident governor; the inferior officers are agents, factors, traders, and clerks, some of whom have a direct interest or share in the business; the others being engaged at small salaries, with the promise of a pension for life after a certain period of service. The greater part of these offices are generally filled by natives of Great Britain; the hunters, trappers, voyageurs, &c., are mostly French Canadians, Indians, or half-breeds, who receive little or nothing besides their clothing, and the scanty allowance of miserable food upon which they subsist. The strictest discipline and subordination are everywhere observed; and attention to the interests of the company is insured, by the prospects held out of advancement in the service, or of maintenance in old age.

Two settlements, intended partly for the reception and support of retiring servants of the company, have been established in its countries: one on the Red River, near the boundary of the United States, the only land north of that line which appears to offer any inducements for cultivation; and the other in the delightful valley of the Wallamet, south of the lower Columbia. The inhabitants of these colonies are kept in a state of absolute dependence upon the company; from it alone they can receive their supplies of foreign necessaries; it retains the right of the soil, and can, moreover, oblige them at a moment's warning to quit its territories. That the settlements should languish under such circumstances, and that the able-bodied men should desert from the Red River into the United States, as they frequently do, is not surprising.

The furs and skins, which form nearly the sole returns of the trade, are procured principally from the Indians, in exchange for coarse manufactured goods, imported from Great Britain free of duty into the company's territories; although servants of the association are also employed in trapping and hunting, at particular seasons. It is asserted on the part of the company, that ardent spirits are never bartered for furs, and that the average quantity introduced into the country has not, for many years past, exceeded a gill per annum for each person in it. There is no cause to doubt the sincerity of the statement, especially as it is the interest of the traders to keep the Indians sober, industrious, and free from vices; though other accounts appear to show that the quantity of liquors introduced is much greater, and that they are often given to the natives for furs—probably without the knowledge of the company's agents.

The territories of the company are divided into districts or departments, each under the charge of an agent, who distributes to the traders the goods received from England, and sends to their proper destination the furs collected in return; the transportation being performed alternately in boats and by portage, for which

purpose the articles are packed in bundles of such a size as to be easily carried by one man. The furs are sent to three great depositories on the seaboard, from which are also brought the goods for trade. These are *Montreal*, on the Saint Lawrence, *York Factory*, on Hudson's Bay, and *Fort Vancouver*, on the Columbia; each of which is the capital or heart of a certain number of districts. Nearly all the articles going to or coming from Montreal, pass through *Fort William*, one of the principal factories of the company, situated a few miles northwest of Lake Superior. The furs and skins from Fort Vancouver are all sent directly to London, by ships which arrive annually, bringing articles for the trade. The company, moreover, employs several small vessels on the northwest coasts, and a steamboat; which latter is principally used in the Strait of Fuca, and the other channels among the islands of the northwest Archipelago.

The average annual value of the peltries exported from America by the Hudson's Bay Company,* between 1827 and 1833, amounted, according to McGregor, to two hundred and ten thousand pounds sterling, (about one million of dollars,) of which, probably one-sixth part was received from the territories west of the Rocky Mountains. Mr. Wyeth estimates the amount of the furs derived from those territories by the company in 1836, at one hundred and thirty-eight thousand dollars, London price; for which are given, about twenty thousand dollars worth (prime cost) of goods; the services of three hundred and fifty men, employed in various parts of the business; shipping to bring supplies, and take back returns; and two years' interest on the investments. He had, moreover, "good evidence that, in 1832, the profits of

1833.

* The following list of the Hudson's Bay Company's establishments west of the Rocky Mountains is extracted from an article in the London and Westminster Review for August, 1838; written by some person connected with that association, and minutely acquainted with its affairs:

"The principal establishment of the Hudson's Bay Company on the northwest coast is Fort Vancouver, situated on the north bank of the Columbia River, about seventy miles from the ocean, in latitude $45\frac{1}{2}$ degrees, longitude 122 degrees 30 minutes. It was formed by Governor Simpson in 1824, and named after the distinguished navigator who first discovered and surveyed the Columbia. [!] They have likewise a post on the south side, at the mouth of the river, named Fort George, formerly Asoria. They have, moreover, the post of Nasqually, in Puget's Sound, latitude 47 degrees; the post of Fort Langly, at the outlet of Frazer's River, latitude 49 degrees 25 minutes; the post of Fort McLoughlin, in Mill Bank Sound, latitude 56 degrees; the post of Fort Simpson, on Dundas Island, latitude $54\frac{1}{2}$ degrees; and were forcibly prevented by the Russians, in 1834, from establishing a post on the Stikine River, latitude $56\frac{1}{2}$ degrees west, longitude 131 degrees 10 minutes. Inland, on the west side the mountains, they have fifteen establishments, viz: Frazer's Lake, McLeod's Lake, Fort George, Alexandria-Chilcotins, Babine, and Bear's Lake, in New Caledonia; the post of Thompson's River, falling into Frazer's River; the posts of Nez Percés, Okanagan, and Colville, on the Columbia; the Flathead and Kootania posts, between the north and south branches of the Columbia river, near the mountains; the post of Fort Hall, on the southern branch of the Columbia; and the Umqua Post, on the river of the same name, latitude 43 degrees 30 minutes, longitude 124 degrees, south of the Columbia River. They have, further, two migratory trading and trapping expeditions, of about fifty men each—the one hunting in the country situated between the Columbia and the Bay of San Francisco, towards the coast; and the other in the interior country between the Columbia and the headwaters of the rivers falling into the Bay of San Francisco. They likewise have a steam-vessel and five sailing-vessels, of from one hundred to three hundred tons burden, all armed."

1838. the whole western department (including the Columbia countries) did not exceed ten thousand dollars." The shares of the company are at this time worth more than double their original value, which was one hundred pounds each. In the most recent London tables of prices, the last annual dividend on each share is stated at ten pounds.*

In the mean time, the regions west of the Rocky Mountains have not been neglected by the people of the United States. For some years after the destruction of the Pacific Fur Company, no American citizens were to be seen in those countries. The *North American Company*, of which Mr. Astor was also the head, confined its operations to the vicinity of the Great Lakes, the headwaters of the Mississippi, and the lower part of the Missouri; sometimes extending them farther up the latter river, and on the Yellow Stone, particularly after its union with another company, organized in 1822, under the name of the *Columbia Fur Company*. In 1823, Mr. W. H. Ashley, of Saint Louis, who had previously established a trading-post on the Yellow Stone, fitted out an expedition for the country beyond the Rocky Mountains; and having crossed the chain between the sources of the Platte and the Colorado, near the 42d degree of latitude, he obtained a large supply of furs, which were transported to Saint Louis. About a hundred men were in the following year left by him in that country, to hunt and trap; and although they had to contend against the people of the Hudson's Bay Company, who opposed them in every way, the value of the furs collected by them in three years amounted to one hundred and eighty thousand dollars.

1827. In the first expeditions from Saint Louis, the goods were transported on pack-horses. In 1827, Mr. Ashley sent sixty men, with a piece of cannon drawn by mules, who marched to the great Salt Lake, called *Lake Youta*, beyond the mountains; and after remaining in that country a sufficient length of time to collect the furs and distribute the supplies among the hunters,

* The following table of the number and value of furs and peltries exported in 1831, from the parts of America owned or occupied by the British, is given in McCulloch's Dictionary of Commerce, as extracted from the work of Bliss, on the Trade and Industry of British America:

Skin.	No.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Beaver	126,944	each 1 5 0	158,680 0 0
Muskrat	375,751	" 0 0 6	9,393 5 6
Lynx	58,010	" 0 8 0	23,204 0 0
Wolf	5,947	" 0 8 0	2,378 16 0
Bear	3,850	" 1 0 0	3,850 0 0
Fox	8,765	" 0 10 0	4,382 10 0
Mink	9,298	" 0 2 0	929 16 0
Raccoon	325	" 0 1 6	24 7 6
Tails	2,290	" 0 1 0	114 10 0
Wolverine	1,744	" 0 3 0	261 12 0
Deer	645	" 0 3 0	96 15 0
Weasel	34	" 0 0 6	0 17 0

£203,316 9 0

The other articles exported by the Hudson's Bay Company, from America, are isinglass, sea-horse teeth, feathers, goose and swan quills, whalebone, and oil; the value of all which is trifling.

returned to Missouri, having been absent just seven months. Since that time, wagons have been generally employed for carrying the articles to the foot of the mountains; they may, indeed, cross the chain, through a depression called the *Southern Pass*, nearly under the 42d parallel, between the head-waters of the Platte on the eastern side, and those of the Colorado and of the Lewis, the principal southern branch of the Columbia, on the west; and it is said that, recently, a light carriage has been driven from Connecticut to the Great Falls of the Columbia, near the Pacific. 1827.

In 1826 Messrs. Smith, Jackson, and Sublette, of Saint Louis, engaged in the same business, and, having subsequently purchased Mr. Ashley's establishments and interests, they carried on a regular trade with the countries of the Columbia and the Colorado, under the name of the *Rocky Mountain Fur Company*.* 1826.

The active proceedings of the St. Louis traders roused the

* The following account of the first expedition with wagons to the Rocky Mountains made in 1829, by Messrs. Smith, Jackson, and Sublette, is extracted from a letter addressed by those gentlemen to the Secretary of War, in October, 1829, and published with President Jackson's message to the House of Representatives of January 25, 1831. It will serve to show the mode and the route generally pursued in these expeditions at the present day:

"On the 10th of April last, (1829,) we set out from Saint Louis, with eighty-one men, all mounted on mules, ten wagons, each drawn by five mules, and two dearborns, (light carriages, or carts,) each drawn by one mule. Our route was nearly due west to the western limits of the State of Missouri, and thence along the Santa Fé trail, about forty miles from which the course was some degrees north of west, across the waters of the Kansas, and up the Great Platte river, to the Rocky Mountains, and to the head of Wind River, where it issues from the mountains. This took us until the 16th of July, and was as far as we wished the wagons to go, as the furs to be brought in were to be collected at this place, which is, or was this year, the great rendezvous of the persons engaged in that business. Here the wagons could easily have crossed the Rocky Mountains, it being what is called the *Southern Pass*, had it been desirable for them to do so; which it was not, for the reason stated. For our support, at leaving the Missouri settlements, until we should get into the buffalo country, we drove twelve head of cattle, besides a milch cow. Eight of these only being required for use before we got to the buffaloes, the others went on to the head of Wind River. We began to fall in with the buffaloes on the Platte, about three hundred and fifty miles from the white settlements; and from that time lived on buffaloes, the quantity being infinitely beyond what we needed. On the 4th of August, the wagons being, in the mean time, loaded with the furs which had been previously taken, we set out on the return to Saint Louis. All the high points of the mountains then in view were white with snow; but the passes and valleys, and all the level country, were green with grass. Our route back was over the same ground nearly as in going out, and we arrived at Saint Louis on the 10th of October, bringing back the ten wagons, the dearborns being left behind; four of the oxen and the milch cow were also brought back to the settlements in Missouri, as we did not need them for provision. Our men were all healthy during the whole time; we suffered nothing by the Indians, and had no accident but the death of one man, being buried under a bank of earth that fell in upon him, and another being crippled at the same time. Of the mules, we lost but one by fatigue, and two horses stolen by the Kansas Indians; the grass being, along the whole route, going and coming, sufficient for the support of the horses and mules. The usual weight in the wagons was about one thousand eight hundred pounds. The usual progress of the wagons was from fifteen to twenty five miles per day. The country being almost all open, level, and prairie, the chief obstructions were ravines and creeks, the banks of which required cutting down; and, for this purpose, a few pioneers were generally kept ahead of the caravan. This is the first time that wagons ever went to the Rocky Mountains, and the ease and safety with which it was done prove the facility of communicating over land with the Pacific Ocean; the route from the Southern Pass, where the wagons stopped, to the Great Falls of the Columbia, being easier and better than on this side of the mountains, with grass enough for horses and mules, but a scarcity of game for the support of men."

1832. spirit of the North American Fur Company, which also extended its operations to the countries beyond the Rocky Mountains; and several independent parties of adventurers have, from time to time, made expeditions in the same direction. In 1832 Captain Bonneville, of the United States army, while on a furlough, led a band of more than a hundred men, with twenty wagons and many mules and horses, carrying goods from Missouri to the Far West; and remained with them two years, employed in trading, hunting, and trapping, chiefly in the country drained by the Lewis and its branches.*

About the same time, Mr. Nathaniel Wyeth, of Massachusetts, endeavored to establish a direct trade in American vessels, between the ports of the United States and the Columbia; from which latter, the returns were to be made in salmon and furs. With these views, he led two expeditions across the continent; and having also sent a vessel around to the west coast, he formed two trading-stations—one called Fort Hall, near the junction of the river *Portneuf* with the *Lewis*, in the southeast angle of Oregon; and another on *Wappatoo Island*, at the entrance of the *Walamet* into the Columbia, sixty miles from the Pacific. He was, however, forced to abandon his attempts, chiefly in consequence of the opposition indirectly exerted by the Hudson's Bay Company. Captain Wyeth's expeditions, though thus unprofitable to himself, have been rendered very advantageous to his countrymen, by means of the information which he has afforded respecting the territories of the Columbia. His short memoir, printed by order of the House of Representatives at Washington, in February, 1839,† conveys more exact and useful instruction as to the climate, soil, configuration of the surface, and agricultural and commercial capabilities of those countries, than any other work yet published.

1838. The posts of the Americans west of the Rocky Mountains are few, and those are on a very limited scale. Nearly all their furs are procured directly by themselves, as they trade but little with the Indians, whom the agents of the Hudson's Bay Company take care to keep at enmity with them. The hunters and trappers who remain constantly in that country are about three or four hundred in number, nearly all of them white men. In the summer of each year they repair (carrying their furs on pack-horses, or on their backs) to certain places of rendezvous, where they meet the caravans from the United States; and the trade is there conducted without the use of money, each article, however, bearing a nominal value,‡ expressed in dollars and cents. The

* The adventures of this officer and his party have been made generally known by Mr. Washington Irving, who has compiled from Captain Bonneville's notes a pleasant narrative, somewhat in the vein of Fray Antonio Agapida's Chronicle.

† Report of the committee of the House of Representatives relative to the Oregon Territory. Mr. Townsend, a naturalist of Philadelphia, who accompanied Captain Wyeth in his second journey across the continent, has published a Narrative of his Adventures. Wyeth's movements are also related incidentally in the account of Captain Bonneville's expedition.

‡ These nominal values are curious. We find, among the prices current on the Colorado, whiskey quoted at three dollars a pint; tobacco at five dollars a pound; gunpowder at six dollars a pint; dogs (for eating) at fifteen dollars each, &c.

principal places of rendezvous are on *Green River*, a branch of the Colorado, at the foot of the Rocky Mountains, on the western side, near the 42d degree of latitude; and *Pierre's Hole*, a valley about one hundred miles north of the other, from which issues one of the easternmost head-waters of the Snake, or Lewis River, emptying into the Columbia. Both these places are near the sources of a branch of the Platte, there called the *Sweet Water*, along which lies the route of the caravans from and to Missouri.

To conclude with regard to the trade in peltries, for which the countries on the northwest side of America have been hitherto principally used by the people of civilized nations. It appears to be certain that the business is declining in every part of the continent, but particularly in the territories drained by the Columbia, in consequence of the disappearance of the animals yielding the furs and skins. The Hudson's Bay Company successfully endeavor to prevent this decrease on the eastern side of the Rocky Mountains, by allowing the districts in which it is perceived to remain undisturbed for some time. On the Columbia, however, where the control of that body is less absolute, and its tenure is uncertain, such precautions are not used; and every part is yearly ransacked by traders and trappers, both British and American. How long the fur trade may yet be profitably pursued beyond the mountains, it is impossible to judge from the imperfect data obtained; there is, however, reason to believe that those regions must soon be abandoned by the Hudson's Bay Company, unless some other mode of employing its capital there can be devised, or the *entire possession of the territory can be secured to it*. In what other pursuits besides the fur trade British capitalists may advantageously employ their funds in Northwest America, is therefore an interesting question at present. From what has been hitherto learned of those countries, they do not offer prospects of a speedy return for the investment of capital in any other way. They contain lands in detached portions, which will immediately yield to the industrious cultivator the means of subsistence, and enable him, perhaps, to purchase some foreign articles of luxury or necessity. But this is all; they produce no precious metals, or commodities, no gold nor silver, nor coffee, nor cotton, nor opium; nor are they, like India, inhabited by a numerous population, who may be easily forced to labor for the benefit of a few.

Such is the state of the fur trade in the interior of Northwest America, according to the most recent accounts. In the north Pacific, this business is no longer carried on by vessels of the United States, which have been completely excluded from the coasts, by the prohibitory measures of the Russians, and the activity of the Hudson's Bay Company. The only North American furs which now enter China by sea, are brought thither direct from New York or from London; but, in compensation for the loss of that trade, the Pacific is now traversed in all parts, by numerous American whaling vessels, giving employment to nearly four thousand seamen. For these vessels, the Sandwich Islands form the principal place of resort, although they often enter the

1839. Bay of San Francisco, in California, in order to obtain water and fresh provisions. The Sandwich Islands* are now under the authority of a native Sovereign; the Bay of San Francisco still constitutes a part of the Mexican possessions. How long will these two important places remain in their present political condition? Great Britain has pretensions to the sovereignty of Owyhee; and it is rumored that her Government has made propositions to that of Mexico for the purchase of California. Should the British determine to take possession of Owyhee, there is no probability that they could be prevented from so doing. With regard to California, however, it is not to be supposed that they would occupy the country without authorization from its present possessors; and it is scarcely possible that any Mexican administration will venture to sanction such a measure, as it would undoubtedly bring immediate ruin upon the Republic.

With regard to colonization in Northwest America, it has already been shown that the Hudson's Bay Company is adverse to the existence of a free population in its territories. The only settlement which appears to have been made under its auspices, beyond the Rocky Mountains, is that on the Wallamet, where a few old Canadian voyageurs are permitted to reside, with their Indian wives and half-breed families, on condition of remaining faithful to their liege lords of the company. In the neighborhood of each large factory, indeed, a portion of ground is cleared and cultivated, and dwelling-houses, mills, and shops for artisans are

* These islands have been so frequently mentioned in the course of this memoir, that a short geographical notice of them may be usefully inserted here.

They are in number ten, situated in the north Pacific, just within the limits of the torrid zone, between $18\frac{1}{2}$ and $22\frac{1}{2}$ degrees of latitude, about three thousand miles, or twenty days' sail southwest from the mouth of the Columbia, and about twice that distance from Canton, which lies nearly due west from them. The largest of the islands, *Owyhee*, (or *Hawaii*, as it is also sometimes written,) is about four thousand miles in superficial extent, and is supposed to contain eighty thousand inhabitants. The principal port is *Honoruru*, in the island of *Woahoo*, or *Oahu*, said to be the most fertile and agreeable of the group. They were discovered by Cook in 1778, and surveyed by Vancouver, who, in 1794, obtained from Tamahamaha, King of Owyhee, the cession of that island to Great Britain, as related at page 138. Tamahamaha died in 1819, after having reduced all the Sandwich Islands under his authority; and they are at present governed by his reputed grandson, Kauikeaouli, or as he styles himself, Tamahamaha III.

The Christian religion was established, or rather the ancient religion was overthrown, after the death of Tamahamaha; and several missionaries, nearly all of them Americans, of the Presbyterian church, are at present engaged in propagating their doctrines among the people. Some time since, two French Catholic priests entered the same field as missionaries; but they were persecuted, branded as idolaters, and at length driven from the islands by the Government, at the instigation, it is supposed, of the Protestants. The affair was forgotten until last year, when the French frigate *Artemise* arrived at Honoruru, and retribution was exacted for the alleged outrages, in a manner entirely conformable with the honor and glory of the *Grande Nation*.

The value of these islands to the commerce of the north Pacific is incalculable. They form, indeed, a hotel and storehouse for the refreshment and supply of vessels, situated in the most convenient position, immediately on the highway between Asia and America. Their importance as a place of resort for the whaling vessels of the United States may be estimated from the fact, that during the months of September, October, and November, 1839, they were visited by thirty-three ships, four brigs, and one schooner, all American, employed in that branch of fishery. It is scarcely necessary to add, that, for the peace and freedom of navigation of the Pacific, the Sandwich Islands should continue politically independent. This is, however, scarcely to be expected.

erected; but these improvements are all entirely subservient to the uses and objects of the company; all proceedings not strictly connected with its pursuits being discouraged, and all persons not under its authority being treated as intruders. Of the persons in the employment of the association, a small number only are white men; and rarely is a white woman to be seen in its territories. The half-breed voyageurs, trappers, and hunters, are better, and less expensive, than any others who could be obtained; and the Indian and half-breed women are the most useful helpmates, with whom all ties may, moreover, be easily dissolved. There is, in consequence, little prospect of the diffusion of the pure Anglo-Saxon race through countries possessed by the Hudson's Bay Company.

1839.

The first emigrations from the United States for the purpose of settlement, without any special commercial views, in the countries of the Columbia, appear to have been made in 1832. Three years afterwards, a small colony of Americans was established on the Wallamet, about seventy miles from its mouth, under the direction of Mr. Jason Lee, and other Methodist clergymen; and since that period, the number of citizens of the United States permanently residing beyond the Rocky Mountains has been much increased. With regard to the condition of these settlements, no information has been recently obtained. In 1837 they were all prospering; and it may be supposed that they are continuing to do well, inasmuch as a large number of emigrants sailed for the Columbia from New York in the autumn of last year, under the superintendence of one of the founders of the Wallamet colony; and other persons are said to be now in that city preparing for a similar expedition.

It is not, however, by means of such long and dangerous voyages that citizens of the United States are to effect settlements in Northwest America; and it will doubtless be the care of their Government to render smoother and more secure the routes across the continent to those countries, *lying entirely within the undisputed limits of the Republic*. In the possession of these routes, the Americans have infinite advantages over the British, and all other nations, for occupying the regions in question; and nothing more is required to render the journey through them safe and easy, than the establishment of a few posts, at convenient distances apart, on a line between the Missouri and the passes of the Rocky Mountains, which may serve as forts to overawe the savages, and as caravanserais for the repose, and possibly even for the supply, of travellers. When this has been done, the American settlements on the Columbia will soon acquire that degree of extent and stability, which will render nugatory all claims on the part of other nations to the possession of those countries.

Within the last five or six years the Government as well as the people of the United States have begun to devote their attention seriously to matters connected with the northwest regions of this continent. Numerous petitions have been presented, and motions have been made and discussed, in both Houses of the Federal Legislature, for the annulment of the existing arrange-

1839. ment with Great Britain, the military occupation of those territories, and the extension of American jurisdiction over them; and the Executive has been sedulously engaged in collecting the information which may be necessary in order to place the subject in a proper light, and to render movements effective at the proper time. These proceedings are all so recent, and so well known, that details respecting them would be needless. Suffice it to say, that no resolution has been taken on any of the plans proposed; and that the position of the American Government with regard to the territories claimed for the United States on the Pacific, continues as fixed by its conventions with Great Britain, Russia, and Mexico.*

The writer has now completed the task assigned to him, by presenting an exposition of the most important circumstances relative to the discovery and occupation of the northwest coasts and territories of North America, by the people of various civilized nations, and of the pretensions advanced by the Governments of those nations in consequence. To indicate farther the course which should be pursued on the part of the United States with regard to their claims, lies not within his province. To conclude, he has, as he conceives, demonstrated that *the titles of the United States to the possession of the regions drained by the river Columbia, derived from priority of discovery and priority of occupation, are as yet stronger, and more consistent with the principles of national right, than those of any other Power, from whatsoever source derived.* That those regions must be eventually possessed by the people of the United States only, no one acquainted with the progress of settlement in the Mississippi valley during the last fifteen years will be inclined to question; but that Great Britain will, by every means in her power, evade the recognition of the American claims, and oppose the establishment of an American population on the shores of the Pacific, may be confidently expected, from the dispositions evinced by her Government in all its recent discussions with the United States.

* That the British Government observes its engagements with equal strictness, there is some reason to doubt; inasmuch as it is said that a large tract in the angle formed by the Pacific and the Strait of Fuca, north of Bulfinch's Harbor, has been recently granted in full possession to the Hudson's Bay, or some other company which is actually engaged in dividing and selling the lands.

APPENDIX.

A.

EXTENT OF THE PART OF THE WEST COAST OF NORTH AMERICA SEEN BY FRANCIS DRAKE IN 1579.

All that is known respecting Drake's visit to the northwest coast of America, has been derived from two narratives of his expedition, which are—

1. "*The Famous Voyage of Sir Francis Drake into the South Sea, and there hence, about the whole globe of the earth; begun in the year of our Lord 1577: by Francis Pretty;*" published in London by Hakluyt, in 1589, in his "*Voyages and Navigations of the English;*" and—

2. "*The World Encompassed by Sir Francis Drake, collected out of the Notes of Mr. Francis Fletcher, Preacher in this employment, and compared with divers others' Notes, that went in the same voyage.*" It was published in 1652; the name of the compiler is not known. Fletcher's Journal is still preserved in manuscript in the British Museum; Burney, who consulted it, could, however, gather nothing from it, in addition to what is published. The *Famous Voyage* is undoubtedly one of the "*divers others' notes*" mentioned in the title, as whole sentences, and even paragraphs, are the same in both narratives.*

The *Famous Voyage* is a plain and succinct account, in general sufficiently clear, of what the writer saw, or believed to have taken place, during the voyage. With regard to the extent of coast observed by Drake on the northwestern side of California, he says only what is contained in the following paragraph:

"The 5th day of June, being in 43 degrees of the pole arctic, being speedily come out of the extreme heat, we found the air so cold that our men, being pinched with the same, complained of the extremity thereof; and the further we went, the more the cold increased upon us. Whereupon, we thought it best for that time to seek the land, and did so, finding it not mountainous, but low plain land, and we drew back again without landing, till we came within 38 degrees towards the line; in which height it pleased God to send us into a fair and good bay, with a good wind to enter the same. In this bay we anchored on the 17th of June." After which, the writer goes on to describe the occurrences on shore.

Nothing is here said of the latitude, or of the day of the month, in which the land was first seen; it is, however, to be inferred from the context, that they did not advance far towards the north after the 5th of June, on which they were in the latitude of 43. Such was the opinion of Hak-

* The part of the *Famous Voyage* relating to the northwest coast may be found in the third volume of the reprint of Hakluyt's Collection, page 523. The *World Encompassed* is contained in the second volume of Osborne's Collection of Voyages, page 434.

luyt, who, in many parts of his works, says that Drake sailed northwest of California to the 43d degree. Purchas, in his *Pilgrims*, published in 1617, (page 52, vol. i.) relates that "Sir Francis Drake sailed on the other side of America to 43 degrees of northerly latitude, and with cold was forced to retire." And of all the other accounts and notices of this voyage, written before 1750, three only have been found, in which it is asserted that the English proceeded north of the 43d parallel in the Pacific.

The famous navigator, John Davis, in his *World's Hydrographical Discovery*, published in 1595, (*Hakluyt*, vol. iv, page 459,) says: "And after that Sir Francis Drake was entered into the South Sea, he coasted all the western shores of America, until he came into the septentrional latitude of 48 degrees." To this assertion, however, no credit can be given, inasmuch as it is nowhere else pretended that Drake saw any part of the western side of America, between Guatulco and the 38th degree.

Admiral Sir William Monson, in his *Naval Tracts*, first published in 1712, also declares, that "from the 16th of April to the 15th of June, Drake sailed without seeing land; and arrived in 48 degrees, thinking to find a passage into our seas, which land he named New Albion." Unfortunately for the admiral's consistency, he remarks, in many other parts of his *Tracts*, that Cape Mendocino, which is near the 40th parallel, is "*the farthest land discovered,*" and "*the furthestmost known part of America.*"

The *World Encompassed* is the only work, besides the two above mentioned, published before the middle of the last century, in which it is maintained that Drake advanced along the west coast of America beyond the 43d degree of latitude; and upon the statements there given Burney finds his assertion, that the whole western shore of the continent between the 42d and the 48th parallels, was first discovered by the English navigator. A few extracts from the narrative, with observations upon them, will serve to show that this decision is not warranted by sufficient authority.

* "From Guatulco," says the Rev. Mr. Fletcher, "we departed April 15, setting our course directly into the sea; whereupon we sailed five hundred leagues in longitude to get a wind, and between that and the 3d of June one thousand four hundred leagues in all, till we came into the latitude of 42 degrees north, where, in the night following, we found such an alteration of the heat into extreme and nipping cold, that our men in general did grievously complain thereof. * * * * * It came to that extremity, that in sailing but 2 degrees farther to the northward in our course, * * * * * our meat, as soon as it was removed from the fire, would presently, in a manner, be frozen up; and our ropes and tackling, in a few days, were grown to that stiffness, that what three men before were able to perform, now six men, with their best strength and utmost endeavor, were hardly able to accomplish. * * * * * The land in that part of America bearing farther out into the west than we before imagined, we were nearer on it than we were aware; and yet, the nearer still we came unto it, the more extremity of cold did seize upon us. The 5th day of June we were forced by contrary winds to run in with

* The part of the *World Encompassed*, devoted to Drake's Voyage in the north Pacific, is spread over a number of pages, the greater part of which are occupied with the speculations (of the compiler, no doubt) on the causes of the great coldness of the atmosphere in that quarter, and with accounts of the ceremonies of the natives; all of which are here omitted.

the shore, which we then first descried; and to cast anchor in a bad bay, the best road we could for the present meet with, where we were not without some danger, by reason of the many extreme gusts and flaws that beat upon us. * * * * In this place was no abiding for us, and to

go farther north the extremity of the cold would not permit us; and the winds directly bent against us, having once gotten us under sail again, commanded us to the southward, whether we would or no. From the height of 48 degrees, in which we now were, to 38, we found the land, by coasting along it, to be but low and reasonably plain; every hill, whereof we saw many, but none very high, though it were in June, and the sun in his nearest approach unto them, being covered with snow. In 38 degrees 30 minutes, we fell in with a convenient and fit harbor; and June 17 came to anchor therein, where we continued till the 23d of July; during all which time, notwithstanding it was the height of summer, and so near the sun, yet we were constantly visited with like nipping colds as we had felt before. * * * * Neither could we, at any time,

in whole fourteen days together, find the air so clear as to be able to take the height of sun or star. * * * * How unhandsome and deformed

appeared the face of the earth itself, showing trees without leaves, and the ground without greenness, in those months of June and July! * * *

For the causes of this extremity, * * * the chiefest we conceive to be, the large spreading of the Asian and American continents, which, (somewhat northward of these parts,) if they be not fully joined, yet seem to come very near one to another; from whose high and snow-covered mountains, the north and northwest winds, the constant visiters of these coasts, send abroad their frozen nymphs. * * * * And that the north and

northwest winds are here constant in June and July, as the north wind alone is in August and September, we not only found it by our own experience, but were fully confirmed in the opinion thereof by the continued observations of the Spaniards. * * * * Though we searched the

coast diligently, even unto the 48th degree, yet found we not the land to trend so much as one point in any place towards the east, but rather running on continually northwest, as if it went directly to meet with Asia."

Upon examining these statements, given in the *World Encompassed*, we find that on the *third* of June, Drake's vessel was in the latitude of *forty-two degrees*; and that on the *fifth* of the same month she anchored

near the American coast, in a bay situated under the *forty-eighth parallel*; that is to say, in the course of *sixty hours at furthest, she advanced at least three hundred and sixty miles, with the winds blowing violently against her.*

Such a rate of sailing, under such circumstances, could not be attained by any vessel at the present time; and when we, moreover, take into consideration the constant obscurity of the heavens, and the constant agitation

of the English ship by the waves, which must have rendered it impossible to observe the height of the sun, with the best instruments then in use, we may safely conclude that the account of the latitudes is erroneous.

This incongruity is not noticed by Captain Burney, who bases his decision entirely upon the authority of the *World Encompassed*. He considers as perfectly "*explicit upon the subject*" the statement in that narrative,

that the English "searched the coast diligently, even unto the 48th degree, yet they found not the land to trend so much as one point in any place towards the east." He, however, omits the remainder of the sentence—

"but rather running on continually northwest, as if it went directly

to meet with Asia," although he must have known that it destroys the value of the first part of the evidence, inasmuch as the coast nowhere between the 41st and the 47th parallels *trends so much as one point* towards the west.

Burney, moreover, being desirous to establish the character of the *World Encompassed* for correctness, scrupulously abstains from remarks upon the accounts given in that work, of the extreme coldness of the air in the north Pacific during the summer. That persons coming suddenly from the torrid zone into a region 20 degrees farther north should find the change of temperature disagreeable, is quite natural; but that "meat, as soon as it was removed from the fire, should presently be frozen up," and the ropes and tackling of a vessel be stiffened by ice, during the month of June, in any part of the ocean between the 40th and 44th degrees of latitude, is wholly incredible.

The opinion that Drake discovered the northwest coast of America as far as the 48th degree of latitude was not countenanced by any other writers than the three above cited before the year 1750, when it was adopted by the compilers of the *Biographia Britannica*, in their life of the hero. Among those who considered the 43d parallel as the northern limit of that navigator's course in the Pacific, are De Laet, in his *Histoire du Nouveau Monde*; Ogilby, in his *History of America*; Heylin, in his *Cosmography*; Locke, in his *History of Navigation*; and last, not least, Dr. Samuel Johnson, in his *Biography of Drake*. In the maps of America, contained in Heylin's *Cosmography*,* printed in 1708, and in the curious *Historical Atlas of Mitchell and Senex*, published in 1720, California is represented as an island extending from the 23d parallel to the 44th, in the northern part of which New Albion is located. These authorities will serve at least to show which of the two opinions may be regarded as an innovation.

The question is of little importance. The British Government has, however, on many occasions, evinced, indirectly, a desire to found some claim to the possession of the northwestern side of America upon the supposed discoveries of Drake in that quarter. The name *New Albion* will be generally found occupying a large space on all maps of America published in Great Britain. In the chart attached to the *Journal of Vancouver's expedition*, the *whole of California* is thus designated; and as recently as 1827, it has been insisted on the part of the British Government that Great Britain had obtained grants of territory on the northwest coast of America, from the inhabitants, before the existence of the United States as a nation.

To conclude: there is no absolute evidence that Drake did not discover the northwest American coast as far north as the 48th degree; but, on the other hand, the assertion that he did is not supported by adequate testimony, and, where originally made, it is accompanied by statements irreconcilable with the results of experience. It may be admitted that the English did, in 1579, see the part of that coast included between the 38th and the 43d parallels; but it is equally certain, if not more so, that such part had been already discovered by the Spaniards, under Cabrillo and Ferrelo, in 1543.

* It may be here remarked, that in Heylin's map of America, the northwest coast beyond California to the extremity of Aliaska, is laid down almost accurately. Yet we have no accounts of any discoveries in that part of the Pacific of a date earlier than 1741.

B.

PRETENDED DISCOVERY, BY MALDONADO, OF A NORTHERN PASSAGE BETWEEN THE ATLANTIC AND THE PACIFIC IN 1588.

The Spanish manuscript discovered by Amoretti in the Ambrosian Library at Milan, and of which he published a French translation in 1812, (see page 40,) is entitled: "*A Relation of the Discovery of the Strait of Anian, made by me, Captain Lorenzo Ferrer de Maldonado, in the year 1588, in which is written the order of the navigation, the situation of the place, and the manner of fortifying it.*" It consisted of thirty-five paragraphs, the most material of which are presented by Burney in his History of Voyages in the South Sea, vol. v, page 167; they are as follows:

"By means of this strait, the King would render himself sole master of all the spices, and make a profit of five millions annually, by constraining other nations to send to Spain to procure them. Spain, therefore, ought immediately to set about securing and fortifying this strait. But it is necessary that I should show the route which must be taken, the ports that will be found, and that I add thereto a narration of my voyage.

"Departing from Spain or Lisbon, the course is to the northwest four hundred and fifty leagues, by which you will arrive to 60 degrees north latitude, where you will have sight of Friesland. Thence, the route must be to the west, keeping in the said latitude one hundred and eighty leagues to the land of Labrador, at the place where begins the Strait of Labrador. Here are two channels: one leading to the northeast, and the other to the northwest. The course must be in that to the northwest, to 64 degrees, where the channel changes its direction; and you will have to sail north one hundred and twenty leagues, to the latitude of 72 degrees. The channel then again turns to the northwest, and you run in it to 75 degrees. You then entirely quit the Strait of Labrador, and begin to lower your latitude, steering west-by-south three hundred and fifty leagues, to latitude 71 degrees. It was at this place in our voyage that we discovered a high land, but we could not discern if it was island or continent. Nevertheless, we concluded that if it was the main land it would be joined to New Spain. From seeing this land, you steer west-southwest four hundred and forty leagues, to 60 degrees latitude, where should be found the Strait of Anian. In this manner they will make the same navigation which I have made, at least from Friesland to this place. The distance to be sailed, from Spain to the Strait of Anian, is one thousand seven hundred and ten leagues.

"When we went out from the Strait of Labrador, which was at the beginning of the month of March, we had much to suffer from the darkness, the cold, and tempests. Those who think this sea can be entirely frozen over are in an error; for, by reason of its extent, of the great currents which are in the strait, and the high waves which keep the sea continually in motion, it cannot be frozen; but on the shores, and in the places where the sea is tranquil, I think it may be frozen.

"When we were on our return, in the month of June, and in part of July, we had continual light, and the sun never descended below the horizon, till we were the second time in the middle of the Strait of Labrador. Whilst the sun remained continually above the horizon, the air was so warm that we had to suffer as much from the heat as in the hottest time in Spain.

“The strait which we discovered in 60 degrees north latitude appears to be that which, from an ancient tradition, the cosmographers in their charts call the Strait of Anian; and, if it is true that such a strait exists it ought, necessarily, to leave Asia on one side, and America on the other. When we went out of the strait into the Great Sea, [the Pacific Ocean,] we navigated along the coast of America more than one hundred leagues, having our prow to the southwest till we found ourselves in 55 degrees latitude. We then left this coast, which we saw prolonged itself towards the south, and directed our prow to the west four days, at thirty leagues per day, and discovered a large land and great chains of mountains. We navigated along it, keeping at a distance, sometimes to the northeast, sometimes to the northwest, and sometimes to the north, but in general to the northeast. We could not know particular things of this coast, because we kept far off from the land. I can only affirm that the country is peopled, because in many places we saw men; and we judged that these lands were the lands of the Tartars, or of Catay. At length, following this same coast, we again found ourselves in the Strait of Anian, from which we had gone fifteen days before into the Great Sea, which we knew to be the South Sea, where lie the countries of Japan, China, the Moluccas, and New Guinea, with the discovery of Captain Quiros, and all the western coast of New Spain and Peru.

“At the mouth of the strait by which you enter the South Sea, on the American side, is a port capable of containing five hundred ships. The country is pleasant; the temperature agreeable; the cold of the winter not rigorous, though in 59 degrees north latitude, to judge by the kinds of fruits which were found. Here are very high trees, some producing good fruits like to those in Spain, and others not before known to us.

“The strait has fifteen leagues of extent, in which it makes six turns or angles, and the two entrances are north and south from each other. The breadth of the northern entrance is less than half a quarter of a league. The southern entrance, which is near the port, is more than a quarter of a league in breadth; and in the middle is a great rock or islot, about two hundred paces in diameter, of a circular form, and of the height of three stades. The channel, on one side of this islot, is so shallow as to be navigable only for boats; but the channel between the islot and the land of America, though not quite half a quarter of a league in breadth, has deep water for ships. The borders are low; and forts might be built both on the main land and on the islot, which would straiten the passage to within musket shot. The passage might also be shut or locked up with a chain across, which with industry might be formed strong enough to stand against the currents.

“It is difficult to know the entrance of the strait on the northern side, because the two shores interlock, reciprocally hiding each other. In fact, when we first arrived there, we were some days without perceiving it, although we had already entered, being guided by a good narrative of Juan Martinez, pilot-mayor, who was a Portuguese, a native of Algarva, a very old man and of much experience. But I have taken marks by the mountains, to enable me to make another navigation if I should have occasion.

“In the port where we cast anchor, we lay from the beginning of April to the middle of June. At this epoch, we saw come from the South Sea to enter the strait a great ship of eight hundred tons, which made us take to our arms; but we reciprocally came to know each other as peaceable

voyagers. The sailors had the generosity to give us some of the merchandise of their cargo, which resembled the things which come to us from China, as brocades, silks, porcelain, and other effects of value, as precious stones and gold. These people appeared to us to be Moscovites, or Hanseatics; that is to say, those who make their residence in the Port of Saint Michael, [Hamburg.] They said they came from a large town, which was distant from the strait a little more than one hundred leagues, where they had left another vessel of their country. We could not obtain much information from these people, because they spoke to us with little confidence and much circumspection; and, for that reason, we soon separated, and, having left them near the strait and in the North Sea, we took the route for Spain."

The London Quarterly Review for October, 1816, contains an exposition of the numerous falsehoods and blunders contained in this *relation*, and pronounces "the pretended voyage of Maldonado to be the clumsy and audacious forgery of some ignorant German, from the circumstance of fifteen leagues to the degree being used in some of the computations." The reviewer avows his belief that Maldonado did make a voyage in the north Pacific, about the end of the 16th century, and that he may possibly have reached Prince William's Sound or Cook's Inlet, either of which might have been then at first mistaken for a strait separating Asia from America.

C.

ACCOUNT OF THE VOYAGE OF JUAN DE FUCA IN 1592.

[Extracted from Purchas's Pilgrims, vol. iii, page 849.*]

"A Note made by me, Michael Lock, the elder, touching the strait of sea, commonly called *Fretum Anian*, in the South Sea, through the northwest passage of *Meta Incognita*.

"When I was at *Venice*, in April, 1596, happily arrived there an old man, about sixty years of age, called commonly *Juan de Fuca*, but named properly *Apostolos Valerianus*, of nation a Greek, born in *Cephalonia*, of profession a mariner, and an ancient pilot of ships. This man, being come lately out of Spain, arrived first at *Leghorn*, and went thence to *Florence*, where he found one John Douglas, an Englishman, a famous mariner, ready coming for *Venice*, to be pilot of a Venetian ship for England, in whose company they came both together to *Venice*. And John Douglas being acquainted with me before, he gave me knowledge of this Greek pilot, and brought him to my speech; and in long talks and conference between us, in presence of John Douglas, this Greek pilot declared, in the Italian and Spanish languages, thus much in effect as followeth:

"First: he said that he had been in the West Indies of Spain forty years, and had sailed to and from many places thereof, in the service of the Spaniards.

* The orthography of the English is modernized; the letters are, however, given in their original Spanish-Italian *lingua franca*.

“Also, he said that he was in the Spanish ship which, in returning from the Islands *Philippinas*, towards *Nova Spania*, was robbed and taken at the *Cape California* by *Captain Candish*, Englishman, whereby he lost sixty thousand ducats of his own goods.

“Also, he said that he was pilot of three small ships, which the Viceroy of *Mexico* sent from *Mexico*, armed with one hundred men, under a captain, Spaniards, to discover the *Straits of Anian*, along the coast of the *South Sea*, and to fortify in that strait, to resist the passage and proceedings of the English nation, which were feared to pass through those straits into the *South Sea*; and that, by reason of a mutiny which happened among the soldiers for the misconduct of their captain, that voyage was overthrown, and the ship returned from *California* to *Nova Spania*, without any thing done in that voyage; and that, after their return, the captain was at *Mexico* punished by justice.

“Also, he said that shortly after the said voyage was so ill ended, the said Viceroy of *Mexico* sent him out again in 1592, with a small caravel and a pinnace, armed with mariners only, to follow the said voyage for the discovery of the *Straits of Anian*, and the passage thereof into the sea, which they call the *North Sea*, which is our northwest sea; and that he followed his course in that voyage, west and northwest in the *South Sea*, all along the coast of *Nova Spania*, and *California*, and the *Indies*, now called *North America*, (all which voyage he signified to me in a great map, and a sea card of mine own, which I laid before him,) until he came to the latitude of 47 degrees; and that there finding that the land trended north and northeast, with a broad inlet of sea, between 47 and 48 degrees of latitude, he entered thereinto, sailing therein more than twenty days, and found that land trending still sometime northwest and northeast, and north, and also east and southeastward, and very much broader sea than was at the said entrance, and that he passed by divers islands in that sailing; and that at the entrance of this said strait, there is, on the northwest coast thereof, a great headland or island, with an exceeding high pinnacle, or spired rock, like a pillar thereupon.

“Also, he said that he went on land in divers places, and that he saw some people on land clad in beasts’ skins; and that the land is very fruitful, and rich of gold, silver, pearls, and other things, like *Nova Spania*.

“And also, he said that he being entered thus far into the said strait, and being come into the *North Sea* already, and finding the sea wide enough everywhere, and to be about thirty or forty leagues wide in the mouth of the straits, where he entered, he thought he had now well discharged his office; and that not being armed to resist the force of the savage people, that might happen, he therefore set sail, and returned homewards again towards *Nova Spania*; where he arrived at *Acapulco*, anno 1592, hoping to be rewarded by the Viceroy for this service done in the said voyage.

“Also, he said that after coming to *Mexico*, he was greatly welcomed by the Viceroy, and had promises of great reward; but that having sued there two years, and obtained nothing to his content, the Viceroy told him that he should be rewarded in Spain, of the King himself, very greatly, and willed him therefore to go to Spain; which voyage he did perform.

“Also, he said that when he was come into Spain, he was welcomed there at the King’s court; but after long suit there also, he could not get any reward there to his content; and, therefore, at length he stole away

out of Spain, and came into Italy, to go home again and live among his own kindred and countrymen, he being very old.

“Also, he said that he thought the cause of his ill reward had of the Spaniards, to be for that they did understand very well that the English nation had now given over all their voyages for discovery of the north-west passage; wherefore they need not fear them any more to come that way into the *South Sea*, and, therefore, they needed not his service therein any more.

“Also, he said that, understanding the noble mind of the Queen of England, and of her wars against the Spaniards, and hoping that her Majesty would do him justice for his goods lost by Captain Candish, he would be content to go into England, and serve her Majesty in that voyage for the discovery perfectly of the northwest passage into the *South Sea*, if she would furnish him with only one ship of forty tons burden and a pinnace; and that he would perform it in thirty days time, from one end to the other of the strait; and he willed me so to write to England.

“And upon conference had twice with the said Greek pilot, I did write thereof accordingly to England, unto the right honorable the old Lord Treasurer Cecil, and to Sir Walter Raleigh, and to Master Richard Hakluyt, that famous cosmographer, certifying them hereof. And I prayed them to disburse one hundred pounds, to bring the said Greek pilot into England with myself, for that my own purse would not stretch so wide at that time. And I had answer that this action was well liked, and greatly desired in England; but the money was not ready, and therefore this action died at that time, though the said Greek pilot perchance liveth still in his own country, in *Cephalonia*, towards which place he went within a fortnight after this conference had at *Venice*.

“And in the mean time, while I followed my own business in *Venice*, being in a lawsuit against the company of merchants of Turkey, to recover my pension due for being their consul at *Aleppo*, which they held from me wrongfully; and when I was in readiness to return to England, I thought I should be able of my own purse to take with me the said Greek pilot; and, therefore, I wrote unto him from *Venice* a letter, dated July, 1596, which is copied here under:

* *Al Mag^{co}. Sig^{or}. Capitan Juan de Fuca, Piloto de India, amigo mio char^{mo} en Zefalonia.*

“MUY HONRADO SENNOR: Siendo yo para buelverme en Inglatierra dentre de pocas mezes, y accuerdandome de lo trattato entre my y V. M. en Venesia sobre el viago de las Indias, me ha parecido bien de scriver esta carta a V. M. para que se tengais animo de andar con migo, puedais escri-

* *To the Magnificent Captain Juan de Fuca, Pilot of the Indies; my most dear friend in Cephalonia.*

MOST HONORED SIR: Being about to return to England in a few months, and recollecting what passed between you and myself at Venice respecting the voyage to the Indies, I have thought proper to write you this letter, so that if you have a mind to go with me, you can write me word directly how we are to arrange. You may send me your letter with this English vessel, which is at Zante, (if you should find no better opportunity,) directed to the care of Mr. Eleazer Hyckman, an English merchant, Saint Thomas street, Venice. God preserve you, sir.

Your friend,

MICHAEL LOCK, of *England*.

VENICE, July 1, 1596.

birme presto en que manera quereis consertaros. Y pueiais embiarmi vuestra carta con esta nao Ingles, que sta al Zante (sino hallais otra coluntura mejor) con el sobrescrito que diga en casa del Sennor Eleazar Hycman, mercader Ingles, al tragetto de San Tomas en Venesia. Y Dios guarde la persona de V. M. Fecha en Venesia al primer dia de Julio, 1596 annos.

“Amigo de V. M.,

“MICHAEL LOCK, *Ingles.*

“And I sent the said letter from Venice to Zante in the ship Cherubin; and shortly after I sent a copy thereof in the ship Minion; and also a third copy thereof by Manea Orlando, patron de nave Venetian. And unto my said letters he wrote me answer to Venice by one letter, which came not to my hands; and also by another letter, which came to my hands; which is copied here under:

* “*Al Ill^{mo}. Sig^{or}. Michael Lock, Ingles, in casa del Sig^{or}. Lasaro, mercader Ingles, al tragetto de San Tomas en Venesia.*

“MUY ILLUSTRE SIG^{or}.: La carta de V. M. recevi a 20 dias del mese di Settembre, por loqual veo loche V. M. me manda. Io tengo animo de complir loche tengo prometido a V. M. y no solo yo, mas tengo vinte hombres para lievar con migo, porche son hombres vaglientes; y assi estoi esperando por otra carta che avise a V. M. parache me embiais los dinieros che tengo escrito a V. M. Porche bien save V. M. como io vine pover, porque me gliervo Captain Candis mas de sessenta mille ducados, como V. M. bien save; embiandome lo dicho, ire a servir a V. M. con todos mis compagneros. I no spero otra cosa mas de la voluntad é carta de V. M. con tanto nostro Sig^{or}. Dios guarda la illustre persona de V. M. muchos annos. De Ceffalonia a 24 de Settembre del 1596.

“Amigo y servitor de V. M.,

“JUAN FUCA.

“And the said letter came into my hands in Venice, the 16th day of November, 1596; but my lawsuit with the company of Turkey was not ended, by reason of Sir John Spenser's suit, made in England at the Queen's court to the contrary, seeking only to have his money discharged, which I had attached in Venice for my said pension, and thereby my own purse was not yet ready for the Greek pilot.

“And, nevertheless, hoping that my said suit would have shortly a good

* *To the illustrious Michael Lock, Englishman, at the house of Mr. Lazaro, English merchant, in Saint Thomas street, Venice.*

MOST ILLUSTRIOS SIR: Your letter was received by me on the 20th of September, by which I am informed of what you communicate. I have a mind to comply with my promise to you; and have not only myself, but twenty men, (brave men, too,) whom I can carry with me; so, I am waiting for another letter from you, about the money which I asked you to send me. For, you know well, sir, how I became poor, in consequence of Captain Candish's having taken from me more than sixty thousand ducats, as you know. If you will send me what I asked, I will go with you, as well as all my companions. I expect no more from your kindness, or from the tenor of your letter. God preserve you, most illustrious sir, for many years.

Your friend and servant,

JUAN FUCA.

CEPHALONIA, September 24, 1596.

end, I wrote another letter to this Greek pilot from Venice, dated the 20th of November, 1596, which came not to his hands; and, also, another letter, dated the 24th of January, 1596, which came to his hands. And thereof he wrote me answer, dated the 28th of May, 1597, which I received the 1st of August, 1597, by Thomas Norden, an English merchant, yet living in London, wherein he promised still to go with me unto England, to perform the said voyage for discovery of the northwest passage into the South Sea, if I would send him money for his charges, according to his former writing, without which money he said he could not go, for that as he was undone utterly when he was in the ship *Santa Anna*, which came from China, and was robbed at California. And yet again afterward I wrote him another letter from Venice, whereunto he wrote me answer by a letter written in his Greek language, dated the 20th of October, 1598, the which I have still by me, wherein he promiseth still to go with me into England, and perform the said voyage of discovery of the northwest passage into the South Sea by the said straits, which he calleth the Strait of *Nova Spania*, which he saith is but thirty days' voyage in the straits, if I will send him the money formerly written for his charges; the which money I could not yet send him, for that I had not yet recovered my pension owing me by the company of Turkey aforesaid; and so, of long time, I staid any further proceeding with him in this matter.

"And yet, lastly, when I myself was at *Zante* in the month of June, 1602, minding to pass from thence for England by sea, for that I had then recovered a little money from the company of Turkey, by an order of the Lords of the Privy Council of England, I wrote another letter to this Greek pilot to *Cephalonia*, and required him to come to me to *Zante*, and go with me into England, but I had no answer thereof from him; for that, as I heard afterward at *Zante*, he was then dead, or very likely to die of great sickness. Whereupon, I returned myself by sea from *Zante* to Venice, and from thence I went by land through France into England, where I arrived at Christmas, anno 1602; safely, I thank God, after my absence from thence ten years' time, with great troubles had for the company of Turkey's business, which hath cost me a great sum of money, for the which I am not yet satisfied of them."

D.

OCCURRENCES AT NOOTKA SOUND IN 1789 AND 1792.

(1.)

Translation of a letter from Don J. F. de la Bodega y Quadra, the Spanish commandant at Nootka Sound, to Captains Gray and Ingraham, commanding the American merchant vessels Columbia and Washington, then lying in that harbor.

NOOTKA, August 2, 1792.

In order to satisfy the Court of England, as is just, for the injury, damages, and usurpation, which it conceives itself to have sustained at this port in the year 1789, I have to request of you, gentlemen, the favor to inform me, with that sincerity which distinguishes you, and which is

conformable with truth and honor, wherefore Don Esteban José Martinez seized the vessels of Colnett, the Iphigenia and the Northwest America? What establishment or building did Mr. Meares have, on the arrival of the Spaniards? What territories are those which he says that he purchased from Maquinna, Yuquiniarri, or any other chief of these tribes? With what objects were the crew of the Northwest America transferred to the Columbia; and were ninety-six skins placed on board that ship? Finally, what was the whole amount of skins carried by you to China, and to whom did they belong?*

Your most obedient and assured servant,

JUAN FRANCISCO DE LA BODEGA Y QUADRA.

To Captains ROBERT GRAY and JOSEPH INGRAHAM.

(2.)

Reply to the preceding letter.†

Nootka Sound, August 3, 1792.

SIR: Your esteemed favor was handed to us yesterday, requesting from us information relative to the transactions between the English and Spaniards in this sound in the year 1789, which we will do with great pleasure, and impartially, as you request.

On the 5th of May, 1789, when Don Estevan Jose Martinez arrived in Friendly Cove, he found riding at anchor there the Iphigenia only; the ship Columbia being at Mahwhinna, five miles up the sound. The sloop Washington and Northwest America (schooner) were on a cruise. This information is necessary in order to regulate the sequel of the present. After the usual ceremonies of meeting were over, Don Martinez requested the papers of each vessel, and demanded why they were at anchor in Nootka Sound, alleging it belonged to his Catholic Majesty. Captain Viana, who passed as commander of the Iphigenia, answered, they had put in, being in distress, having but little provisions, and in great want of every necessary, such as cables, anchors, rigging, sails, &c.; that they were in daily expectation of the arrival of Captain Meares from Macao to supply them, when they should depart.‡ Captain Meares was expected to return in the same vessel he sailed in from hence in the year 1788, which was under the Portuguese colors, and had a Portuguese captain on board; this vessel with the Iphigenia were said to belong to one Cravalia, or Cavallo, a merchant of Macao, in whose name the Iphigenia's papers were made out. Seeing the Iphigenia was in such want, Don Martinez gave them a temporary assistance, by supplying them with such articles as they were most in want, till the vessel before mentioned should arrive. At this

* The original letter is attached to the Journal of Captain Ingraham, which is now in the office of the Secretary of State, at Washington.

† Copied from Ingraham's Journal. This letter is now for the first time published. An incorrect synopsis of it may be found in the Journal of Vancouver's Voyage, vol. i, page 389. Some of the discrepancies between which and the letter will be here indicated by the notes.

‡ Vancouver renders this passage as follows: "Captain Viana, of the Portuguese vessel, answered, that he had put in there in distress, to await the arrival of Captain Meares from Macao;" omitting, as he does throughout his synopsis, all the particulars calculated to show the miserable condition of the Iphigenia, and the extent of the assistance afforded by the Spaniards.

time there was not the least suspicion of any misunderstanding or disturbance among us, as Don Martinez was apparently satisfied with the answers each vessel had given to his request.

However, on the 10th of May, the San Carlos, Captain Arrow, [Haro,] arrived. The same day the American officers came to Uquot, or Friendly Cove, to welcome them in, and the next morning, the 11th of May, Don Martinez captured the Iphigenia, and his reason, as we understood, was, that, in their Portuguese instructions, they had orders to capture any English, Spanish, or Russian subjects they met on the northwest coast of America. This, at the time, seemed improbable, as she was a vessel of small force, and it was afterwards found to have been a mistake, owing to their want of a perfect knowledge of the Portuguese language. However, after the vessel was taken, the officers and seamen were divided, some on board the Princesa, and some on board the San Carlos, where they were treated with all imaginable kindness and every attention paid them.

* On the 24th of May the abovementioned mistake being discovered, the Iphigenia was returned again and the Portuguese flag hoisted on board her; the same day, Captain Douglas, with the Portuguese captain and seamen, repaired on board. The Iphigenia, while in possession of the Spaniards, from being a wreck was put in complete order for sea, being calked, rigging and sails repaired, anchors and cables sent from the Princesa, &c. On the 26th Don Martinez supplied them with every kind of provisions they were in need of, for which Captain Douglas gave him bills on Cravallia, the beforementioned merchant of Macao. On the 31st the Iphigenia sailed, and was saluted by the Spanish fort; and the commodore accompanied them out of the harbor, giving every assistance with boats, &c. When Captain Douglas took his leave of the commodore, he declared he should ever entertain a sense of Don Martinez's kindness, deeming his conduct relative to the vessel no more than his duty as a king's officer. Upon the whole, we both believe the Iphigenia's being detained was of infinite service to those who were concerned in her. This must be plain to every one who will consider the situation of the vessel when the Princesa arrived, and the advantages reaped from the supplies and assistance of the Spaniards. The detention, if it may be called so, could be no detriment; for, had nothing taken place, she must have remained two months longer at least, having, as has already been mentioned, put into port, being in distress; of course they could not have sailed till supplies arrived, which was not till July, as will appear in the sequel; whereas, being early fitted as above mentioned, she sailed on the coast northward of Nootka Sound, and there being no other vessel there, they collected upwards of seven hundred sea-otter skins; which has been often represented to us by Captain Douglas and his officers, after our arrival in China. This may suffice for the transactions relative to the Iphigenia. Before Captain Douglas sailed, he gave Don Estevan Martinez a letter to Mr. Funter, master of the schooner Northwest America, telling him, from Cap-

* Of the whole of this paragraph, all that is said by Vancouver is: "The vessel and cargo were liberated, and Martinez supplied the Iphigenia's wants from the Princesa, enabling her, by so doing, to prosecute her voyage without waiting for the return of Mr. Meares." The extremity of distress to which the Iphigenia was reduced on her arrival at Nootka, the seven hundred sea-otter skins, and the other advantages derived by her owners from the supplies furnished by the Spanish commandant, are carefully kept out of sight.

tain Meares not arriving at the appointed time, there was great reason to fear the vessel he sailed from Nootka in had never reached China, (she being in bad condition when she sailed from this place;) therefore, as he, Mr. Funter, must, on his arrival, be destitute of every necessary, he was at liberty to conduct as he thought most conducive to the interests of his employers. We shall make mention of this vessel again hereafter.

Interim, we observe your wish to be acquainted what house or establishment Mr. Meares had at the time the Spaniards arrived here? We answer in a word—*none*. On the arrival of the Columbia in the year 1788, there was a house, or rather a hut, consisting of rough posts covered with boards made by the Indians; but this Captain Douglas pulled to pieces prior to his sailing for the Sandwich Islands the same year. The boards he took on board the Iphigenia, and the roof he gave to Captain Kendrick, which was cut up and used as firewood on board the Columbia; so that, on the arrival of Don Estevan J. Martinez, there was no vestige of any house remaining. As to the land Mr. Meares said he purchased of Maquinna or any other chief, we cannot say further than we never heard of any; although we remained among these people nine months, and could converse with them perfectly well. Besides this, we have asked Maquinna and other chiefs, since our late arrival, if Captain Meares ever purchased any land in Nootka Sound; they answered—*no*; that Captain Kendrick was the only man to whom they had ever sold any land.

On the 8th of June the schooner Northwest America arrived, and the next day the Spaniards took possession of her. Don E. J. Martinez had an account taken of the property on board, particularly of the skins, which he said should be given to the officers and seamen, that they might be sure of their wages. On the 16th of June the sloop Princess Royal arrived from Macao, commanded by Thomas Hudson; this vessel brought accounts of the safe arrival of Captain Meares, and that Captain Colnett was coming on the coast, commodore of the English trading-vessels from Macao, for the ensuing season, in a snow named the Argonaut. Mr. Hudson likewise brought accounts of the failure of Juan Cravallia & Co., merchants of Macao before mentioned. What right the commodore had to detain the Northwest America before, it is not for us to say; but he always said it was an agreement* between Captain Douglas and himself; but, after the arrival of this vessel with the above news, he held her as security for the bills of exchange drawn on said Cravallia & Co. in favor of his Catholic Majesty: this we have heard him say. On the 2d of July the Princess Royal sailed out of the port, having, to our knowledge, been treated by the commodore and his officers with every possible attention, which Captain Hudson himself seemed conscious of and grateful for. Prior to this vessel's sailing, the commodore gave to Mr. Funter† all the skins he brought in, in the Northwest America, which were shipped on board the sloop Princess Royal by Mr. Funter, for his own account. In the evening of the 2d a sail was descried from the Spanish fort; we were among the first that went out to meet them; it proved to be the Argonaut, Captain Colnett, before mentioned. The transactions of this vessel were such, that we can give the sense of them

* Of this supposed agreement Vancouver says nothing.

† Nothing of this in Vancouver's synopsis.

in a few words, that may answer every purpose of the particulars, many of which are not immediately to the point, or tending to what we suppose you wish to know.

It seems Captain Meares, with some other Englishmen at Macao, had concluded to erect a fort and settle a colony in Nootka Sound; from what authority we cannot say. However, on the arrival of the Argonaut, we heard Captain Colnett inform the Spanish commodore he had come for that purpose, and to hoist the British flag, take formal possession, &c. To which the commodore answered, he had taken possession already in the name of his Catholic Majesty; on which, Captain Colnett asked if he would be prevented from building a house in the port. The commodore, mistaking his meaning, answered him, he was at liberty to erect a tent, get wood and water, &c., after which he was at liberty to depart when he pleased; but Captain Colnett said that was not what he wanted, but to build a block-house, erect a fort, and settle a colony for the Crown of Great Britain. Don Estevan José Martinez answered *no*; that, in doing that, he should violate the orders of his King, run a risk of losing his commission, and, not only that, but it would be relinquishing the Spaniards' claim to the coast; besides, Don Martinez observed, the vessels did not belong to the King, nor was he intrusted with powers to transact such public business. On which, Captain Colnett answered, he was a King's officer; but Don Estevan replied, his being in the navy was of no consequence in the business. * In conversing on the subject, after the arrival of the vessel in port, it seems Captain Colnett insulted the commodore by threatening him, and drew his sword in the Princesa's cabin; on which Don Martinez ordered the vessel to be seized. We did not see him draw his sword, but were informed of the circumstance by those whose veracity we had no reason to doubt. After seizing the Argonaut, the sloop Princess Royal arrived a second time; and, as she belonged to the same company, the commodore took possession of her also. With respect to the treatment of the prisoners, although we have not perused Mr. Meares's publication, we presume none of them will be backward in confessing that Don E. J. Martinez always treated them very kindly, and all his officers consistent with the character of gentlemen.

Having acquainted you with the principal part of the business, agreeable to request, one thing remains to answer—which is, of the captain, officers, and seamen of the Northwest America. You ask if we carried them to China? We did, and with them one hundred sea-otter skins, the value of which we judge, independent of freight, was \$4,875; these were delivered to Mr. Meares, and were, we suppose, his property. We sincerely hope, sir, when things are represented with truth, it will rescue our friend Don Estevan J. Martinez from censure; at least, that he may not be deemed an impostor and a pirate, which many, from only hearing some part of the story, supposed he was. As to the treatment of the Americans by Don Estevan, we have ever testified it in terms due to such hospitality, and are happy again to have it in our power to do what we deem

* Vancouver here writes, using the first person as if copying the words of the American captains: "In conversation afterwards on this subject, as we were informed, (say these gentlemen,) for we were not present during this transaction, some dispute arose in the Princesa's cabin; on which Don Martinez ordered the Argonaut to be seized. Soon after this the Princess Royal returned," &c. The rumor that "Colnett insulted the commodore by threatening him, and drew his sword in the Princesa's cabin," being omitted.

justice to his conduct. While speaking of others of your nation, we can never be unmindful of you; your kind reception and treatment of us has made an impression that will not be easily erased; and we hope you will bear in mind how very sincerely we are, sir, your most humble servants,

ROBERT GRAY,
JOSEPH INGRAHAM.

TO DON JUAN FRANCISCO DE LA BODEGA Y QUADRA.

E.

RESPECTING THE SUPPOSED SETTLEMENT OF BOUNDARIES BETWEEN THE FRENCH AND BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN AMERICA, AGREEABLY TO THE PROVISIONS TO THAT EFFECT IN THE TREATY OF UTRECHT. (SEE PAGE 150.)

No allusion to the settlement of boundaries between the British and French possessions in America, agreeably to the tenth article of the treaty concluded at Utrecht, in 1714, or to the appointment of commissaries for that purpose, has been found in any of the following works, which have been all carefully examined with reference to the subject, viz :

Corps Diplomatique, by Dumont; Collection de Traités, by Martens; Collections of British Treaties, by Wilkinson and Hertset; Actes, Mémoires, &c., concernant la Paix d'Utrecht; Actes, Négociations, &c., depuis la Paix d'Utrecht, by Rousset; Mémoires des Commissaires Anglais et Français, &c., published in 1754; Collection des Edits, Ordonnances, &c., concernant le Canada; Histoire de la Louisiane, by Dupratz; Histoire de la Louisiane, by Marbois; Mémoire sur la Louisiane, by Dumont; Mémoire sur la Louisiane, by Vergennes; Histoire des Indes, &c., by Raynal; the Encyclopédie Méthodique; Histories of England, by Smollett, Belsham, Lord Mahon, and Wade; Parliamentary History of England; History of the British Empire in America, by Wynne; History of Hudson's Bay, by Dobbs; Boyer's Political State—the volume for 1721 contains memoirs of Louisiana, and a map of that country; American Traveller, by Cluny; the large historical and geographical atlas by Mitchell and Senex, published at London in 1721, containing particular accounts and maps of the British and the French possessions in America; Civil and Natural History of the French Dominions in America, by Jeffries—a comprehensive work containing numerous maps, published in 1760; American atlas, by Jeffries, published in 1778; Alcedo's Dictionary of America; map of North America, (the largest and most beautiful ever published,) by Henry Pople, which appeared in 1738, under the auspices of the Colonial Department of Great Britain; map of America, published in 1794 from the materials of Governor Pownal;—or in any other works or maps which could be considered as authorities on the subject, except those now to be mentioned.

Charlevoix, in his *Histoire de la Nouvelle France*,* says that commissaries were appointed in 1719 by the Governments of Great Britain and

* Alluding to disputes between the British and the Indians in Nova Scotia, Charlevoix says, (vol. iv, page 124:) "La France n'entraint point dans ce demêlé, pour ne point donner le moindre prétexte de rompre la bonne intelligence qu'il avait tant coûté de rétablir, entre les deux Couronnes; on cessa même de négocier dans les deux Cours, le règlement des limites, quoique dès l'année 1719 il y eut des commissaires nommés pour cela de part et d'autre."

France to determine the limits between the possessions of the two Powers in America; but that all negotiations on that subject ended in 1722, in consequence of the desire of those Courts to avoid causes of dissatisfaction. Whether or not any settlement of boundaries was effected, he does not directly say; but from his language it is to be inferred that those questions were left undetermined. In the maps attached to his work, no line appears as the limit between the Hudson's Bay territory and the possessions of France.

The Dictionary of Commerce, translated by M. Postlewhaite from the French of Savary, with alterations and amendments, and published in 1751, contains no allusion to the southern limits of the Hudson's Bay territories, although a large portion of the work is devoted to the subject of the British and French possessions in America; but in the large map of America, attached to the Dictionary, which is there stated to have been copied, with corrections, from one then recently published at Paris (in 1746) by D'Anville, a line is laid down as the limit between the Hudson's Bay countries and the French dominions. The part of this line extending north and northwest of Lake Superior, runs nearly, but not exactly, along the 49th parallel; and a note on the map says "*the line that parts French Canada from British Canada was settled by commissaries after the peace of Utrecht, making a curve from Davis's Inlet, in the Atlantic Sea, down to the Lake Abitibis, to the Northwest Ocean; therefore M. D'Anville's dotted line east of James's Bay is false.*" No copy of D'Anville's map has been found; but the above note appears to show that the line west of James's Bay is given by Postlewhaite as represented by the French geographer.

Postlewhaite's assertion is, however, directly contradicted by John Mitchell, whose large map of America, published in 1755, under the immediate patronage of the Colonial Department of Great Britain, is generally considered as the best authority with regard to the political geography of America, at that period. In this map, a line drawn irregularly from the Atlantic along the highlands, or supposed highlands, dividing the waters falling into Hudson's Bay from those emptying into the great lakes, the St. Lawrence, or the Mississippi, is given as "*the bounds of Hudson's Bay by the treaty of Utrecht.*" This line runs around Hudson's Bay, nearly at the same distance from the shores of that sea only, in its whole course; and a very small part of it passes as far south as the 49th parallel. The boundary, thus given by Mitchell, is adopted in the map prefixed to Russell's History of America, in those published by Bennet in 1770, by Faden in 1777, and in other maps.

In a map of the British possessions in America, as settled by the treaty of 1763, published at London in 1775 by Eman Bowen and John Gibson, a line running along the 49th parallel, from a point immediately south of the southern extremity of James's Bay, westward to the Red River, and then northward, down that stream, to Lake Winnipeg, is given as the southern limit of the Hudson's Bay territory, agreeably to the treaty of Utrecht; and this is the earliest distinct declaration which has been discovered of the adoption of any part of that parallel precisely, as a boundary in North America.

Thus it appears that all the most accredited authorities, with the exception of Mitchell, are against the supposition that any boundary between the British and the French dominions in America was settled agreeably

to the treaty of Utrecht; and that Mitchell represents the Hudson's Bay territories as separated from the French possessions by an irregular line drawn along the course of the highlands surrounding, or supposed to surround, that sea.

In support of the opinion that no such boundary was settled, may be cited the following remarks upon that article, extracted from Anderson's elaborate History of Commerce, vol. iii, page 267: "Though the French King yielded to the Queen of Great Britain, to be possessed by her in full right, for ever, the Bay and Straits of Hudson, and all parts thereof, and within the same, then possessed by France, yet leaving the boundaries between Hudson's Bay and the north parts of Canada belonging to France, to be determined by commissaries within a year, was, in effect, the same thing as giving up the point altogether; it being well known to all Europe, that France never permits her commissaries to determine matters referred to such, unless it can be done with great advantage to her. Those boundaries, therefore, have never yet been settled, though both British and French subjects are by that article expressly debarred from passing over the same, or thereby to go to each other by sea or land. These commissaries were likewise to settle the boundaries between the other British and French colonies on that continent; which, likewise, was never done." The correctness of the concluding part of these remarks is well known; and it is scarcely probable that either of the Powers would have assented to a partial determination of boundaries. The remarks of Anderson are incorporated in Macpherson's Annals of Commerce, published in 1805.

Maps, which are so frequently consulted on the subject of boundaries, and which, therefore, ought to be the best authorities, are, unfortunately, in general the very worst, as they are for the most part made by persons unacquainted with political history. Of the truth of this assertion innumerable instances might be adduced. In a large and beautifully engraved map of the United States, published at Philadelphia in 1821, "*from the most undoubted authorities, by — — geographer and draughtsman,*" the northern boundary of the part of the United States west of the Mississippi, is represented by a line drawn westward from the sources of that river nearly under the latitude of 47 degrees and 40 minutes; the country north of this line being stated to be "*in dispute between Spain and Great Britain.*" Now, three years before this map appeared, the boundary between the United States and the British possessions in that part of America, had been fixed by treaty; according to which, the dividing-line followed the course of the 49th parallel; and two years before the date of the map, Spain had also, by treaty, ceded to the United States her rights to all territories in America north of the 42d parallel. These treaties had been published; and it is scarcely credible that they should have been unknown to an American geographer engaged in preparing a map of the United States. The French have made great use of maps, and have had maps made for use in their negotiations about boundaries with Great Britain. Books of geography are also in general incorrect as regards boundaries. In the Encyclopædia of Geography, published at Edinburgh in 1834, by Hugh Murray, and other scientific persons, we find it stated, (page 1374,) that "the whole region west of the Rocky Mountains, extending between the 42d and the 49th parallels of latitude, *has, by discovery and treaty, been assigned to the United States.*" A statement to the same effect may be found in the London Quarterly Review for January, 1822.

F.

TREATIES AND CONVENTIONS BETWEEN THE GOVERNMENTS OF DIFFERENT NATIONS, RELATING TO THE NORTHWEST TERRITORIES OF NORTH AMERICA.

(1.)

Convention between Great Britain and Spain, signed at the Escurial, October 28, 1790, may be found at length in the Memoir, page 114.

(2.)

Convention between the United States of America and Great Britain, signed at London, October 20, 1818.

"ART. 2. It is agreed that a line drawn from the most northwestern point of the Lake of the Woods, along the 49th parallel of north latitude, or, if the said point shall not be in the 49th parallel of north latitude, then that a line drawn from the said point due north or south, as the case may be, until the said line shall intersect the said parallel of north latitude, and from the point of such intersection due west along and with the said parallel, shall be the line of demarcation between the territories of the United States and those of his Britannic Majesty; and that the said line shall form the northern boundary of the said territories of the United States, and the southern boundary of the territories of his Britannic Majesty, from the Lake of the Woods to the Stony Mountains.

"ART. 3. It is agreed that any country that may be claimed by either party on the northwest coast of America, westward of the Stony Mountains, shall, together with its harbors, bays, and creeks, and the navigation of all rivers within the same, be free and open for the term of ten years from the date of the signature of the present convention, to the vessels, citizens, and subjects of the two Powers; it being well understood that this agreement is not to be construed to the prejudice of any claim which either of the two high contracting parties may have to any part of the said country, nor shall it be taken to affect the claims of any other Power or State to any part of the said country; the only object of the high contracting parties, in that respect, being to prevent disputes and differences among themselves."

(3.)

Treaty of amity, settlement, and limits, between the United States and Spain, (commonly called the Florida Treaty,) signed at Washington, February 22, 1819.

"ART. 3. The boundary-line between the two countries, west of the Mississippi, shall begin on the Gulf of Mexico, at the mouth of the River Sabine, in the sea, continuing north, along the western bank of that river, to the 32d degree of latitude; thence, by a line due north, to the degree of latitude where it strikes the Rio Roxo of Natchitoches, or Red River; then, following the course of the Rio Roxo westward, to the degree of longitude 100 west from London and 23 from Washington; then crossing

the said Red River, and running thence, by a line due north, to the River Arkansas; thence following the course of the southern bank of the Arkansas to its source in latitude 42 north; and thence, by that parallel of latitude, to the South Sea; the whole being as laid down in Melish's map of the United States, published at Philadelphia, improved to the 1st of January, 1818. But, if the source of the Arkansas River shall be found to fall north or south of latitude 42, then the line shall run from the said source due south or north, as the case may be, till it meets the said parallel of latitude 42, and thence, along the said parallel, to the South Sea. All the islands in the Sabine, and the said Red and Arkansas Rivers, throughout the course thus described, to belong to the United States; but the use of the waters and the navigation of the Sabine to the sea, and of the said Rivers Roxo and Arkansas, throughout the extent of the said boundary, on their respective banks, shall be common to the respective inhabitants of both nations.

"The two high contracting parties agree to cede and renounce all their rights, claims, and pretensions to the territories described by the said line; that is to say, the United States hereby cede to his Catholic Majesty, and renounce forever all their rights, claims, and pretensions to the territories lying west and south of the above described line; and, in like manner, his Catholic Majesty cedes to the said United States all his rights, claims, and pretensions to any territories east and north of the said line; and for himself, his heirs, and successors, renounces all claim to the said territories forever."

(4.)

Convention between the United States and Russia, signed at Saint Petersburg on the 1st of April, 1824.

"ART. 1. It is agreed that, in any part of the great ocean, commonly called the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea, the respective citizens or subjects of the high contracting Powers shall be neither disturbed nor restrained, either in navigation or in fishing, or in the power of resorting to the coasts, upon points which may not already have been occupied, for the purpose of trading with the natives; saving always the restrictions and conditions determined by the following articles:

"ART. 2. With the view of preventing the rights of navigation and of fishing, exercised upon the great ocean by the citizens and subjects of the high contracting Powers, from becoming the pretext for an illicit trade, it is agreed that the citizens of the United States shall not resort to any point where there is a Russian establishment, without the permission of the governor or commander; and that, reciprocally, the subjects of Russia shall not resort, without permission, to any establishment of the United States upon the northwest coast.

"ART. 3. It is, moreover, agreed that, hereafter, there shall not be formed by the citizens of the United States, or under the authority of the said States, any establishment upon the northwest coast of America, nor in any of the islands adjacent, to the north of 54 degrees and 40 minutes of north latitude; and that, in the same manner, there shall be none formed by Russian subjects, or under the authority of Russia, south of the same parallel.

"ART. 4. It is, nevertheless, understood, that during a term of ten years,

counting from the signature of the present convention, the ships of both Powers, or which belong to their citizens or subjects, respectively, may reciprocally frequent, without any hindrance whatever, the interior seas, gulfs, harbors, and creeks, upon the coast mentioned in the preceding article, for the purpose of fishing and trading with the natives of the country.

“ART. 5. All spirituous liquors, fire-arms, other arms, powder, and munitions of war of every kind, are always excepted from this same commerce permitted by the preceding article; and the two Powers engage, reciprocally, neither to sell, nor suffer them to be sold to the natives, by their respective citizens and subjects, nor by any person who may be under their authority. It is likewise stipulated, that this restriction shall never afford a pretext, nor be advanced, in any case, to authorize either search or detention of the vessels, seizure of the merchandise, or, in fine, any measures of constraint whatever, towards the merchants or the crews who may carry on this commerce; the high contracting Powers reciprocally reserving to themselves to determine upon the penalties to be incurred, and to inflict the punishments in case of the contravention of this article by their respective citizens or subjects.”

(5.)

Convention between Great Britain and Russia, signed at Saint Petersburg, February $\frac{1}{2}$, 1825.

“ART. 1. It is agreed that the respective subjects of the high contracting parties shall not be troubled or molested in any part of the ocean, commonly called the Pacific Ocean, either in navigating the same, in fishing therein, or in landing at such parts of the coast as shall not have been already occupied, in order to trade with the natives, under the restrictions and conditions specified in the following articles:

“ART. 2. In order to prevent the right of navigating and fishing, exercised upon the ocean by the subjects of the high contracting parties, from becoming the pretext for an illicit commerce, it is agreed that the subjects of his Britannic Majesty shall not land at any place where there may be a Russian establishment, without the permission of the governor or commandant; and, on the other hand, that Russian subjects shall not land, without permission, at any British establishment on the northwest coast.

“ART. 3. The line of demarcation between the possessions of the high contracting parties, upon the coast of the continent, and the islands of America to the northwest, shall be drawn in the manner following: Commencing from the southernmost point of the island called Prince of Wales Island, which point lies in the parallel of 54 degrees 40 minutes north latitude, and between the 131st and the 133d degree of west longitude, (meridian of Greenwich,) the said line shall ascend to the north along the channel called Portland Channel, as far as the point of the continent where it strikes the 56th degree of north latitude. From this last mentioned point, the line of demarcation shall follow the summit of the mountains situated parallel to the coast, as far as the point of intersection of the 141st degree of west longitude, (of the same meridian.) And, finally, from the said point of intersection, the said meridian line of the 141st degree, in its prolongation as far as the Frozen Ocean, shall form the limit between the Russian and British possessions on the continent of America to the northwest.

"ART. 4. With reference to the line of demarcation laid down in the preceding article, it is understood—

"1st. That the island called Prince of Wales Island shall belong wholly to Russia.

"2d. That whenever the summit of the mountains which extend in a direction parallel to the coast, from the 56th degree of north latitude to the point of intersection of the 141st degree of west longitude, shall prove to be at the distance of more than ten marine leagues from the ocean, the limit between the British possessions and the line of coast which is to belong to Russia, as above mentioned, shall be formed by a line parallel to the windings of the coast, and which shall never exceed the distance of ten marine leagues therefrom.

"ART. 5. It is, moreover, agreed that no establishment shall be formed by either of the two parties within the limits assigned by the two preceding articles to the possessions of the other; consequently, British subjects shall not form any establishment either upon the coast, or upon the border of the continent comprised within the limits of the Russian possessions, as designated in the two preceding articles; and, in like manner, no establishment shall be formed by Russian subjects beyond the said limits.

"ART. 6. It is understood that the subjects of his Britannic Majesty, from whatever quarter they may arrive, whether from the ocean, or from the interior of the continent, shall forever enjoy the right of navigating freely, and without any hindrance whatever, all the rivers and streams which, in their course towards the Pacific Ocean, may cross the line of demarcation upon the line of coast described in article 3 of the present convention.

"ART. 7. It is also understood, that, for the space of ten years from the signature of the present convention, the vessels of the two Powers, or those belonging to their respective subjects, shall mutually be at liberty to frequent, without any hindrance whatever, all the inland seas, the gulfs, havens, and creeks on the coast, mentioned in article 3, for the purposes of fishing and of trading with the natives.

"ART. 8. The port of Sitka, or Novo Archangelsk, shall be open to the commerce and vessels of British subjects for the space of ten years from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of the present convention. In the event of an extension of this term of ten years being granted to any other Power, the like extension shall be granted also to Great Britain.

"ART. 9. The above mentioned liberty of commerce shall not apply to the trade in spirituous liquors, in fire-arms, or other arms, gunpowder, or other warlike stores; the high contracting parties reciprocally engaging not to permit the abovementioned articles to be sold or delivered, in any manner whatever, to the natives of the country.

"ART. 10. Every British or Russian vessel navigating the Pacific Ocean, which may be compelled by storms or by accident to take shelter in the ports of the respective parties, shall be at liberty to refit therein, to provide itself with all necessary stores, and to put to sea again, without paying any other than port and light-house dues, which shall be the same as those paid by national vessels. In case, however, the master of such vessel should be under the necessity of disposing of a part of his merchandise in order to defray his expenses, he shall conform himself to the regulations and tariffs of the place where he may have landed.

"ART. 11. In every case of complaint on account of an infraction of the

articles of the present convention, the civil and military authorities of the high contracting parties, without previously acting, or taking any forcible measure, shall make an exact and circumstantial report of the matter to their respective courts, who engage to settle the same in a friendly manner, and according to the principles of justice."

(6.)

Convention between the United States and Great Britain, signed at London, August 6, 1827.

"ART. 1. All the provisions of the third article of the convention concluded between the United States of America and his Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, on the 20th of October, 1818, shall be, and they are hereby, further indefinitely extended and continued in force, in the same manner as if all the provisions of the said article were herein specifically recited.

"ART. 2. It shall be competent, however, to either of the contracting parties, in case either should think fit, at any time after the 20th of October, 1828, on giving due notice of twelve months to the other contracting party, to annul and abrogate this convention; and it shall, in such case, be accordingly entirely annulled and abrogated, after the expiration of the said term of notice.

"ART. 3. Nothing contained in this convention, or in the third article of the convention of the 20th October, 1818, hereby continued in force, shall be construed to impair, or in any manner affect, the claims which either of the contracting parties may have to any part of the country westward of the Stony or Rocky Mountains."

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MEMOIR,

No. 9748.

GEOGRAPHICAL, POLITICAL, AND COMMERCIAL,

ON THE

Present state, productive resources, and capabilities for commerce, of Siberia, Manchuria, and the Asiatic islands of the Northern Pacific ocean; and on the importance of opening commercial intercourse with those countries, &c.

Addressed to His Excellency James K. Polk, President of the United States,

BY AARON H. PALMER,

Counsellor of the Supreme Court of the United States, Corresponding Member of the National Institute, Washington, &c.

MARCH 8, 1848.—Referred to the Committee on the Library, and ordered to be printed.

JUNE 3, 1848.—Ordered that 2,000 additional copies, as revised by Mr. Palmer, be printed.

NEW YORK, *January 10, 1848.*

SIR: I have the honor of transmitting you, herewith, a brief memoir on the present state, productive resources, and capabilities for commerce, of several of the comparatively unknown countries of the East, which are daily becoming of importance to us in a political as well as commercial point of view, and where a new world may be opened to the trading enterprise of our countrymen.

The territories of Oregon and California, now in rapid progress of settlement by enterprising citizens of the United States, together with the great and increasing value of American navigation employed in commerce and the whale fishery in the northern Pacific, are eminently entitled to the fostering care of our government, and require the early adoption of a comprehensive system of policy, both for their protection and development, and to secure the permanency of our commercial and maritime supremacy on that ocean. Early measures should be taken for the reconnoissance and survey of the most feasible route for a ship canal to unite the Atlantic and Pacific, and also for a railroad from a point on the Mississippi to San Francisco or San Diego, in California, to accelerate intercommunication between the different sections of our magnificent and mighty republic on both oceans.

It appears from official data that the American whaling vessels alone in the Pacific exceed in number 700, making an aggregate of about 240,000 tons, and give employment to upwards of 20,000 officers and men;

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that the capital invested therein amounts in value to upwards of \$40,000,000, the annual product of the fishery being estimated at \$10,000,000; and that during the year ending the 31st December, 1847, the whole number of our merchant vessels which cleared for ports in the Pacific and to ports in the East Indies amounted to 151.

I would also take leave to suggest the importance of an early revision of our commercial convention with Russia of the 1st/₇th April, 1824, for the admission of our flag into the ports of Siberia, Kamtschatka, the Kurile and Aleutian islands, in the northern Pacific ocean, as well as those of the Russian colonies on the northwestern coast of America; by which a new and profitable commerce may be opened, mutually beneficial to both nations.

I consider it equally important that our government should insist on the right of navigating the great Manchurian river Amúr and its affluents, and of trading with the colonial dependencies of China, upon the same footing as the Russians; and that we claim the further privilege of commercial intercourse at Tinghae, in the Chusan Archipelago. The favorable position of that port, with its safe anchorages, accessible to the largest ships at all seasons, lying near the embouchure of the great Yangtsekang river, and within two days' sail of Japan and Corea, give it superior advantages over every other port in China for trade, and as a depot and halting station for the American trans-Pacific line of steamers, which it is contemplated to establish between Panama and China, in connexion with the line now in progress from Panama to Oregon.

The memoir is extracted from my forthcoming work, entitled "The Unknown Countries of the East," and is arranged under the following heads, viz:

1. *Siberia, its valuable products and rich gold mines.*
2. *Russian overland trade with China at Kiakta, &c.*
3. *Manchuria and the river Amúr, &c.*
4. *Island of Tarakay, or Saghalien.*
5. *Russian and Japanese Kurile islands, &c.*
6. *Steam communication with China: superior commercial advantages of Chusan, &c.*
7. *Special mission to the East: steam navigation on the Indus and Brahmaputra, &c. Extensive caravan trade with Northwestern and Central Asia, &c.*
8. *Policy of encouraging immigration of Chinese agricultural laborers to California: railroad from the Mississippi to the bay of San Francisco.*
9. *Ship canal from the Atlantic to the Pacific; to which are appended an outline chart of the coast of Northern Asia and the adjacent islands in the Northern Pacific, and a map of the isthmus of Nicaragua; together with*

a prospectus of the new work above mentioned, for which your patronage and the aid of Congress is most respectfully solicited, to enable me to complete it under the auspices of our government according to the plan therein indicated.

I have the honor to be, with the highest respect, sir, your Excellency's most obedient servant,

AARON H. PALMER.

His Excellency JAMES K. POLK,
President of the U. S., Washington.

MEMOIR.

I. SIBERIA, ITS VALUABLE PRODUCTS AND RICH GOLD MINES.

Siberia is the Asiatic section of the Russian empire, and is bounded north by the Arctic ocean; east by Behring's strait, Kamtschatka, and the sea of Okotsk; south by Manchuria, Mongolia, and Independent Tartary; and on the west by the Ural mountains, which separate it from European Russia. Its greatest length, from east to west, exceeds 3,600 miles; and its greatest breadth, from north to south, nearly 2,000 miles. Population about 3,650,000.

The country has been supposed to derive its name from *Sibir*, an ancient Tartar fortress upon the banks of the Irtysh, near Tobolsk; by others from *Sibiri*, which, in several eastern languages, signifies "sunrise," "daylight." Siberia was first conquered from the Tartars and other native tribes by Yermac Timoséef, a Cossack adventurer, at the head of a band of Don Cossacks, in 1578, during the reign of Ivan Vassilievitch II. The conquest was not finally concluded before the death of Feoder Ivanovitch, in 1598, when the whole country was subjugated by Russian fur traders and pedlars to the dominion of the Czar; the fur trade having been for ten centuries the pervading thread of Russian policy, as well as of Russian commerce, conducted by merchant traders and pedlars from the Baltic to the northwest coast of America, and from the Altai* mountains to the Frozen ocean.

In 1644, the most advanced Russian settlement along the shore of the Polar sea was at the mouth of the river Kovyma, latitude $71^{\circ} 25' 11''$, and longitude $152^{\circ} 24'$ east. The countries beyond were then new to them; but, by their enterprises, in the course of the two following years they acquired some knowledge of the people who inhabited the northeast coasts of Asia; and in 1648, seven Russian vessels sailed in that direction from the Kovyma, with the combined purposes of discovery, traffic, and conquest. Only two of the vessels succeeded in reaching the bay of Anadyr, on the sea of Kamtschatka. This was the first maritime expedition of the Russians to the northern Pacific ocean.

Siberia, or Asiatic Russia, may be considered as a vassal State of the Russian empire, and is divided into two separate governments, each possessing civil and military attributions, under two general military chieftainships of Eastern and Western Siberia. The former embraces Irkoutsk,

*Altai-iin-oola, or "Mountains of Gold," in Turkish and Mongolian.

Yakoutsk, Kiakta, Okotsk, and Kamtschatka; and the latter Omsk, Tobolsk, and Tomsk. The Russian possessions on the northwestern coast of America are not included in the government of Siberia, but are under the exclusive civil and military administration of the Imperial Russian-American Company, subject to the superintendence of the imperial department of commerce, St. Petersburg.

This country possesses the climates as well as the products of both hemispheres; extremes of heat and cold, days without night, and months when the sun is not above the horizon. All the ordinary grain and vegetables of Europe are found even as far north as the banks of the Irtysh, beyond 55° north latitude, in Western Siberia. Most of our domestic animals are common to this country, and at the northern as well as the southern extremities many of the wild ones of Europe and Asia. Fish of the greatest abundance, and many sorts unknown in Europe, teem in all the rivers, and form the principal food of the inhabitants. Among the wild animals are deer, elk, reindeer, Daurian antelopes, argeli, mountain goats, musk animals, lynxes, squirrels, wolves, gluttons, wild hogs, white and brown bears, red, gray, black, and poplar foxes, ermines, sables, martens, hares, polecats, ounces, marmots, beavers, otters, seals, and morses, &c.

Among the mineral products of Siberia are gold, silver, platinum, iron, copper, lead, tin, quicksilver, antimony, cobalt, zinc, coal. Several kinds of precious stones occur, and diamonds have been found in the Uralian range. The amethysts, topazes, emeralds, and red tourmalines are of great beauty; zircons of extraordinary size have been found near Miask, south of Ekaterinebourg. The simple minerals found in the Ural mountains, or on their flanks, amount to one hundred and thirty-two, according to the catalogue prepared by Lieut. Koksharof, of the imperial mining corps. Several precious stones are brought from the Altai mountains, the most valuable of which are jasper and porphyry, of great beauty, of which a quarry is worked nearly in the centre of the Altai mountains, in the valley of the river Charysch. The valuable and beautiful mineral malachite, from the mines of Ekaterinebourg, sells on the spot, in the block, for about \$5 per pound. It is extremely hard and difficult to work, and when polished is a very expensive article. The mountains of Dauria contain beryls, topazes, emeralds, and some other stones of less value. In the Baikal mountains, especially towards the western extremity of the great lake Baikal, lapis lazuli of a very fine quality is found. There are extensive deposits of mica in various parts of Siberia, where it is generally used, and called Russian glass. A very hard and transparent species of silex, called tæjeloves, is found among the rolled flint in the torrents of Eastern Siberia; it takes a beautiful polish, and is cut like a diamond, which it resembles in brilliancy. Some years since, Professor Laxmann discovered in the Viluiy, an affluent of the Léna, two stones with which science was previously unacquainted. The one was named the Vituiy-the, or Idiocrase; and the other, the Olintholite. The latter is a yellowish green garnet, and remarkably hard.

The Ural constitutes a long and narrow ridge, extending from the icy sea on the north, to the parallel of Orenburg on the south, and separates Europe from Asia throughout 18° of latitude. The southern half, reaching to 61° north latitude, is alone colonized; the northern portion, covered with impenetrable forests and deep morasses, is thus left to its wild in-

habitants, whether Ostiaks, Voguls, or Samoyedes, its eastern flank having never been explored beyond 65° north latitude. The southern Ural is composed of many separate longitudinal ridges, embracing the mountains of Yarma, Zaganai, and Iremel, the latter attaining an altitude of about 5,100 feet above the sea. The whole of the south Ural is included in the government of Orenburg, and is to a great extent a pastoral Bashkir country. With small exceptions, near Ekaterinebourg, and Miask, where gold mines have been explored in the rock, the gold and platinum of the Ural are found in ancient alluvia, consisting of sand, gravel, and shingle. Enormous quantities of the purest magnetic iron ore are, however, extracted from the solid rock in open quarries; and in some districts, notably in that extending from Nijny-Tagilsk to Bogoslofsk, copper veins abound. With one exception, all the gold mines are on the Asiatic or Siberian flank of the Ural, and on the same side are nearly all the rocks of eruptive or igneous origin, and all the great veins. The great mineral wealth of the chain occurs between 54° and 60° north latitude; the southern extremity, which is very picturesque, being comparatively few, whilst the extreme north, or arctic region, containing a few good ores, is yet unreclaimed, and is indeed unfitted for the existence of a civilized race. The Ural, with its lateral ridges, has nowhere a less breadth than 30 miles, and varies in altitude from 1,600 to 2,500 feet; and its culminating point is 6,000 feet above the level of the sea. A mass of native gold deposited in the museum of the Imperial School of Mines, St. Petersburg, weighing about 78 pounds, and said to be the largest in the world, was discovered in the auriferous sands of the Southern Ural, in 1843.

The Altaï extends between 50° and $52\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ north latitude, from west to east, from the confluence of the Uba and Irtysh, to Mount Gurbi, and the south of lake Baïkal. The mountain system of the Altaï contains the sources of the Irtysh and the Yenesei. The names Sayan, Tangnu, and Malakha, are applied to easterly portions of it; beyond the Baïkal it abuts upon the mountain ranges of the western Khin-gan and Yablonoi-Krebet, which extend from northwest to southwest. The Altaï range occupies a space of 4,400 leagues, 20 to a degree, or an area equal to that of England. Except at the eastern extremity, it is everywhere surrounded by low lands. The masses which rise above the line of perpetual snow are all between the parallels of $49\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ and 51° . The order in which the ranges succeed each other from south to north in this alpine region of the Altaï, is as follows: 1. The Narym mountains, between the rivers Narym and the Bukhturma. 2. The Sailughem mountains, between the rivers Bukhturma, Tshuya, and Koksun. 3. The Koksun or Ubinsk range, between the Koksun and the Uba. 4. The Alps of Terektinsk, between the Tshaush and the sources of the Koksun and Uba. 5. The range between the Tshuya, the Tshaush, and the Anni. Culminating summits of the Altaï are in the second of these ranges. M. Gebeler, who made three journeys to the upper Altaï, between 1833 and 1835, describes Mount Bialukha, or "White Mountain," as inaccessible, and running up into two pinnacles covered with snow. He estimated its height approximatively at 10,300 feet—rather higher than Etna, and rather lower than the highest summit of the Pyrenees. The Tar-Bagataï, the southern offset of the Altaï, extends into China, and attains the limits of perpetual snow.

The Kusnetz system of mountains has a direction of SSE. to NNW.: it comes in contact with the Altaï about 85° east of Paris, on its northern

declivity. The Kusnetz mountains have a strong analogy, both in the mineralogical constitution and the direction of the chain, with the Ural. They extend over a line equal in length to that of the Alps or the Pyrenees; in breadth they appear to occupy nearly a degree of longitude between the parallels 52° and 56° ; their elevation is not mentioned. They abound in deposits of gold, which, as in the Ural, is found much more abundantly on the eastern declivity. Advancing eastward along the northern declivity of the Altaï, a third auriferous region is found near the confluence of the Yenesei and the Abakan. "It may be observed," says Sir R. J. Murchison, "as indicative of the structure of northeastern Asia, that the Altaï chain, in the direction from east to west, bounds, over a vast extent, the low northern plains of Asia; and that the Ural and Kusnetz chain, parallel to the meridian, are formations of a different era. They resemble in many of their characteristic features the Bolor and Suleiman mountains, and the Ghauts of southern India. The Altaï, Kusnetz, and Ural ranges also resemble each other in the abundance of their metallic wealth."

Besides the auriferous deposits in the eastern slopes of the Ural mountains, it appears that Eastern Siberia possesses similar tracts of country of vastly greater extent than those of the Ural chain. On the flanks of the Altaï mountains Professor Hoffman has discovered an auriferous tract of an area larger than France, and all the subjacent rocks, when pounded up and analyzed, yield a certain per centage of gold. Several of the most eminent European geologists have inferred from this, that no sort of limit can be put to the gold produce of Siberia. The southern ranges of the Altaï mountains, equally auriferous, extend into China, and the Chinese, who are expert miners, are beginning to form mining establishments in those mountain regions. They have also discovered several new quicksilver mines, and resumed the working of the old ones that had been abandoned in China proper. The Siberian mines are generally worked by serf or convict labor, with the application of fire instead of the more expensive process of quicksilver.

Sir R. J. Murchison, "Geology of Russia," is confident that Chinese Turkestan will prove to be another gold region like Siberia. The Tar-Bagataï mountains are stated by Colonel Halmersen, the distinguished Russian geologist, to be highly productive in gold. Professor Erman, in his geological survey of Russia, reports that the same system of palæozoic, eruptive and metamorphic rocks, in which the precious metals abound in the Ural and Altaï, extend to the Aldan mountains, not far from the north-eastern shores of the sea of Okotsk, and in which may likewise be found the same minerals. Gold has been found in the *tundra* or frozen steppes, covered with moss, of Eastern Siberia.

According to Humboldt's "Fragmens Asiatiques," and "Asie Centrale," the auriferous soil extends over a large portion of the north of Asia. Gold has been found from the Ural to the western declivity of the Yablonoi-Krebet, and the mountain regions between the Léna and the two Angarás, a distance of 56° of longitude. Gold has also been found in the vicinity of Udskoi, on the river Ud, which falls into the sea of Okotsk, opposite the Shantar islands, near the Manchurian frontier. An auriferous belt traverses the Asiatic continent, between the parallels of 50° and 60° , for a distance that exceeds the maximum breadth of Africa. He also observes that a considerable portion of the precious metals in use

among the Greeks and Romans, was probably derived from this portion of the Scythian wilds; but modern Europe has been acquainted with them as sources of mineral wealth for a century and a half only. It was in the last year of the seventeenth century that Peter the Great formed the first mining establishments under the direction of his able envoy, Demidoff, since which period a steady progress has been made in developing the resources of these mountains, and a large portion of the Siberian flank of the Ural may now be unhesitatingly considered one of the most civilized tracts of the empire, whether as regards the industry and intelligence of the natives, and the state of arts and manufactures.

It thus appears from the results of the various scientific explorations of Siberia, that the greater portion of those vast regions may be considered as a new and inexhaustible El Dorado of the precious metals. "It is a fact," observes Sir R. J. Murchison, "that within the last few years only, a tenth portion of the earth's surface, Chinese Tartary and Siberia, has been, for the first time, made known to us as in many parts *auriferous*; and when from one portion of it only, Europe is already supplied with so very large an amount of her chief circulating medium, well, therefore, may political economists beg for knowledge at the hand of the physical geographer and geologist, and learn from them the secret on which the public faith of empires may depend."

The discovery of new gold veins and the introduction of improvements in the practice of engineering and mining skill in the Siberian mines since 1830, has greatly increased the quantity of their product, yielding the Emperor of Russia such an amount of treasure as to place him, in point of wealth, second to none in the world. On the 31st March, 1847, the accumulated unproductive capital of gold bullion from the Siberian mines in the imperial treasury exceeded 114 millions of silver roubles.* By a monetary ukase of that date, the sum of 30 millions silver roubles was appropriated for investment in the purchase of public funds, Russian as well as foreign, and was principally invested in English and French securities, leaving the sum of 84 millions silver roubles (\$63,000,000) in the Emperor's own coffers. At first it was generally thought that political motives actuated him, particularly as regarded the French loan; it appears, however, to have been simply a commercial transaction, arising from an excess of treasure, as well as to afford increased facilities in the export trade of his dominions—particularly of grain—and, by investing a part of his surplus gold in fluctuating European securities, at a time when their value was much depreciated, eventually to realize a large profit. The aggregate product of the Siberian gold mines, in 1847, is estimated at \$25,000,000.†

The Russian government has almost abandoned the extraction of platinum, owing to the cost of reduction, and the repugnance of the people to receive it as a coin of high price. The platinum of the Ural is now chiefly worked by the Demidoff family.

The principal depot of all the gold found in the country east of the Ural is at the town of *Barnoul*, containing about 12,000 inhabitants, situated on the river Oby, between Tobolsk and Irkoutsk, in Western Siberia,

* Silver rouble = 75 cents United States currency.

† From an official scrutiny into the vaults of the imperial treasury at St. Petersburg, it appears that on the 6th May, 1848, they contained, in gold bullion, the sum of 109,588,595 silver roubles, 19 copecks.

whence it is transported three times in the year to the mint at St. Petersburg. The Russian government levies a duty of 15 per cent. on the product of all the gold mines and gold washings; in which are included all charges for carrying the bullion to St. Petersburg, assaying and coining it.

This increased supply of gold from the Siberian mines, simultaneously with the working of the productive quicksilver mines in China, where that metal has become an important article of export, must necessarily tend to diminish the relative value of gold, and require the re-adjustment of the standard of the precious metals among all nations. It would also be highly important, to facilitate the commercial intercourse and regulate the exchanges of all nations, that a general congress of nations be assembled to agree on a uniform scale of coins, weights, and measures for all nations, and reduce the whole to a simple and uniform system.

The fur trade is one of the most profitable branches of Siberian, if not of Russian commerce; native furs, to the value of 7,500,000 roubles, are annually bartered at Kiakta, over and above all the skins that find their way to the westward, as far as Nishney-Novgorod and Moscow. Furs in Siberia and Russia are examined by the fur traders with the same minute care as precious stones with lapidaries; and a skin which unites all the desired qualities, sometimes rises to an enormous price. Black fox skins are worth 2,000 to 5,000 roubles each. The lightness of the hide, the color and gloss of the fur, the age of the animal, the season in which it has been killed, the length of the hair, the condition of the under wool, and various other points, are carefully considered. Some of the animals must be shot only with a blunt piece of wood, others caught in traps, and others struck in a particular part of the body.

The tusks and teeth of the fossil elephant or Siberian mammoth, found in New Siberia and the Laikhoian islands, in the Polar sea, and in the northeastern part of the great river Léna, constitute a considerable article of commerce, and many persons make the discovery of them the business of their lives. The ivory found in New Siberia is as white and fresh as that which is brought from Africa, and usually fetches about the same price.

The word mammoth is of Tungousan origin, and means "animal of the earth." The Tungouses, by whom these organic remains were first discovered, believe the animal to be still living in Siberia, and that it has been seen on the banks and at the mouths of several of the large rivers that fall into the Arctic ocean. Modern geologists, including Humboldt and Lyell, have maintained that the mammoth must have been a denizen of the lands, where not only his bones, but even his entire carcass, covered with a thick and woolly hide, has been found in northern Siberia. Professor Owen has shown, by a close examination of their teeth, that these great quadrupeds were specially organized to live on the branches of such shrubs and trees as grow in high boreal latitudes. This opinion is corroborated by the fact that great quantities of the fossil bones of the mammoth have been discovered in the vicinity of the great northern forests of Siberia. Pallas says, that from the Don, or Tanais, to Tshukotskoinoss, there is scarcely a river, the bank of which does not afford remains of the mammoth, and these are frequently imbedded in, or covered with alluvial soil containing marine productions. Some tusks have been found, weighing 432 pounds.

In the south Ural, as in the north, the remains of mammoths, *Bos*

Trus and *Rhinoceros tichorinus*, are found in the line of the gold works. The Bashkirs attach a superstitious feeling of respect for these bones, and have been known to say to the Russian miners that first settled among them, "Take from us our gold, if you will; but, for God's sake, leave us the bones of our ancestors." The Samoyedes, as Count Keyserling learnt on his late tour to the Petchora, have a most singular belief respecting the mammoth, which would lead us to suppose that many entire forms of the animal may from time to time have been known to them, or their predecessors. The mammoth of their legend is a great subterranean monster, delighting in ice caverns, and to whom they attach a superstitious reverence, believing that the man who exposes the creature to day, thereby kills it, and brings misfortune on his family. This seems to explain why it is so difficult to obtain, through the natives, the disinterment of the entire animal.

In 1712, Kang-hi, Emperor of China, sent an embassy to Ayouka, a Khan of the Turgouth Tartars, living on the banks of the Wolga, to the north of the Caspian, which traversed Siberia on its route, and returned to Pekin in 1715. An interesting itinerary of the embassy was written by Toulitchen, the Chinese ambassador, in which he states, that "in the coldest part of this northern country (Siberia) there is a species of animal which burrows in the earth, and dies as soon as it is exposed to the sun and air. It is of great size, and weighs 10,000 lbs.; its bones are very white and shining, like ivory. It is not naturally robust, and consequently neither dangerous nor formidable, and is commonly found on the banks of rivers. The Russians collect the bones, out of which they make cups, saucers, combs, and a variety of other articles. The flesh of the animal is considered very wholesome and strengthening, and is eaten as a remedy in fevers. The foreign name is *men-tou-wa*."^{*}

John Bell, of Antermony, in his "Journey to Pekin," through Siberia, in 1721, observes in reference to the mammoth: "The vulgar really imagine *mammon* to be a creature living in marshes under ground, and entertain many strange notions concerning it. The Tartars tell many tales of its having been seen alive. I have been told by Tartars in the Baraba that they have seen this creature, called *mammon*, at the dawn of day, near lakes and rivers; but that on discovering them, the *mammon* immediately tumbled into the water, and never appears in the day time. They say it is almost the size of a large elephant, with a monstrous large head and horns, with which he makes his way in marshy places and under ground, where he conceals himself till night. I only mention these things as the reports of the superstitious and ignorant people."

Admiral Von Wrangel, in his "Expedition to the Polar Sea in 1820-'23," found deposits of mammoth bones on the Lesser Anuy river, near its

^{*} The instructions given to the Chinese embassy on this occasion are curious and interesting; and minute answers were prepared to every inquiry that was expected to be asked by the Russians relating to the government of China. "If asked what the Chinese esteem most, reply: fidelity, filial piety, charity, justice, and sincerity, are esteemed above all other things; that on these principles we govern this great empire, and likewise ourselves. If the Russians speak to you about fire-arms, and solicit aid from me of that description, state, that being on a mission to the Turgouth Tartars, you could not broach that question. Again, the Russians are a vain people; they will display several things they possess: on such occasions neither express admiration nor contempt. But, of all things, pay close attention to the manners of the inhabitants of Russia; its natural and artificial productions; its geography, and the general appearance of the country."

outlet in the Icy sea, and observes that "the teeth, tusks, and bones which are called by the general name of mammoth bones, but which probably belong to several different species of animals, are not distributed equally over Siberia, but form immense local accumulations, which become both richer and more extensive the farther we advance to the north. They are found in the greatest abundance in New Siberia and the Lachov islands; the whole soil of the latter appears to consist of them; many hundred poods* weight are collected from them every year, whereas on the continent they are much scarcer, and are hardly ever met with in the southern part of Siberia. The tusks on the island are also much more fresh and white than those of the continent. A sand bank on the western side was most productive of all; and the fur traders maintain that when the sea recedes after a long continuance of easterly winds, a fresh supply of mammoth bones is always found to have been washed upon this bank, proceeding apparently from some vast store in the bottom of the sea."

The Léna, Yenesei, and Oby, rank among the largest rivers of the Asiatic continent; they have their sources in the mountains of Central Asia, abound in a great variety of fish, and serve as channels of intercommunication with all parts of the Russian empire; but, having their embouchures in the Polar sea, are unavailable for foreign commerce. The Inedgyrka and the Kovyma, considerable rivers of Eastern Siberia, also fall into the same sea. The Okota, Uda, and a number of small rivers, fall into the sea of Okotsk. The Ural having its sources in the eastern slopes of the mountains of the same name, after a course of 1,350 miles, falls into the Caspian, and is the only large river in Siberia that does not flow into the Polar sea.

The Anadyr is principally remarkable for being the only considerable river of the globe whose sources lie within the Polar circle between 68° and 69° north latitude. It rises in a lake of that range of the Aldan mountains which traverses the northeastern extremity of Asia, and terminates at cape Tshukotskoi-Noss, at Behring's strait. In its eastern course it passes through 13 degrees of longitude and falls into the bay of Anadyr, a large gulf of the sea of Kamtschatka, forming an estuary at its mouth: the whole course of this river is about 500 miles.

There are numerous fresh water lakes in Siberia; one of the largest and most remarkable is the Baikal, or "Rich lake," so called by the Yakouts, who formerly inhabited its shores—from *baï*, "rich," and *kal*, "lake,"—and by the Russians, *Svetoie Morè*, or "Holy sea;" situated between 51° and 56° north latitude, and 104° and 111° east longitude. It is nearly 400 miles long, and from 30 to 60 wide, with high and rocky banks; contains a number of inhabited islands, and receives the waters of the Upper Angará, Selengá, Bargoosin, and several considerable rivers and mountain streams, amounting in all to 177. The waters are said to be subject to certain interior agitations, which sometimes render the navigation dangerous, even when the wind is moderate. It is very deep—in some places unfathomable; abounds in sturgeon, salmon, (of which there are 14 varieties,) salmon trout, a species of herring, and a fish consisting entirely of bones and oily matter, called by Pallas *callyonymos Baicalensis*, with a variety of other fish, seals of a silver color, corals, sponges, &c., which are valuable articles of commerce with the Chinese. Agriculture

*A Russian pood = 36 lbs. 2 oz. avoirdupois.

and the fisheries constitute the principal branches of industry and commerce of the Russians and Burats inhabiting the vicinity of the lake. It is about 1,793 feet above the level of the sea; the principal outlet is the large river Lower Angará, flowing to the Yenesei and the Polar sea.

The Tungousan tribes, occupying the borders of the lake, subsist by fishing and hunting the wild beasts which inhabit the woods and mountains. Wolves, bears, foxes, lynxes, wild cats, and gluttons, are numerous in the woods, and on the steppes, and otters abound in the rivers. Beavers are only found in the upper part of the Angará, but the elk and the musk-ox nearly in every district bordering on the lake. The musk of the latter, however, does not emit so strong a scent as that obtained from these animals in Tibet. Deer and stags abound everywhere, but the reindeer is only met with in a wild state in the northern mountains, and even there is not numerous. The common hare, the mountain hare, and the Daurian hare, are found in great numbers on the steppes. The sable, too, as well as the hermeline, abound in many districts. The squirrel exists in this region in incredible numbers. Sometimes they unite in companies, and travel through the woods and steppes, swimming over rivers, and traversing the summits of the mountains. The color of the skin is reddish in summer, and gray in winter. A larger species which inhabits the northern and eastern shore of the lake, assumes in winter a silver-gray color. The species whose skin sells highest is of the color of the sable in summer, and black-gray in winter. An immense number of squirrel skins is sent from here to the other parts of Siberia and Russia, as well as to China, besides the consumption on the spot, which is very great.

The commerce which the Russians carry on with the Chinese is considerably facilitated by this lake, which is open from May till November, and navigated by numerous small vessels, large barges and a steamer. The Russian goods, for which the town of Irkoutsk, on the banks of the Lower Angará, 40 miles from the lake, is the principal depot, are carried thence to Kiakta, in summer by water, and in winter by sledges on the ice, across the lake to the mouth of the Selengá. They then ascend this river to Wershneï Udinsk, or even to Selengensk, but rarely higher. Thence the goods are transported by land to Kiakta, a distance of about 16 miles. Without the facility which this lake affords to the carrying on of this continually increasing commerce, that mart would never have risen to any degree of importance.

The islands which exist in this lake are numerous along the eastern, and in some places along the western shores; but most are of small extent, and nothing but masses of rock, which seem to have been separated by some convulsion of nature from the mountains on the shore. The largest is the island of Olkhon, which extends about thirty-two miles from southwest to northeast, but nowhere exceeds ten miles in breadth. It is extremely rocky and mountainous, and on its southwestern shore the mountains rise to a considerable height, but do not preserve the snow in summer. In its neighborhood there are some rocks, on which seals are annually killed in great numbers. The mountains in many parts are covered with larch, pine, birch, poplars, and willows; other districts afford good pasture for the cattle of about 150 families of Burats, who are the only inhabitants of the island. The strait which separates it from the continent is only two miles wide, but very deep, a line of one hundred fathoms not

reaching the bottom ; and the fishermen assert that even a line of 2 fathoms would not reach it.

The other lakes of Siberia are rather chains of ponds, or stagnant collections of saline waters, in the marshy or submerged steppes which cover a great extent of its western territories. Only the lake of Tchany, in the steppe of Baraba, and of Kurg Algydum in that of Ischm, present considerable expanses. Baron Humboldt thinks it not improbable that there are remnants of some great interior sea, connected, at an ante-historical period, with the Aral and the Caspian.

Irkoutsk, in $52^{\circ} 16' 41''$ north latitude, is the seat of government of Eastern Siberia, and has a population of about 25,000, composed of Russians, Cossacks, Tungouses, Mongols, and Burats. There is an immense brick building containing a cloth factory, and workshops of the exiles, in which joiners, carpenters, carriage makers, saddlers, blacksmiths, and all sorts of handicraftsmen, are busily occupied, and provided with comfortable apartments, clean clothing, and wholesome food. The cloth is made from the wool and hair of the Burat sheep, camels, and goats. The profits of the establishment are expended in furnishing the hospitals, and for other laudable purposes. There are also manufactures of linen and other pieces of goods, glass, hats, soap, leather, &c., and it is the residence of the numerous artisans in the different trades common in Europe. It is the great entrepot for the commerce of northeastern Asia, importing tea, rhubarb, fruit, paper, silks, porcelain, and other manufactured goods from China, by the way of Kiakta; and furs, peltries, &c., from Kamtschatka, the Aleutian and Kurile islands, and Russian America, which articles are here exchanged for European goods sent from St. Petersburg and Moscow by the way of Tobolsk. It has also some trade with Bokhara and Khokan, and is the most important town in Siberia for the extent and activity of its trade. An annual fair is held here in June. It has a college, or high school, in which navigation and the Chinese and Japanese languages are taught. *Irkoutsk* is 3,994 miles from St. Petersburg, 750 from Ner-shinsk, 1,000 from Zurukaitu, 1,950 from Tobolsk, 340 from Kiakta.

Thelmsky, about 40 miles from *Irkoutsk*, is a large and fine village of 2,000 inhabitants, containing several extensive factories built of stone, for the manufacture of cloth, cotton, glass, and paper. The machinery for the factories has been constructed on the spot, after models imported from England. The glass ware and cut glass manufactured here is of a superior quality.

The Tungouses are the most widely dispersed of the native tribes of Siberia. The northern districts of Manchuria are peopled by them, and they occur in Dauria, between the Onon and Argun, where they unite agriculture with the keeping of animals, especially the reindeer. They are found in Eastern Siberia, from lake Baikal to the Polar sea and sea of Okotsk. In the latter district they are called Lamoots, or "inhabitants of the shore."

The Tungouses are considered as the best formed of the native tribes of Siberia. They are generally of a middling size, of a fine shape, and slender, with features more regular than the Mongols; eyes small and lively, and nose well formed, though rather small. They are accomplished horsemen and very skilful hunters. Though widely spread over an immense country, the language of the most distant tribe of Tungouses is said to differ very little with that of the Manchus. Many roots are found in the

Mongolian and Turkish languages, and even in some of the languages of Europe, especially the Slavonian and Finnish. Their religion is Shamanism. The Burats constitute one of the divisions of nations into which the Mongols are divided; these are the Mongols proper, Eleuths, and Calmucks. Next to the Russians, they are the most populous of all the nations that inhabit Siberia. Their language is a dialect of the Mongolian, but much harsher in its pronunciation. They inhabit the mountainous country enclosing lake Baikal on the west, and south from the mouth of the river Bargoozin, on the east side of the lake, to the sources of the Léna on the west. The various tribes subject to Russia embrace an aggregate population of nearly 300,000 souls. Each tribe is governed by a prince, or Taïsha. The richest of their princes, according to Cochran, has 23,000 subjects, and occupies the country between Selengensk and Nertshinsk. They have embraced the Buddhism of the Lamas, and cultivate the language and literature of Tibet. The other tribes profess Shamanism.

Most of the tribes are nomadic. They have large herds of horses, black cattle, sheep, and camels. Their chief wealth consists of horses, the flesh of which, and mares' milk, constitute their principal diet. They have made considerable progress in some of the arts of civilized life, especially in working iron and tanning, and possess the art of plating iron and silver by a simple process. Tanning is practised only by the women, who evince in this branch of industry great ingenuity and much taste. The women also make all the woollen stuffs which are in use among them for dress, blankets, coverings for their yourtes, or summer tents, &c. Their dwellings, for both summer and winter, are said by travellers to be very convenient, comfortable, and well adapted to their climate and nomadic life. Many of the Burats are rich, and possess herds of 1,000 to 5,000 cattle.

About 30 years since, an English protestant mission was sent amongst the Buddhist tribe. The Burats were zealously opposed to any change in their religion, and about two years after the arrival of the missionaries, procured from Tibet, at an enormous expense, thirty wagon loads of Buddhist books, which they distributed among all the families of their tribe, to counteract the efforts of the missionaries for their conversion. The missionaries studied the Russian, Mongolian, and Tibetan languages; established a press in the town of Selengensk, and translated and printed the Holy Scriptures in those languages; but after laboring for nearly 25 years without making any converts, their mission was at length broken up by order of the Emperor of Russia.

Yakoutsck, the capital of the province of the same name, is situated on the Léna, in 60° north latitude, and 130° east longitude. This town has a population of about 7,000, and is the centre of commerce of Eastern Siberia, for all kinds of furs, walrus teeth, &c. The country abounds with cattle; and salt, iron, talc, &c., are said to be plentiful. The extreme temperature of summer and winter is perhaps greater than at any other place on the globe; the thermometer rising in the shade in summer to 106° Fahrenheit, and falling in winter to 83° below zero. Notwithstanding these extremes of temperature, it appears that the culture of rye succeeds perfectly under favorable localities in those regions; and that at Amguinsk, near Yakoutsck, the crops of grain are even more abundant than in Livonia. Besides the discovery of curious new animals, Professor Von Midden-

dorf has ascertained that while rye, turnips, beet root, and potatoes grow on the Yenesei, in latitude $61^{\circ} 40'$, indigenous plants requiring less warmth flourish much further north, and that forest trees with vertical stems reach to about 72° north latitude, in the parallel of the longitude of Tamyra.

Notwithstanding the severity of the winter in this province, it abounds in a great variety of beautiful wild flowers, which are profusely spread over the country about Yakoutsk, and between it and Okotsk. Along the Léna the wild asters are in great abundance, variety, and beauty.

The Yakouts are the most populous of the native tribes of Eastern Siberia, except the Burats. The rearing of cattle and horses, and the dairy, almost entirely engross their attention. The greater number of this tribe is found in the vicinity of Yakoutsk, which has derived its name from them, where an extensive country, with a fertile soil, is found between the lower Alden and the Léna, and along the banks of the river Viluiy. Many families are very wealthy, and possess several thousands of cattle. They begin to pay attention to the education of their children. Those residing in the vicinity of Yakoutsk are said by Professor Erman to have been converted from Shamanism to Christianity.

The Yakout horses are considered the best in Siberia: they are large and bony, strong, and capable of going through a vast deal of work; and in winter, when they are employed, they find their own provender by scraping away the snow with their feet, to get to the grass. As autumn sets in, their coats get longer, and in winter they are almost as long and thick as a bear's. They have a coarse head, but show blood in other points—so much so, that many of them were sent to the stud of the late Count Orloff, in Russia. Ten thousand of them are employed every year in conveying the provisions of grain, flour, brandy, and marine stores to Okotsk, which is a great source of subsistence for the people.

The inhabitants of Yakoutsk have cellars in all their houses, made in the frozen ground—such precisely as we make in houses in this country. In summer, when the heat is as excessive as the cold is in winter, they place all their fresh provisions, such as meat, milk, and fish, in these cellars, where everything becomes frozen in two hours. The Imperial Russian-American Company bored for water in the court-yard of their establishment at this place to the depth of 380 feet; the ground was still frozen and no water found; the frozen sub-soil is supposed to be 600 feet in depth.

The Yakouts are very industrious; young and old, male and female, being always occupied in some useful employment. When not engaged in hunting, travelling, or farming, men and boys make saddles, harness, &c., while the women and girls keep house, dress skins, prepare clothing, and attend the dairy. They are also remarkably kind and hospitable to strangers, and the best things they have are always freely offered to travellers. They have a singular mode of estimating distances; they take as their unit the time necessary for boiling a particular sort of food, and tell you that such and such a place is so many kettles off, or half a kettle, or, as the case may be, only part of a kettle.

Sir George Simpson states that all the Russians of every age, and many of the Yakouts, can read and write, education being handed down, very much to the credit of the people, as an heir-loom from father to son. This he understood to be more or less the case all over Eastern Siberia.

From a comparison of the Yakout language with that of the Tartars of Tobolsk, Professor Erman has shown, that of 297 Yakout words, only

did not occur in the dictionary of the Turkish language of the Tartars; and he thinks it can hardly be doubted that a Yakout born on the Asian coast could make himself understood by an Osmanli of Constantinople. The number of roots which the Yakout language has in common with the Mongolian, is small.

From Yakoutsk to Okotsk is about 640 miles, and to Irkoutsk about 620 miles.

The archipelago of New Siberia, in the Polar Sea, is composed of the islands of Laikhov, Koletnoi, &c., within the jurisdiction of the district of Yakoutsk. Laikhov island is about thirty-five miles from Sviatoi-Noss, and lies between 73° and 74° north latitude and 140° and 143° west longitude. The summers in these islands are so cold that the snow does not entirely melt, and not a blade of grass grows. They consist of layers of ice, alternating with layers of sand, in which incredible numbers of mammoth and other fossil bones are imbedded.

Nertschinsk, called by the Chinese Niptchu, in $51^{\circ} 29'$ north latitude, is the chief town of a district of the same name in Siberian Daouria, is situated east of the Yablonoi mountains, on the river Chilka, one of the affluents of the Amúr, and has a population of about 3,000. It is a place of considerable trade, and abounds in mines of gold, silver, tin, lead, and zinc, which are worked by the worst class of convicts sent thither for the most heinous offences. It is the penitentiary of Siberia.

The harbors and ports of Siberia on the sea of Okotsk, particularly *Okotsk*, in $59^{\circ} 20' 22''$ north latitude, and *Ajan*, are eminently convenient for foreign commerce. The factory of the Imperial Russian-American Company was transferred from the former to the latter port in 1846. The navigation of the sea is open from June till October. The principal food of the inhabitants of Okotsk is fish, on which they feed themselves, their dogs, cattle, and poultry. All other provisions are exorbitantly dear. Flour costs 25 paper roubles* per pood. Beef is so dear as to be rarely eaten, and wines and groceries have to pay a land carriage from St. Petersburg of 7,000 miles.

Ajan lies south of *Okotsk*, and is more favorably situated for commercial operations. From hence the company propose to introduce agriculture amongst the nomadic tribes of the vicinity, and establish commercial relations with the Guiliacks, spread over the frontier of Manchuria, not far from *Ajan*. Some families of this nomadic race have been recently located near the river May. The essays which they have made in the culture of wheat have succeeded at *Okotsk*.

The Shantar islands, near the southern extremity of the sea of Okotsk, abound in valuable fur animals, and are still little visited by the hunters. They derive their name from Shantar, a Guiliack word, signifying "island." The group is composed of Falsikoff, Great Shantar, Little Shantar, and Bielotchi islands, among which there is good anchorage.

There is said to be a good harbor at the entrance of the river Uda, on which the town of *Udskoi* is situated, about 40 miles from its mouth. Between the Uda and the frontier of Manchuria, Professor Von Middendorff discovered, in 1844, the small fine bay of Manega. There are also two small rivers, the Toron and Tugary; the latter has its outlet in a bay, on which the small town of *Tugary* is situated.

*The paper rouble is equal to 20 cents United States currency.

At the most northern recess of the bay of Ishijinsk, one of the great inlets of the sea of Okotsk, is the small town of *Ishijinsk*, in $54^{\circ} 36'$ north latitude, and $104^{\circ} 33'$ east longitude, with 500 inhabitants, who chiefly live on the produce of their fishery, but have also some commerce with the Koriacks; and an annual fair of the nomadic tribes of the district held annually at this place.

The country of the Tchuktsches extends from Behring's strait to the country of the Koriacks, between the 64th and 71st parallels. The valleys are filled with morasses and small lakes; the mountains are of moderate height. The inhabitants are fishers and hunters, and amount to about 10,000. There is a tradition among the Tchuktsches that the strait which separates them from the opposite shore towards the north was formerly covered with ice, and that the natives passed it in their baydars or boats, made of whalebone.

The Tchuktsches, who inhabit the country to the north of the river Anadyr, have defended themselves with valor and success against the Russians, and pay no tribute. That portion of the nation who live in permanent habitations belong to the family of the Esquimaux, who seem to have emigrated from America, and maintain an intercourse between the two continents. The island of Imaklit, one of the group of the Diomedea or Gwosdef islands, is generally the place where the exchange of goods takes place. The most active traders are the American inhabitants of the two small islands called King's islet, or Oookiosh, and Asiak or Ajak, especially those of the last mentioned island, who dispose of the Russian goods which are obtained from the Tchuktsches along the coast of America as far south as the peninsula of Aliaska, and would probably carry them still farther to the east, if the settlements of the Imperial Russian American Company did not provide the tribes in those parts with such articles.

The Tchuktsches, as well as the Americans, visit the island of Imaklit in summer in their baydars, and in winter in sledges, which are drawn by dogs. The Tchuktsches bring tobacco, some iron utensils and ornaments obtained from the Russians, with a considerable number of reindeer dresses, as this animal does not appear to be common in any part of North America. The natives of the islands of Asiak bring a variety of furs and a great number of morse tusks. The American tribes which inhabit the country north of cape Prince of Wales, as far as Icy cape, also visit the island of Imaklit to obtain Russian goods. The knowledge of the extensive commerce thus carried on between the two continents by savage tribes, which we owe to Admiral Von Wrangel, explains how the iron pots and knives which Captain Beechy found among the inhabitants of Icy cape, and the knives which Franklin saw on the northern coast of America, and which were all of Russian manufacture, found their way to these remote places.

The Koriaks inhabit the country between the Anadyr and the peninsula of Kamtschatka. They are divided into two classes: the one of which are located—the other pursue a nomad life. The former are chiefly found on the shore of the sea of Okotsk, where they dwell in villages resembling those of the Kamtschatkadales. Their numbers amount to about 2,000: they are subject to Russia, and pay an annual tribute.

Kamtschatka.—The peninsula of Kamtschatka is about 800 miles long, by 100 to 200 broad, and forms part of the Siberian provincial government of Irkoutsk, with a population of about 6,000. The natives call

themselves Idemen. It was first discovered and settled by the Russians in 1696; is mostly sterile, rocky, and mountainous, and has several volcanoes in constant activity. Pic de Kluchevsk, which was visited and described by Professor Erman, a few years since, is stated to be upwards of 15,825 feet above the level of the sea.

The country abounds in bears, lynxes, sea and river otters, reindeer, foxes of different colors, sables, beavers, seals, walruses, &c. Salmon, and a variety of other fish, are found in the rivers and on the coasts, and whales are numerous. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in hunting, fishing, and whaling; furs, dried fish, and whale oil, are the principal exports. The Siberian dog serves as an animal for draught among the Kamtschatkades and Ostiacks; the domestic reindeer is used for the same purpose; its milk and flesh serve for food, and its skin for clothing, among the Samoyedes and Tungouses.

Petrapaulski, the principal town of Kamtschatka, lies in 53° 5' north latitude, and 201° 16' west longitude, in the bay of Avatska, east coast; there are several smaller settlements on the same coast, and on the sea of Okotsk.

It is understood, upon the authority of Sir George Simpson, that Kamtschatka is to be placed, under the administration of the Imperial Russian-American Company, upon the same footing as the Russian-American colonies and islands in the northern Pacific.

In Russia, corporal punishments are much in use; criminals are seldom put to death, but are sent off to Siberia for almost every kind of offence, from the highest political crime to petty larceny. The most heinous offenders, according to Sir George Simpson, are sent to the mines; those guilty of minor delinquencies are settled in villages, or on farms. Statesmen, authors, and soldiers, banished thither for political offences, are generally permitted to establish themselves in small communities, where they spread refinement through the country. As a natural consequence, he observes that "all grades of society are considerably more intelligent than the corresponding grades in any other part of the empire; perhaps more so than in any part of Europe."

Many of the exiles are men of large income; and he adds: "In fact, for the reforming of the criminal, in addition to the punishment of the crime, Siberia is undoubtedly the best penitentiary in the world. When not bad enough for the mines, each exile is provided with an allotment of ground, a house, a horse, two cows, agricultural implements, and, for the first year, with provisions. For three years he pays no taxes whatever, and for the next ten only half the full amount. To bring fear as well as hope to operate in his favor, he already understands that his very first slip will send him from his home and family to toil in the mines. Thus does the government bestow an almost paternal care on the less atrocious criminals."

Among the Swedish officers made prisoners at the battle of Pultowa, and sent to Siberia by Peter the Great, was Baron Strahlenburg, the author of one of the best works on the country, entitled "Description of the Northeastern parts of Europe and Asia." Those honorable exiles brought with them the customs and manufactures of Europe. While employed in ameliorating their own situation, they enriched the people

among whom they were banished, and founded the first schools for teaching Russian, German, Latin, French, geography, geometry, and drawing.

The convicts and exiles call themselves Posselencies, or "colonists," and are styled in Siberia Neshchastnie Loodie, or "unfortunate people." No banished man, though he be a convict of this description, being ever called, in that country, by a name that can wound his feelings so as to remind him of crimes, for which he is already supposed to have been punished, or degrade him in the opinion of the public. By throwing a veil over their past crimes, the convicts are not only made to forget what they have been, but are induced to emulate the many examples before them of retrieved criminals, who have become honest, industrious, good subjects. Those who have been guilty of murder, and other atrocious crimes, are not mixed indiscriminately with the other exiles.

In 1840, the number of *colonist exiles* in Siberia amounted, according to M. Tchihatcheff, to 134,630, of which 64,000 were established in Western Siberia, and 70,290 in Eastern Siberia. Among the latter, 11,000 were employed in the gold mines. The number of that class of exiles sent to Siberia from 1839 to 1841, inclusive, amounted to 3,617.

Western Siberia comprises the whole region from the frontier of the government of Orenburg northward to Tobolsk.

Omsk, in 55° north latitude, and $73^{\circ} 40'$ east longitude, the new capital of Western Siberia, stands on the confluence of the Om and Irtysh, in the midst of a sandy plain. The town is still in its infancy, having but lately supplanted Tobolsk. It has been selected as the seat of the general government, chiefly with the view to the gradual subjugation of the Kirghiz, who occupy the vast intervening tract of country as far as the Caspian sea. The present population is about 8,000, with a garrison of 4,000 men. As to the civil government, *Omsk* still depends on the ancient city Tobolsk, which continues to be the capital of the united provinces of Tobolsk and *Omsk*.

One of the principal objects in the transfer of the government of Western Siberia to *Omsk*, in 1840, was with the view to the organization of Russian military posts through the Kirghiz steppes, in the direct route to the frontier of Tibet, from which it is distant about 1,000 miles. In 1842 they had established military stations upon 600 miles of the route, which have been subsequently extended to Tibet, where the Russians have now obtained a firm footing, and have extended their caravan trade thence to western India.

There is a military school at *Omsk*, at which 60 noble youths, and 120 Cossacks, are taught drawing, algebra, the oriental languages, history, and fortifications, and are intended for interpreters and agents in the East. It is 2,490 miles from St. Petersburg.

Tobolsk is situated on the Irtysh, near the river Tobole, in latitude $58^{\circ} 2'$ north, and longitude $68^{\circ} 35'$ east, with a population of about 30,000, and is divided into the upper and lower towns. It is the seat of the civil government of Western Siberia, and the see of an archbishop, who has jurisdiction over all Siberia. Several remarkable and elegant edifices embellish the upper town. Chinese silks and Bokharian stuffs of the richest qualities are displayed in the bazars, in quantities far exceeding those of European manufacture. The markets are abundantly stocked with provisions, especially game and fish, and five hundred fruit and kitchen gardens in the immediate vicinity of the town produce a

greater variety of fruits and vegetables than might be expected to be found under so severe a climate.

In this government iron and copper are extensively mined and prepared, especially in the Ural chain; and there are tanneries, felt manufactories, soap and tallow works, and for various common fabrics, in different places. The fur, hide, and transit trades employ a great proportion of the inhabitants. There are some coarse cloth, leather, and soap manufactories at Tomsk and other places. There is a regular and extensive commercial intercourse, by caravans of camels, between Tobolsk and the town of Tashkend, in the Khanate of Khokan, Central Asia. From Tobolsk to St. Petersburg is 2,076 miles.

Tomsk, in $56^{\circ} 30'$ north latitude, and $85^{\circ} 20'$ east longitude, the capital of the government of Tomsk, is built on the right bank of the Tom, about 25 miles from its junction with the Oby. The greater part of the inhabitants consist of Russians, Bokharians, and Calmucs, and subsist by commerce, for which the place is very advantageously situated, being on the great line of rivers which connect Tobolsk with the Chinese frontier, and the eastern part of Siberia.

In the southeastern districts, from Tomsk to Irkoutsk, rye, of which all the bread of the country people is made, wheat, oats, buckwheat, hemp, and tobacco, are grown in great quantities. In the more central regions, all the European vegetables succeed as well as on the southern frontier; but fruit trees are not generally cultivated. It has a population of 24,000, and is 2,990 miles from St. Petersburg.

Kolyvan, on the river Belaya, in the centre of the Altai mountains near lake Kolyvan, is surrounded with almost all the valuable stone which Siberia contains. Immense blocks of porphyry, agate, jasper, various kinds of fine-grained granite and marble, are here collected, to be prepared for the imperial palaces at St. Petersburg and elsewhere. There is a government establishment for working ornamental vases, columns, and other objects of art.

Krasnoyarsk, in the government of Tomsk, is situated on the Yenesei. It contains a population of about 7,000, who are principally employed in the gold-washings. The great road from Tomsk to Irkoutsk passes through this city, which occasions a considerable transit of commodities for the trade with Eastern Siberia and China. The surrounding country is remarkably fertile, and provisions are very abundant and cheap.

Ekaterinebourg, in 57° north latitude, and 62° east longitude, is the centre of the mining district for the Uralian mountains. The population amounts to 25,000, who are all connected with the mines. Besides its mining works, conducted by the imperial government, and by M. Jacobleff, the richest individual of the Russian empire, this town is noted in common with Kolyvan, and other places in Siberia, for the polishing of precious stones by water-power, including the porphyries, agates, jaspers, and malachites of the adjacent mountains.

Nijny Talgitsk is a mining town of the Demidoff family, situated on the eastern flank of the Ural, where 22,000 well-ordered and comfortably-housed inhabitants are gathered together under directors whose skill and science have earned for them the eulogy of Humboldt. In addition to hospitals and schools, in which even the sciences are taught, Prince Anatole Demidoff has caused a trigonometrical survey of the extensive property of his family to be made by French engineers. The net annual

income derived from the various mining establishments of the family, is said to exceed \$2,500,000; but it does not equal that of M. Jacobleff, who is reported to be the largest proprietor of mines in Siberia.

Semapatinsk, on the Irtysh, in 50° 40' north latitude, and 80° east longitude, in the circle of Biisk, is a neat garrisoned town, with a population of 8,000. It is the mart of an extensive trade with Central Asia and China, and boasts one of the richest floras to be met with in northern Asia. Its immediate environs, in a circuit of 14 miles, produce about 800 different kinds of flowers and shrubs. The river Irtysh here forms the boundary between Russia and China. The distance from this place to Peking is about the same as from Kiakta.

The principal articles of export from Semapatinsk and Omsk to China, are cotton goods, hardware, raw and tanned hides, and cloths of ordinary quality. The imports consist exclusively of tea, and a Chinese silver coin called yamba.

The following is an official statement of the commercial movements of Semapatinsk during a series of seven years, from 1836 to 1842, in bank roubles :

Years.	Exportations.	Importations.		Receipts of the custom-house.	
		Merchandise.	Specie.		
	<i>Roubles.</i>	<i>Roubles.</i>	<i>Roubles.</i>	<i>Roubles.</i>	<i>Copecs.</i>
1836 -	270,288	210,656	426,600	21,876	38
1837 -	349,928	212,750	369,500	18,186	56
1838 -	490,918	250,670	370,800	21,446	80
1839 -	420,074	311,714	370,400	33,929	12
1840 -	551,785	719,312	299,850	148,210	70
1841 -	886,650	674,906	87,507	162,195	38
1842 -	646,326	561,681	311,814	91,106	58

Bukturima, also a frontier town, is romantically situated on the small river of the same name, a tributary of the Irtysh. In its vicinity commences the boundary line between Asiatic Russia and China.

Petro-Paulofski, on the Ischm, is another frontier town of considerable trade with China. Mr. Cottrell states that merchandise to the amount of 15,000,000 roubles passed through the custom-house of this place in 1840. The duty on imports into Russia at these points is only two per cent. It is about 186 miles from Omsk.

An increasing clandestine trade is carried on between the town of *Biisk* and Mongolia, across the Tchouya, on the Chinese frontier. The exports of the Russians consist principally of cloths, velvets, hides, printed cottons, fowling-pieces and shot, furniture, kettles, kitchen utensils, hardware, &c., for which returns are made in brick tea, and the Chinese silver coin, yamba.

The town of *Orenburg*, on the Ural, is the great emporium of the Rus-

sian caravan trade with the Kirghiz horde, Bokhara, Khokan, Khiva, Tibet, Persia, &c. The Chinese and Usbeck merchants from Turkestan and Hanse assemble there to meet the Russian traders, and carry on a valuable traffic. From these regions, as well as from northwestern China, small parties of native merchants start for Semapalatinsk and Troisk, in Siberia, where a similar, but not such an extensive traffic, takes place.

In addition to the traffic going on daily and weekly with the Kirghizes, there are periodical arrivals and extensive caravans from Tibet, Bokhara, and Khokan. Armenians, Bokharians, Kirghizes, and many other Tartar traders, pass extensively backwards and forwards on their trading expeditions, being able to cross the Chinese frontier without molestation. Silk and cotton goods, coarse woollen carpets, calicoes, dried fruits, and turquoises, are the common articles of exchange against leather, furs, glass, iron, and common crockery. The traffic is very extensive, and constantly increasing; and Mr. Cottrell observes, "when the various amounts of imports and exports are added together all along the frontier from Orenburg to Kiakta, the gross sum will, we believe, turn out far greater than people usually imagine." Montgomery Martin estimates the aggregate annual value of the Russian overland trade with China and Central Asia at upwards of four millions sterling.

The town of *Zlatäust*, in the Ural mountains, is the great centre of the southern imperial mines, and celebrated for its steel manufactures, in which the Russians have made surprising progress within the last few years under the direction of General Anósoff, a skilful metallurgist, whose damasked scimitars, as well as every description of ornamental steel, are said to equal, if not surpass, the similar products of any other country. Captain James Abbott, a British officer, who travelled from India, by Khivah, to Russia, in 1840, gives a very elaborate criticism, in the narrative of his journey, on the damasked swords of the east, and on those of *Zlatäust* in particular, in which he observes: "The general fault of European blades is, that being forged of sheer-steel, for the sake of elasticity, they are scarcely susceptible of the keen edge which cast steel will assume. The genius of Anósoff has triumphed over this objection—not in hardening the soft steel, but in giving elasticity to the hard; and it may be doubted whether any fabric in the world can compete with that of *Zlatäust* in the production of weapons, combining in an equal degree, edge and elasticity."

Professor Von Middendorf, aided by learned friends, is actively engaged with the account of his important "Expedition and Exploration in Siberia;" and the Imperial Academy of Sciences of St. Petersburg has been charged to advise as to the means and style of publication. Count A. Von Keyserling is occupied with the fossils collected during the expedition. On the completion of this work, the Count will conduct an exploratory expedition along the eastern flanks of the Ural mountains, from 60° north to the Glacial sea, under the direction and patronage of the Imperial Geographical Society of St. Petersburg. Another scientific expedition is employed in Siberia under the direction of M. Castren.

Professor Von Middendorf read a paper before the British association for the advancement of science, in September, 1846, on the geographical boundaries and some of the characteristic peculiarities of the different native Siberian tribes.

1st. The Ostiaks: these were stated to be of Finnish origin, on physio-

logical and philological evidence. 2d. The Samoyedes, who were of Mongol descent. 3d. The Tungouses. 4th. The Yakouts; the extent to which Mongol features were found in a nation speaking a language akin to Turkish, was insisted on. 5th. The Yukagin; the physical peculiarities of which placed them along with the Samoyedes. 6th. The Aïnos; these were the inhabitants of the Kurile islands, at the mouth of the Amúr; of these there were two types, the Finnish and the Japanese. 7th. The Katchell; these were only known through the Aïnos.

2. RUSSIAN OVERLAND TRADE WITH CHINA AT KIAKTA, &c.

Kiakta is a Siberian frontier town in the government of Irkoutsk, lying in 50° 21' north latitude, and 106° 29' east longitude. Its name is derived from a Mongol word for a species of grass growing in the neighborhood, affording excellent pasture for the camels which arrive there in the caravans. It is called by the Russians Troitsko-Sauskaia. The town is commanded by Mount Borrgueltai, or "eagle mountain," which the Chinese reserved to themselves in the last demarcation treaty, on the pretence that it contained the tombs of their ancestors. It is situated on a small streamlet, also called the *Kiakta*, which is here the boundary between Siberia and China, falling into the Selengá, and communicating with lake Baïkal, Irkoutsk, and the river Angará, a branch of the great river Yenesei. The town contains about 5,000 inhabitants, is 2,480 feet above the level of the sea, and within the distance of half a mile from the Chinese town of Maimatchin, or "trading mart," in Mongolia. Maimatchin is also called Daï Oergo in Mongolian, and Chadaldatchin in Manchu. The district is governed by a counsellor of chancery and a director of the customs, who conduct, between them, the judicial, political, military, and commercial affairs. *Kiakta* is 55 miles southeast of Selengensk, 180 southeast from Irkoutsk, 4,174 from St. Petersburg, and 1,030 from Pekin.

Kiakta has fourteen merchants of the first guild, but only seven of them have fixed residences in the place. The others, who reside at Irkoutsk, and in European Russia, employ factors, and only visit the place occasionally. A school for instruction in the Chinese, Mongolian, and Manchu languages, was established in 1835. The young men taught in it are employed as interpreters. The number at present in the college is sixteen.

The Russians are prohibited from trading at the ports of China proper, in consequence of the privilege they have long enjoyed of an overland commerce at this place. Of late years this trade has become of great and increasing importance, and the attention of commercial men connected with China has been called to the Russian woollen manufactures, which have begun to compete successfully with those of English manufacture, which formerly supplied the Chinese market.

By the treaty of 14th June, 1728, between Russia and China, *Kiakta* and Maimatchin are made entrepôts of the overland trade between the two countries. Russia has had at Pekin, since the conclusion of the treaty, a convent or college, composed of six priests and four lay members, for celebrating the ritual of the Greek church, and teaching the Russian, Chinese, Mongolian, and Manchu languages. In this respect, Mr.

Macgregor considers Russia has great political and intelligent advantages over England in her trade with China.

The Imperial Russian-American Company carry to the fair which is held at Kiakta between January and March, the furs, peltries, sea-horse teeth, &c., collected at their trading establishments on the north-west coast of America, Kamtschatka, the Aleutian and Kurile islands. It is also frequented by Russian traders with Siberian furs, dressed sheep and lamb skins, woollen manufactures of various kinds required for the cold winter climate of northern China, Mongolia, and Manchuria, coarse linens, leather, specie, horned cattle, camels, horses, hounds, grey-hounds and dogs for hunting wild boars, provisions, meal, &c., to exchange for the raw and manufactured silk, porcelain, rhubarb, sugar candy, musk, and especially the teas of China.

The tea* imported at Kiakta, which is so highly reputed for its quality, on the ground of its passing overland, is still carried chiefly by water; first from Kiakta, by land, to Tomsk, on the Irtysh, a distance of more than 1,000 miles; thence by water down the Oby to its confluence with the Irtysh, and then up the latter to Tourmine, where it is landed and carried overland to Perm. It is then carried in boats down the Kama to its junction with the Wolga, and up this river to Nishney-Novgorod, where part of it is sold at the great annual fair in July at a large profit, and the remainder sent to Moscow for distribution and consumption in European Russia.

The tea of the finest quality is classed into flower and family tea, both of which are said to consist of pekoe. It is grown in the north of China, and said to be much superior to any shipped at Canton or Shanghai. This is owing to the leaf being less fired in the process of curing. Many of the finest teas drunk in China would not bear a long sea voyage in the hot and humid atmosphere of the hold of a ship, and therefore the teas conveyed to Europe and the United States by sea are required to be dried and fired to a degree that must injure their quality.

A considerable portion of the tea imported at Kiakta, and other marts on the Siberian frontier, is called brick tea. The Mongols and most of the nomads of Central Asia make use of this tea; it serves them both for drink and for food. The Chinese carry on a great trade in it, but never drink it themselves. In the tea manufactories, which are for the most part in the Chinese government of Fokien, the dry, dirty, and damaged leaves and stalks of the tea are thrown aside; they are then mixed with a glutinous substance, pressed into moulds and dried in ovens. These blocks are called by the Russians, on account of their shape, brick tea. The Mongols, the Burats, the inhabitants of Siberia beyond lake Baikal, and the Kalmucks, take a piece of this tea, pound it in a mortar, made on purpose, and throw the powder into a cast-iron vessel, full of boiling water, which they suffer to stand a long time upon the fire, adding a little salt and milk, and sometimes mixing flour fried in oil. The weary traveller may at all times boldly enter a tent and quench his thirst with brick tea; but he must have his own wooden cup, which every Mongol carries about with him as an article indispensably necessary. The most esteemed of these cups come from Tibet; the rich generally have them lined with silver.

*See Appendix A.

This tea, or broth, is known by the name of satouran. M. Timkowsky says he drunk tea prepared both ways, and found it palatable enough; at least very nourishing. All depends on the skill and cleanliness of the cook. This brick tea serves also instead of money in the dealings of this people, as well as in Daouria, on the frontier.

Tea made up into balls and rolls, or compressed into flat cakes, is also exported by the Chinese to Tibet, Burmah, &c., and when boiled with milk, is said to constitute an agreeable and stimulating beverage.

The following is an official statement of the commercial movements of Kiakta, from 1825 to 1842, in paper roubles, = 20 cents United States currency.

Years.	Exportations.	Importations.	Receipts of the custom-house.	
	Roubles.		Roubles.	Copecs.
1825 -	10,818,639	The value of the imports corresponds with that of the exports.	6,315,858	10
1826 -	12,078,157		7,012,643	13
1827 -	14,032,562		8,141,653	27
1828 -	14,697,561		8,076,554	24
1829 -	16,350,664		8,289,781	6
1830 -	11,456,195		7,070,562	37
1831 -	13,306,879		7,088,821	10
1832 -	16,175,607		9,410,606	66
1833 -	14,863,038		9,113,072	67
1834 -	16,239,196		9,308,923	62
1835 -	17,422,990		9,545,698	3
1836 -	22,588,027		11,263,135	57
1837 -	20,220,812		11,096,418	24
1838 -	18,363,980		10,525,847	47
1839 -	22,628,366	11,484,710	9	
1840 -	31,637,132	15,535,897	48	
1841 -	33,916,622	17,466,750	58	
1842 -	30,135,257	19,178,864	36	

In 1845, the Russian trade at Kiakta amounted to 13,622,000 silver roubles, (a silver rouble = 75 cents United States currency.) Russia received 140,000 chests of tea, chiefly pekoe, a considerable quantity of raw and manufactured silks, cotton cloths called *daba* and *kitaia*, rhubarb, porcelain, sugar candy, musk, tobacco, rice, artificial flowers, tiger and panther skins, rubies, coloring matters, canes, &c. The Chinese took in return furs, peltries, leather, tanned hides, Russian cloths, velvets, camlets, druggets, white flannels, stuffs, woollen, linen, and cotton cloths, glassware, hardware, tin, talc, specie, cattle, provisions, flour, &c. The *daba* and *kitaia* is a sort of thick calico of different colors, brought from China, through Bokhara, into Russia, in large quantities, and is extensively used for the apparel of both men and women. The Chinese *kitaia* is the best, of which there are two sorts. *Daba* is a very strong stuff, of a beautiful red color, without gloss; it is narrow and not unlike coarse calico.

The other is coarse, but more durable. Great quantities of cotton stuffs, and calicoes of gay colors, are also brought by the Chinese from Mongolia, called Selenskaia, from a city of the name of Selein. They are generally of gay colors, as red, green, yellow, blue, and made up in bundles of rolls, each 20 ells long. Some of their finest silk stuffs, embroidered with gold, sell readily in St. Petersburg for 250 paper roubles per ell.

A great portion of the Chinese grandees wrap themselves up in costly Siberian and American furs. The Mongols living in China near the frontiers make great use of the Russian cloths, and of hard iron wares and leather. The exports of Russia woollen and cotton cloths to China and Central Asia are constantly increasing; goods of this description are now extensively manufactured chiefly at, and near, Moscow. The Russian woollen cloths, called by the Chinese *ka-la*, are greatly preferred by them to those of English manufacture, and which they have almost entirely superseded in the China market, particularly at Ningpo, Shanghai, and Amoy.

The pieces are from 19 to 30 yards in length; the breadth varies from 22 to 64 inches. It is made up in packages of five pieces, and an assortment usually contains 50 pieces blue, 35 pieces black, 10 pieces scarlet, 10 pieces ash, and 5 pieces green. The Russian woollen cloths are of different qualities, similar to those of the English called "Spanish stripes," and "habit cloths." They are classed in three varieties: 1st, Mezeritsky cloths; 2d, those of Masloff, or Maslovia; 3d, Karnavoy cloths. In each variety are four or five grades of quality.

The assortment of colors in 100 pieces of Mezeritsky is, blue 40 pieces; light blue, 10 pieces; black, 20 pieces; violet, 2 pieces; yellow, 1 piece; and pomegranate, 8 pieces; brown-violet, 4 pieces; scarlet, 10 pieces; green, 10 pieces; and "fashions of the day," 2 pieces.

These are packed in 10 bales, each having an assortment of the different colors. The first quality of Mezeritsky cloth costs at Moscow 150 to 165 paper roubles per piece of 25 arsheens, (6s. 9d. to 7s. 4d. sterling per yard,) and the charges from Moscow to Kiakta amount to about 250 paper roubles per bale; they measure from 60 to 67 inches in width. The first quality of Masloff cloth costs at Moscow from seven to seven and a half paper roubles per arsheen, (8s. to 8s. 6d. sterling per yard;) the length of the pieces 40 to 45 arsheens, or 31 to 35 yards; breadth between the lists, 67 to 70 inches. They are made up in bales of eight pieces each. In an export of 1,000 pieces of these two cloths, the proportions are about 750 to 800 pieces of Mezeritsky, and 200 to 250 pieces of Maslovia.

Prior to 1844 large quantities of Turkey opium were imported free of duty, and smuggled into China by the Russian traders. By the present Russian tariff the drug is subject to a duty of 40 silver roubles per pood, which is considered as implying prohibition. The contraband trade, however, in this as well as in every other article, both at that mart and along the extended Chinese frontier of 3,000 miles, is said to be very considerable. Camels and a few mules are used to transport the coarser goods, but the fine quality teas are conveyed in carts, each of which is generally drawn by one ox, and they travel at the rate of about 14 miles a day. M. Timkowsky thus describes them in his journal:—"The Mongol carts generally have only two wheels, which turn round with the axle. The wheel is formed of two small square blocks of wood fastened together in the shape of a cross, and the interval filled up with rounded

wedges, instead of felloes; the axletree is fixed in the centre, so as not to project beyond the wheels." The ordinary teas are generally conveyed in winter, by camels, because it is made of the leaves in a state of maturity, and cannot be forwarded sooner from the province of Fokien to Kalgan, and thence to Russia. The town known to the Russians by the name of Kalgan is Tchangkâ-keou, and is situated a few miles south of the great wall, and about 100 miles north of Pekin. Kalgan is the key to the commerce of China with Russia, and in part also with Mongolia. All merchandise destined for the markets of Russia is collected here, and conveyed across by caravans. Merely the conveyance of the Chinese merchandise from Kalgan to Kiakta, and that of the articles which the Chinese have exchanged with the Russian merchants, is a great source of profit to the Mongols, as they employ their camels and the Tsakhars their oxen. They receive payment from the Chinese in silver, but principally in merchandise.

From Kiakta through the country of the Kalkhas, to Oubur Oude, a distance of some 500 miles, M. Timkowsky states that the road, as in all Mongolia, is in general mountainous, and covered with gravel. From Oubur Oude the road passes through the country of the Eastern and Western Sounites to that of the Tsakhars, a distance of about 250 miles, and from this place to the frontier of the Tsakhars grass is rare, the water brackish, the road in general sandy. Elsewhere we find that the Sounites inhabit either the whole or a part of the desert of Gobi, a sterile tract intersected by lofty barren mountains. The third portion of the road, through the country of the Tsakhars to the great wall of China, is about 150 miles in length. The steppe abounds in pasturage. There are small rivers and lakes. From Nortian, the first village in China, to Pekin, is rather more than 120 miles, with a very fatiguing road over the chain of mountains Kinkan Dabakhin, which separates Mongolia from China. All merchandise, therefore, from Pekin, must travel through this 1,000 miles of inhospitable country, and then, after it has safely arrived at Kiakta, must be conveyed 4,300 miles further before it can reach St. Petersburg.

The duties paid by the Russians at Kiakta are, on furs 25 per cent.; other articles 20 per cent.; with one per cent. for deepening the river Selengâ, and seven per cent. towards the custom-house. They carry on a profitable trade in China, and find a ready market for their inferior furs, which would not pay transportation from the coast of Siberia to European Russia; whilst good furs bring a high price in China, and are generally too expensive for the home market. In exchange for their furs they get articles which they would not be able to obtain on as good terms from the European nations.

The transactions of the fair are regulated by a board of trade, composed of Russian merchants, who are annually elected under the direction of the custom-house at Kiakta, and arrange with a corresponding board of Chinese traders at Maimatchin the price of every article to be exchanged, to which a relative value is fixed on the Chinese article. This is done in writing and is unchangeable, and no transaction is permitted except upon these terms. The traffic in opium is strictly prohibited.

The charges on a chest of tea from Kiakta to Nishney Novgorod and Moscow are stated to be as follows, viz:

Specification of charges.	Flower Tea, weighing 60 lbs.	Family Tea, weighing 65 lbs.	Family Tea, weighing 80 to 85 lbs.*
	<i>Roubles.</i>	<i>Roubles.</i>	<i>Roubles.</i>
Import duty and custom- house charges -	130	138.50	160
Commission at Kiakta -	10	4.80	6.40
Packing in hides -	3	3	3
Receiving, weighing, and cartage in Kiakta -	10	10	10
Cartage to Nishney-Nov- gorod and Moscow -	35	35	50
	188	191.31	229.40

* 40 Russian pounds = 36 avoirdupois.

The prices, which have been unaltered for years, are as follows:

Roubles, 60 for one chest quadrat family tea.

“ 120 “ “ third sort flower tea.

“ 80 “ “ Polootornay family tea ($1\frac{1}{2}$ as large.)

The prices of Russian produce were raised in 1843 from those of former years, and it was also arranged that one chest of family tea is to go along with every chest of flower tea.

The secret instructions from the government of China to their licensed merchants at Kiakta display great cunning, duplicity, and meanness, and are characteristic of the uniform policy observed in their intercourse with the “foreign barbarians.” The Chinese traders are moreover charged by the Russians with trickery and unfair dealing, by giving short weight in teas, and short measures in silks and cotton goods.

The following is a translation of the secret code, or abstract of instructions for the guidance and government of the Chinese traders at that port:

“The end and aim of every commercial nation should be to prevent the advantage being on the side of the foreigners.

“1st. To do this effectually, all letters received by any one of the licensed merchants from their partners are only to be opened in a public assembly, so that all may act in concert against the foreigners.

“2d. Discover what articles the Russians are most in need of, and what price they sell for in Russia. Every member is to strive with all his might to obtain information on this head, and lay it before a general meeting; when the president will give to each a note which will state the quantity of each article he is to purchase, and the price he is to buy them at; and likewise those which he is to withhold.

“3d. The least display possible as to the quantity of Chinese goods that may be brought for sale; do not appear anxious for Russian goods.

“4th. The Chinese goods should be at all times less in quantity than Russian; that no fresh goods should be brought forward until the old ones are sold off.

" 5th. Let no eagerness be shown for any article of Russian manufacture; no matter how much any one member may wish to procure it.

" 6th. When the Russians are scantily supplied with any valuable article, great eagerness should be displayed to purchase the whole stock, saying that it was in good demand, and then to be equally divided between each merchant; the consequence will be, that the next year a large stock will be brought to market, and great bargains will be procured by stating that the demand has ceased, and thus gain advantage to the nation.

" 7th. If the Russians should raise the price of any article that was scarce, no one should buy anything for a month. If they complain to us, we will tell them the trade must be stopped.

" 8th. Tell the Russians that the quantity of goods on hand is much less than it really is; and likewise tell them that China has no silk or cotton to dispose of.

" 9th. No license will be granted to trade at Kiakta, unless the merchant is able to write and speak the Russian language; and that will prevent the necessity of the Russians acquiring a knowledge of the Chinese; and thus preserve the secrets of trade and the policy of the government.

" 10th. Treat the Russians with politeness on all occasions, and even show them acts of hospitality, which will enable you the better to learn how their country is governed; but on no account sleep in the same house with them.

" 11th. No merchant to transact business for one year after his arrival at Kiakta; but during that period to learn thoroughly all the secrets of the trade, and thus prevent mistakes.

" 12th. Prohibits gold, silver, copper, and iron, from being exchanged with Russia.

" 13th. Proscribes the introduction of all articles of luxury, wine, spirits, &c."

There are various punishments awarded for a violation of these rules. For disclosing the nature of the above instructions to the Russians, death or banishment for life; for lesser crimes, mistakes, &c., to pull the grain boats for five years.

The trade of the interior of China, the prices, demand, &c., are to be kept a profound secret.

The Chinese tea merchants are noted for their excessive politeness and tact in puffing their wares by pompous advertisements, to draw customers. The following specimen of their skill in this line is a literal translation of the advertisement of a tea dealer in Maimatchin:

" TIEN-CHOUN-HOU-DZE.

" It is well known to all the gentlemen tea commissioners that teas of a superior quality come from the hills of Ou-ish, and the banks of the river Tsei, where the plant grows very abundantly. Whoever has visited those places will assure you that the air of the country is endowed with an extraordinary productive power, which increases and improves the plant, imparting to the leaf a brilliant color, pleasing to the eye, and a peculiarly delicate flavor.

" We are well aware that teas called the Loun-towan, 'sleeping dragon,' and Fin-ian, 'small eyes of the king of birds,' have heretofore appeared in this market; but it was a mere deception. Impudent swin-

dealers thus attempted to deceive the public by selling an inferior mixture under these celebrated names, and by such frauds did a great injury to the fair dealer.

“With the view of protecting the public in future against the rapacity of such persons, I have had two seals engraven on jasper. Hereafter all the packages of tea that leave my depot will be sold under the signature No. 10, and will moreover bear the impress of those seals, one of which, of a round form, indicates the place of my birth; and the other, of my tea warehouse. I therefore beg the most respectable public to examine my stock, to be assured that the tea which I advertise is in fact the produce of the crop gathered in the nine celestial districts of the province of Dzjou tsoü man-ian.”

The head of the Chinese board of trade and municipal government of Maimatchin, called the Dzargotchi, is always a Manchu of the royal race, whose term of service is three years, after which he returns to Pekin. If the people are satisfied with him, they accompany him on his departure to the gate; and when he goes out they take off one of his boots, which is then placed over it in token of their approbation of his conduct. When Mr. Cottrell, the English traveller, was at that place in 1841, he saw but two boots over the gate.

There is no ceremony now observed by the Russians and Chinese, as was formerly the case, on arriving at Kiakta or Maimatchin. Several of the Russian merchants engaged in the trade have accumulated large fortunes, and live in elegant style. The residence of M. Siberchoff, one of the wealthiest of the guild, is said to have cost \$100,000. The merchants think the best hospitality they can offer to a stranger, is to press him to drink all the different kinds of tea in succession.

The Chinese trade, independently of its direct benefits to individual merchants and manufacturers, gives to Russia a position and an influence in the commercial world, which, without her Asiatic dependency of Siberia, she could never have acquired.

It may be assumed as a fact, that since the commencement of the present century the traffic between Russia and China, at Kiakta, has increased twelvefold. It is regarded as the most beneficial branch of Russian commerce; and besides the Imperial Russian American Company, a considerable number of the principal merchants of Kiakta, Irkoutsk, and Moscow, have large capitals invested in the trade. Besides Kiakta, the Siberian frontier towns of Zurukaita, Semapalatinsk, Biisk, and Omsk, are considerable marts for trade with China and Central Asia. There are various roads going from Yarkand through Chinese Turkestan and the Kirghiz country, that serve as ways of transport by immense trading caravans from China to Orenburg, and other great marts of trade in Russia.

The Chinese government has, since the conclusion of the peace, very much relaxed its restrictive regulations respecting the Russian commerce. The prohibitory system, which had hitherto been maintained at the frontiers of Chinese Turkestan, and along the great wall, against the Chinese speculators, led occasionally to revolts, in suppressing which the Emperor was obliged to disburse large sums. There is moreover a desire to place the Russians under obligation to secure the loyalty of the Mongol tribes, by opening the road to gain, and to remove every possible occasion of collision. The statement of an increase of commerce may, therefore, be considered as correct.

The commerce carried on in Kiakta is a mere barter trade. On the principal commodity imported by the Russians, the greatest profits realized: one account states that what was bought in 1839, at that market for \$7,000,000, realized \$18,000,000 at the fair of Nishney-Novgorod.

Next to Kiakta, the fair of *Irbit*, in the Asiatic district of the government of Perm, is the most important of all Asiatic Russia. The town is situated on the river Irbit, contains about 5,000 inhabitants, and is the entrepot for Siberian furs and other Asiatic merchandise passing into Europe. The fair is held in January, and is frequented by Russians, Siberians, Bokharians, Armenians, and Greeks. There are large iron works in the vicinity of the town. It is 142 miles northeast of Ekaterinebourg.

Nishney-Novgorod is situated at the junction of the Wolga with the Okha, and has a population of about 33,000. The celebrated fair commences the 1st of July, and lasts till the end of August, and is usually attended by more than 300,000 persons from the most distant parts of the empire, and Europe, Asia, Australia, and America. It is regulated by imperial decrees, and the places of sale and purchase of staple commodities have each their respective stations and bazars, where the products, manufactures, goods, wares, and merchandise of almost every country on the globe are to be found. The assemblages of people of all tongues and costumes are more varied at this fair than at any other, consisting of Chinese, Calmucks, Bashkirs, Mongols, Manchus, Bokhars, Indians, Kirghizes, Persians, Georgians, Circassians, Armenians, Parsees, Arabs, Greeks, Jews, Slavonians, Germans, Italians, English, Dutch, Belgians, Danes, Swedes, Americans, Australians, &c. The trade is as various as the crowd is motley, consisting of an endless catalogue of all that is requisite to supply the natural and artificial wants of mankind. The transactions are immense; the aggregate commercial movements of the fair are estimated by Sir George Simpson to amount to between forty and fifty millions of dollars annually.

The Emperor of Russia is devoting his gigantic energies to the promotion and encouragement of agriculture, mining, manufactures, internal trade, foreign commerce, and the development of the resources of the country, by opening new and direct routes of communication by land and water with every part of his European and Asiatic dominions, embracing an aggregate population of about 62,000,000.

By the system of railroads now in progress of construction in Russia, lines are to be extended from St. Petersburg to Moscow, Nishney-Novgorod, on the Wolga, and Casan, on the Casanca, near the Wolga, and another line which is to terminate at the Black sea. The Wolga, 2,500 miles in length, is already united with the Neva, connecting the Baltic and Caspian, and also the route to Siberia and China, all by means of the canal of Vishnei-Volotshok. Several further extensive improvements of the internal navigation by the rivers and canalization of the empire are in progress.

From Nishney-Novgorod steamers descend the Wolga to Casan and Astrakan. In this latter city the Emperor has lately built several steamers for the purpose of plying on the Caspian, and keeping up commercial relations between Russia and Persia, Independent Tartary, and the provinces beyond the Caucasus; thus opening a direct line of communication by railroads and steamers between the principal states of Western and Eastern Europe and Western and Central Asia.

In 1846, the Russian government sent M. Demetrius Wassingen, an attachée of the cabinet of Count Nesselrode, as special envoy to Peking, for the purpose of negotiating a new secret commercial treaty with China. The Russians are desirous of establishing at Kiakta a considerable depot of merchandise, from which the Chinese may at all times draw the supplies they want. Late advices from the East intimate that the envoy had succeeded in concluding a treaty with the celestial government, securing to the Russians the free admission through that part of the frontier of all Russian merchandise, and moreover the monopoly of certain articles which we and the English are beginning to import, together with the privilege of the free navigation of the great Manchurian river Amúr.

Ever since the first disastrous treaty of 1689 between Russia and China, the Court of Peking is accustomed to consider the Czars as princes subject to the Celestial Empire. Kang-hi boasted of having humbled the Russians, and praised their submission when they refused to assist his enemy, the prince of the Eleuths. In the Chinese accounts of Russia it is described as the country of Olozu, sending tribute to the celestial Emperor by the way of Kiatou, and the Russian Emperor is styled by them Tsakan Khan, "the white king."

The following rules and regulations, to be observed by embassies to the court of Peking, are translated from a Chinese court document, known as the *Ta-Tsing Hwui-tien*:

"The countries in the four quarters of the world which send embassies to China, and pay tribute, are Corea, Loo-choo, Laos, Cochin China, Siam, Sulu, Holland, Burmah, and those of the Western ocean; all other countries have only intercourse and commerce.

"When tribute bearers arrive on the frontier, the local officers must report the same to the Emperor; and if the Emperor permits the embassy to proceed, the officer must fix their numbers, grant them gifts, provide them with what is necessary, and if any are sick, show them compassionate charity, and an escort of officers and soldiers to protect them.

"The Chinese and foreign merchants are permitted to trade with each other in such things as they have, regard being had to the established prohibitions. Compassion and charity must be shown to foreigners who are lost by shipwreck, and they must be sent away in safety.

"Foreigners of the western countries, who are skilled in arts, or astronomy, and are willing to go and serve in Peking, must first be reported by the local officers at the place where they arrive; and on getting a reply, they may be sent, with a safe conductor, to the capital. The following are the countries from which ambassadors have come with tribute to the court of Peking:

"*Corea*.—Its tribute must be sent once in four years. The number of the embassy allowed is, one ambassador, one deputy, a secretary, three interpreters, and twenty-four men to protect the tribute. The number of servants and others is not fixed, but the imperial bounties are only given to thirty of them.

"*Loo-choo*.—This embassy comes by the way of Fokien, twice in three years. One ambassador, and one deputy: the number of interpreters and servants is not fixed.

“*Cochin China*.—This embassy comes once in two years: there are two or three ambassadors. The assistants may be from four to nine, and the other servants, &c., may be ten or more.

“*Laos*.—This embassy comes by way of Yunnan. The period is once in ten years; and the number composing the embassy cannot exceed one hundred, and those who go to Peking cannot be more than twenty.

“*Siam*.—This comes by Canton, once in three years. The ambassadors may be two, three, or four: the number who may go to Peking cannot exceed twenty-six.

“*Sulu*.—Comes by way of Canton and Amoy, once in five or more years: one ambassador, one deputy, one interpreter; but the number of followers is not fixed.

“*Holland*.—The Dutch embassy comes by Canton: it has no fixed time. It may be composed of one or two ambassadors, one head follower, one secretary: the other followers cannot be more than one hundred, and those going to Peking cannot exceed twenty.

“*Burmah*.—Comes by Yunnan, once in ten years. They must not exceed one hundred, and those going to Peking cannot exceed twenty.

“The countries of the Western ocean, (Europe,) Portugal, Italy, and England, have no fixed periods. Each embassy cannot have more than three ships, each ship one hundred men; and only twenty-two people are admitted to Peking.”

Among the other nations mentioned are Japan, Acheen, France, and Sweden, which have not brought tribute; and the reason assigned why Mr. Cushing, our commissioner to China in 1844, should not proceed to Peking, was because the United States had never sent tribute; the Chinese government artfully representing the presents brought by the various Asiatic and European embassies to Peking as tribute to the Celestial Empire. The first and only Chinese embassy that was ever sent to a European court arrived at St. Petersburg in 1733. The embassy consisted of three mandarins of the second order, and a numerous retinue. Presents were accepted and returned.

3. MANCHURIA AND THE RIVER AMUR.

Manchuria, or Eastern Chinese Tartary, occupies the vast region subject to China, lying north of Corea, to Siberia, from which it is separated by the chain of the Daourian or Yablonoi-Krebei, “Crab-apple mountains,” so called by the Russians from their abounding in a tree bearing a small fruit resembling the *crab apple*. As they approach the Pacific they take the name of the Stannovoi mountains, and extend northeast of Okotsk to Behring’s straits. It is bounded on the west from Mongolia by the mountain range of King-Khan-Oola; on the east by the sea of Okotsk, gulf of Tartary, and sea of Japan; on the south by the great wall, barrier of stakes, gulf of Leao-tong, and Yellow sea. Its greatest extent from north to south is about 700 miles, and from east to west about 900 miles, and is situated between 40° and 55° north latitude, and $118^{\circ} 30'$ and 140° east longitude. Population estimated at about 2,000,000.

The territory is divided into three great provinces, viz: to the south, Shing-King, or Moukden, the ancient Leao-tong; in the centre, Kirin-Oola, and the North Kihlung-Keeang or Tsitsikar. The first of these borders on China, Mongolia, and the gulf of Leao-tong; the second on Corea,

the sea of Japan, and gulf of Tartary; and the third on Siberia and Mongolia.

The government of the provinces consists of a supreme government at Moukden, the capital, and three provincial governments. That of Moukden is the same as is in China proper, while that of the other provinces is wholly military. The province of Moukden includes two departments, that of Fungteen-foo, the metropolitan department, and the Hing King, or King chow-foo. These are subdivided into Chow and Heen districts, as in China. The city of Moukden is not under a cheefoo, but one of higher rank, called foo-yuen, who co-operates with one of the boards in the government of the metropolitan department. His assistant has the direction of the literary branch of the administration. The three provinces are under the government of a general, who is always a Manchu. His subordinate officers are lieutenant generals, at the head of each principal division of the province. Subordinate to these are garrison officers, of rank varying according to the importance of the districts under them; these delegate their authority to officers or assistant directors. The frontiers are under a separate class of officers.

The Manchus are divided into eight orders, or distinct classes, which has each a separate colored flag or banner. They belong to the great race called Tungouses by the Russians, and Tartars and Oeven in their own language. *Moukden* is the capital and residence of the supreme civil, and military provincial government; that of the other provinces is wholly military.

The western part of Manchuria is in general a flat country; the immense plains of Mongolia terminate there. This region, and the southern part, called Shing-King, are well cultivated, for the Manchus are an agricultural people, and not nomads like the Mongols; and it is in course of rapid settlement by agricultural emigrants from the Chinese province of Shantung.

The land is fertile and produces wheat, *mai-se-mi*, (a grain peculiar to the country, between wheat and rice,) rice, millet, oats, leguminous plants, hemp, tobacco and cotton. The land cultivated by the first Russian settlers on the Albasyne, an affluent of the Amúr, in 1648, still produces grains growing spontaneously from the seed which falls annually from the ears. Immense herds of oxen and flocks of sheep are seen feeding in the valleys. The summers are short, but very hot; the greater part of the fruit trees of Europe, and even tropical productions, are found here. Among the mineral products are copper, iron, agate, and jasper. Valuable pearls are found in several of the rivers and lakes, and in the gulf of Tartary. In Leao-tong there is a species of native oak, upon the leaves of which wild silk-worms feed, and its product forms one of the principal branches of industry in the province.

In the centre, which is generally mountainous, Manchuria is covered with vast primitive forests, abounding with tigers, bears, deer, reindeer, black foxes, ermines, sables, martins, and other wild animals; eagles, condors, vultures, pheasants, and a great variety of birds; they also produce rhubarb and the real ginseng, so highly valued by the Chinese for its supposed strengthening and aphrodisiac qualities, and which the Emperor sells to his subjects for its weight in gold. In the autumn of every year there is a general hunt by a large body of imperial huntsmen, for game, furs, peltries, rhubarb, and ginseng, which are government monopolies. Not-

withstanding the severest prohibitions, great numbers of Chinese, Manchus, Coreans, and natives, hunt these forests for their own advantage.

The Emperor Kien-lung, in his description of Manchuria, says: "You find a succession of hills and valleys, parched lands and well irrigated territories, majestic rivers, impetuous torrents, graceful streams, smiling plains, and forests impenetrable to the rays of the sun. The iron mountain and the Ornamented mountain are seen in the distance. On the latter is found a lake which never increases or diminishes. Among the trees of the country are the fir, cypress, accacia, willow, apricot, peach and mulberry. Wheat yields a return of an hundred fold. Ginseng grows in all the mountains; its name signifies the 'queen of plants.' It would make man immortal if he were capable of becoming so. Leao-tong exports large quantities of wheat, peas, rice, and rhubarb."

The rivers of the north, particularly the Amúr and its tributaries, the Songari and Osouri, swarm with beavers, otters, sturgeon, the belouga, salmon, trout, pike, carbel, shad, and a variety of other fish. The belouga, (*sturio huso*) or "white fish," is the largest fresh-water fish that is eatable; it is generally 15 to 25 feet in length, and also abounds in the rivers that fall into the Caspian and Baltic. The flesh is very white, tender, and much esteemed by the Russians. It is eaten fresh, salted, and smoked. Caviar is made from the roe, and isinglass from the intestines.

This river is called Amúr, or Tamur, "Great river," by the Guiliacks, living on its banks near its embouchure; by the Manchus, Saghalién-Oola, "river of Black water;" by the Chinese, He-long-kiang, "river of the Black Dragon;" by the Mongols, Kara-muran, "Black river;" and by the Russians, Yamur. It carries off nearly all the waters of the slopes and the mountains in which the great Asiatic desert, Gobi, or Shamo, terminates towards the east. In its course it forms the boundary between Mongolia and the Siberian district of Nertschinsk; passes through lake Kalun, or Dalai-Nor—about 210 miles in circumference—receives a great number of navigable rivers, and after a winding course of more than 2,280 miles, discharges its waters into the gulf of Saghalién. It is rapid and deep; nine miles wide at its mouth; and is stated by the Jesuit Gerbillon, who explored it by order of the Emperor Kang-hi, to be navigable 500 leagues, as far as Nertschinsk, or Niptchu. The gulf is united with the north Pacific by a strait, which in the narrowest part is about five miles wide, with 20 to 25 feet water on the bar at its entrance. On the southern banks of the river are some small towns, penal settlements of the Chinese.

The Kerolon and Onon, upper tributaries of the Amúr, rise near each other, on opposite sides of the Kenti range, in Mongolia; the former falls into lake Kerolon, or Dalai-Nor, and the Onon into the Chilka, at Nertschinsk. It has its sources in the Bourkhen-Oola, or "Divine mountain," near which the great Mongolian hero and conqueror, Jenghis-Khan, was born, A. D. 1154, and where he first distinguished himself in his youth. By some geographers it is considered as the true source of the Amúr.

The Amúr is the most valuable river in Northern Asia; the only highway of nature that directly connects the central steppes of Asia with the rest of the world. The extent of the rivers which disembogue at its mouth, is amazing; the principal towns of Manchuria, and several places in Mongolia, are accessible by them; they extend to upwards of thirty degrees of longitude. By its position with respect to the sea of Japan, a

settlement at or near its embouchure would open a new and most profitable trade with Manchuria, Central Asia, Siberia, the Japanese islands, Corea, &c.

There appear to be no insurmountable obstacles to a direct communication being opened between the Pacific and Baltic, and with the Caspian and Black seas, by the route of this river and the navigable waters of Siberia. The Amúr is navigable from the Pacific to its junction with its upper affluents, the Argun and Chilka. From the Chilka to the Selengá, Mr. Cottrell, a late English traveller in Siberia, states there is a constant succession of navigable rivers, with occasional rapids and shallows—in all, perhaps 20 miles—which might easily be got rid of at no very heavy expense. A road would be required to be made across the Yablonoi mountains, which at this point are not very elevated. The vicinity abounds with fine forests of oak, and other woods fit for building vessels; and iron and cordage are the products of the country. The Selengá falls into the Baikal lake, from which the magnificent Angará takes its rise. The only cataracts almost in any Siberian river are found in it between Irkoutsk and Yénéseisk, but these are even now easily passed. At the town of Yénéseisk, a second land journey of 60 miles must be made as far as the town of Makofsk, on the Ket, which, although a winding river, is navigable to the point where it falls into the Oby. By means of this, the deepest and broadest of all Siberian rivers, and the Irtysh, no impediment would occur as far as Tobolsk, from whence the Tobole, Tura, and Nitsa communicate with the great depots of salt at Krasnoslobodsk. Here, would be the third and last difficulty—a line of communication with the river Tchurovaia, to the west of the Ural, 186 miles. This river falls into the Kama, and that into the Wolga, from which there are now three different communications by water with St. Petersburg, the gulf of Finland, and the Baltic. So that there appear to be but 266 miles between the north Pacific and Baltic, where a canal and roads are necessary to complete the communication. The Wolga is already connected with the Caspian and Black seas by a system of canals and navigable rivers, completed in 1803. Russia also communicates with Persia and Turkestan, from Astrakan, on the Caspian; and from the Black sea with Turkey, Asia Minor, Circassia, and Georgia.

The Songari is a deep and navigable stream, the largest tributary of the Amúr, into which it enters in latitude 48° N., and is considered by the Manchus and Chinese as the principal river. It has its source in the "Long White mountain," called by the former Golmin chan-yan-alin, and by the latter Shan-pe-shan, on account of its white appearance, the summit being covered with snow in winter, and white mists in summer. This mountain extends along the northern coast of the Yellow sea, and forms the northern boundary of Corea and Manchuria. It has become famous in China as the birth-place of Aïgen Kioro, or "Golden Kioro," the founder of the present imperial Manchu dynasty, whose ancient dwelling, on the eastern slope of the mountain, has been preserved with religious care. It is regarded with superstitious veneration by the Manchus and Chinese, and annually visited by crowds of pilgrims from the remotest parts of the empire, to offer sacrifices and burn incense at its shrine.

The Ousouri rises east of the Songari, and after receiving a considerable number of large streams, falls into the Amúr in latitude 49° . It is remarkable for the purity and transparency of its waters, and the variety and excellence of its fish.

The nomad tribe, called by the Chinese Yu-pe-tahtsi, "people dressed in fish-skins," inhabit the banks of the Songari, Ousouri, and their tributaries. They follow fishing and hunting, and sell to the Chinese their furs and fish. The trade is carried on in winter; the fish, which is then frozen, supplies the markets at more than 500 miles distance. They receive in exchange cottons, rice, and brandy extracted from millet. They have a language of their own. Their States are independent of the Emperor of China, and they do not allow any strangers upon their territory. To the southward of the Yu-pe-tahtsi, on the coast, near the frontier of Corea, lies a country called Ta-Tchoo-Soo, a kind of border land, whither resort a crowd of Chinese and Korean vagabonds; some driven by the spirit of independence, others to escape from the punishment due to their misdeeds. They have chosen a chief, and form a community of outlaws.

A considerable tract of country north of the Amúr, in Manchuria and Siberia, on the gulf of Okotsk, and on the coast to the westward of its mouth, is occupied by nomad tribes of Guiliacks, of the Tungousan, and Poukeys, Manchapotonos, and Katchells, of the Aïnos races, that subsist by hunting and fishing, and come annually, at a fixed period, to trade with the Manchus, at a small town near the mouth of the river called Tsetalcho, and exchange their furs, peltries, and dried fish, for cotton cloth, tea, flour, grain, tobacco, &c. They pay no tribute either to the Chinese or Russian government, and do not allow the Manchus and Chinese to come amongst them. The Guiliacks are said to use tamed bears for draught, like the dogs and reindeer among the Samoyedes and Kamtschatkadales.

According to Professor Von Middendorf, who explored the country on a scientific tour in 1844, these tribes belong to different races; one Kurilian or Mongolian, and the other Caucasian. He spent four months amongst them, studied with interest their manners, customs, and the developments of their industry, and compiled copious vocabularies of their languages. A resumé of the scientific results of the professor's travels is published in the Bulletin of the Imperial Academy of Sciences of St. Petersburg, vol. 4, 1845.

The Lea-ho rises in the King-kan mountains, and after a winding course of about 500 miles, falls into the gulf of Lea-o-tong. The Yalu has its sources in the Golmin chan-yan-alin, and falls into the Yellow sea. There are several other smaller rivers that discharge their waters into the same sea and the gulf of Tartary.

Salmon and herring are said, by La Peyrouse, to be nowhere so abundant as on the east coast of Manchuria; cod also are found, but not taken in such quantities. Whales are numerous, and seals and fur seals, sea-lions, and sea-otters, are very frequent. The gulf of Tartary, which separates the island of Tarakay from the continent, is about 200 miles wide at its most southern extremity; but it grows narrower as we advance further north, until near 52° , where the island is connected with the main land by a sand bank, or low, narrow neck of land, without any navigable communication between the gulfs of Saghalien and Tartary. The narrowest part of the gulf is called by the Japanese Mamia-no-Sseto, or "strait of Mamia."

The east coast of Manchuria is generally high and rocky. Castrie's bay, in $51^{\circ} 29'$, near the northern extremity of the gulf of Tartary, was visited by La Peyrouse during the summer season, and he represents it

to be one of the best harbors on the coast, with good anchorage in five to twelve fathoms. He found the climate delightful and the country fertile, reminding him of that beautiful France, to which he was never destined to return. The forests were filled with fur animals and game; fine streams of water fell into the bay, which swarmed with salmon and a great variety of fish. He also visited and named Ternay bay, in $45^{\circ} 13'$, and Suffren bay, in $47^{\circ} 51'$, on the same coast, both possessing good harbors.

In 1643, when the Manchus were engaged in the conquest of China, an armed band of Russian Promuschlenicks, or fur hunters, under the command of the Cossack Poyarkov, allured by the hope of finding rich silver mines, and abundance of fur animals, which were reported to exist in Manchuria, crossed the Yablonoi mountains from Siberia, and descended the Tchirkiri-oola, a tributary of the Amúr, to its junction with that river, which they explored to its embouchure in the gulf of Saghalien. They did not, however, succeed in the discovery of any mines of the precious metals, but found the forests filled with a great variety of fur animals, and they collected a valuable *yassak*,* or tribute of furs, from the natives.

The successful enterprise of these fur-trading adventurers encouraged another company of Promuschlenicks, from the Siberian frontier town of Nertschinsk, to descend the Amúr, in 1648, on which they erected a line of stockades, at Yaska and Kamarski-ostrog, and built and fortified the town of Albasyne, on the river Albasyne, near its junction with the Amúr, and remained in possession of the country.

These successive incursions, and military occupation of northern Manchuria by the Russian fur traders, involved them in frequent hostilities with the Chinese, which were not terminated until 1689, when they were compelled to surrender their settlements to a large military force which was sent by the Emperor Kang-hi, accompanied by two jesuits, Gerbillon and Parennin, as his envoys, to recover possession of the country. A treaty was concluded at Nertschinsk on the 7th September, in the same year, between Russia and China, making the rivers Kerbechi and Argun, which fall into the Amúr, and the long chain of mountains extending below their sources to the Pacific ocean, the boundaries between the two empires; but without defining the boundary of the country lying between these mountains and the river Ud, in Siberia. The former was granted permission to send a caravan of merchandise every year to Peking; and also for a certain number of Russians to reside there. The Russian settlements on the Amúr, and its tributary rivers, were broken up, and the survivors sent to Peking, where some of their descendants still remain, and have preserved their religion.

The vexed question of boundary caused frequent disputes between the courts of Peking and St. Petersburg, which were not finally adjusted until the treaty of 14th June, 1728. By this definitive treaty, the extensive line of demarcation separating the two greatest empires of the world commences, at the west, in Mongolia, on the river Bukturima, an affluent of the Irtysh, and terminates at the sea of Okotsk, on the east. It is 3,000

*The word "yassak" is used in Siberia, Persia, and India, to denote the tribute levied in those countries upon tribes who do not profess the dominant religion. It comes from the ancient Turkish and Tartar languages, and signifies "the law."

miles in length in all its windings, 10 to 30 yards wide, and was traced and surveyed by the joint commission of the Russian and Chinese plenipotentiaries, and 87 boundary monuments were erected thereon, at certain distances, bearing inscriptions in Chinese, Mongolian, Manchu, and Russian.

By the 5th article of the treaty, a Russian mission or college, composed of six priests and four laymen, was established at Peking, for teaching the above languages. A chapel was built, by the aid of the Chinese, for the celebration of the ritual of the Greek church; and the mission is changed every ten years. Kiakta and Maimatchin, and the small Siberian town of Zurukaitu, on the river Argun, were made entrepôts of the Russian trade with China.

Difficulties having subsequently arisen between the two governments, occasioned principally by marauding parties and the escape of criminals across the frontier, a new convention was concluded 18th October, 1768, between the plenipotentiaries of Kieng-lung and Catharine II, for the reciprocal extradition of fugitives from either country, and the establishment of a line of military posts to guard the frontier. In 1785 the commercial relations between Kiakta and Maimatchin were interrupted by the depredations on the frontiers, and not resumed until 1792, when the treaty of 1728 was renewed, and the commercial intercourse has been carried on ever since with remarkable perseverance and success.

Hoong tchoong, a seaport on the Yellow sea, near the frontier of Corea, is famous through the country for a branch trade which is extended through the whole empire; this is the *Hay chay*, a marine plant which is taken in immense quantities on the sea of Japan, a short distance from the shore. A fair is held at this place every two years, which is frequented by great numbers of Chinese for the purpose of traffic with the Coreans. They bring dogs, cats, pipes, leather, stags' horns, copper, horses, mules, and asses, and receive in exchange, baskets, kitchen furniture, rice, corn, swine, paper, mats, oxen, furs, and small horses highly prized for their speed. The exchange of merchandise is made at Kee eu-wen, the nearest town to Corea, at the distance of 20 miles from Hoong-tchoong. There exists a very strong hatred between the two nations, in consequence of the Chinese having many years since entered the peninsula of Corea and carried off numbers of women and children.

A considerable trade is carried on with China, by land and sea, from the port of *Kin chow*, about 45 miles from Moukden; and also with Corea by land, and through the islands of the Potocki Archipelago, dependencies of the town of Ning-hai-hian, lying off the east coast of Leaotong, which is called by the English "Prince Regent's Sword." The maritime trade with China, according to Gutzlaff, is principally conducted by Fokien traders, employs upwards of 1,000 junks, and is of the average annual value of 7,000,000 taels. (A tael = \$1 54.)

Kirin, the metropolis of the province of the same name, is the principal mart of trade in Manchuria. It is situated on the western bank of the river Songari, which in that part is called *Kirin-oola*, whence it takes its name, for *Kirin-oola-hotun* signifies "city of the river *Kirin*." A chain of mountains, from west to east, shelters it against the cold winds of the north. Like most Chinese cities, it contains nothing remarkable; it is an irregular collection of cabins, built of brick or clay, covered with straw,

with only a ground floor. It is inhabited by Manchus and Chinese, and contains, according to the statement of a Catholic missionary in 1845, about 150,000 inhabitants. Kirin is a place of great commercial activity; possesses warehouses for furs and peltries of every kind, cotton cloths, silks, artificial flowers, with which the women of every class deck their heads; and depots of timber for building, which is brought from the extensive imperial forests in the district.

In this district is a small lake, about 20 miles in breadth, celebrated throughout the country for the quantity of pearls which are fished in it for the Emperor of China. They call it Hay-choo, or Hing-choo-men, "black lake," or "the precious stone gate." There are also several other lakes in Manchuria.

The Chinese and Manchu officers and soldiers stationed in Tsitsikar, and the fortified towns of Meyhen-hotun, Nicurgi-hotun, and Saghaliencoala-hotun, in this district, have grown very rich and powerful, and carry on a very profitable commerce with China, whilst the natives are, for the most part, kept in a state of slavery and subjection under them.

The Chinese and Manchus, although inhabiting for the last two centuries within the same enclosed ramparts, and speaking the same language, have not amalgamated; each possesses its genealogy apart. Thus, at meeting in an inn when travelling, or addressing a stranger, nothing is more common than this question: "Neshee-ming-jeu Khee-jeu?" "Are you Chinese, or Manchu?" They distinguish the former by the dynasty of the *Ming*, and that of the latter by the name of *Banner*, each Manchu rallying under his own proper standard or banner. They generally profess the religion of Budha.

On the public roads communicating with the principal towns, there are inns at stated distances for the refreshment of travellers, kept by Chinese, called Hoang-koong-tzay, "people without family," who are employed in hunting and searching for ginseng.

The military town of *Petouné hotun* is situated on the Songari, about 130 miles north of Kirin. It is a place of little note, principally inhabited by exiles from China.

Ningouta-hotun lies on the river Houka-pira, which falls into the Songari. It is regarded as the ancient patrimony of the reigning Emperor of China. The name Ningouta signifies "seven chiefs," from the seven brothers of one of his ancestors, who, after uniting their families, built this town, and extended their authority over the country eastward to the Amúr. It is the residence of a general, commanding the district.

Ching-yang-foo, or *Moukden*, the seat of the territorial government or principality of Manchuria, and the headquarters of the military governor of the province, is built on an eminence. A number of rivers add much to the fertility of the surrounding country. It may be considered as a double city, one of which is enclosed within the other. The Manchus have been at great pains to ornament it with several public edifices, and to provide it with magazines of arms and storehouses. About 4,000 troops are usually stationed here. It is distinguished for its academy of learned men, and as the old capital of the Manchu empire, which was founded in 1618 by Abkai Foulinga, whose Chinese title of honor in the hall of his ancestors was Khien-ming, "favored of Heaven."

The Emperor Kien-lung, like his illustrious European contemporary, Frederick the Great, was equally distinguished as a scholar and poet.

Among his literary productions a Chinese "Ode on Tea," and a Manchu poem in "Praise of Moukden," are the most celebrated. In the latter the Emperor commemorates the mythic origin of his race and kingdom to "a celestial virgin, youngest daughter of Heaven, who abode in ancient times on the summit of the long White mountain, by lake Timoun, from whence descend the rivers Yalou, Khourtung and Aikhon, that water and fertilize the plains through which they flow. This goddess having partaken of a red fruit of most enticing appearance, conceived and brought forth a holy son, on whom Heaven bestowed the name of Kioro, and by way of pre eminence, Aigen, 'golden,' or 'golden Kioro.' When by great and unceasing efforts he had succeeded in the purification and renovation of his kingdom, he acquired the countries of Yekhé, Khouffia, Dehaïfian, and Fousi. He afterwards founded a city in the country of Liao yang, which became the capital of the kingdom of the East. The happiness he enjoyed by Divine favor having increased, and his desires expanding, in the tenth year of the 'Providence of Heaven,' being fearful of danger, he established his dominion in the centre. He prospered in the country of Ching yang, on which good fortune had lavished its choicest favors, and there built the city of Moukden, which closed and defended the passes to the countries of the west." This Aigen Kioro is considered by the present dynasty in China not only their first ancestor, but the founder of the nation. The reigning imperial family also take the surnames of Poulkouri and Yongchon, which had been adopted by their ancestor, Aigen Kioro.

Hingching, 60 miles east of Moukden, in the same province, is the family residence of the Manchu monarchs and the burial ground of their ancestors. It is pleasantly situated in a mountain valley, and the tombs are upon a mountain three miles north of it. The town is situated near the palisade which separates the province from Kirin, and its officers have the rule over the surrounding country, and the entrances into that province. A large garrison is maintained there, which, with the salubrity of the air, has attracted a considerable population.

The Manchus are stouter and of a lighter complexion than the Chinese: they have the same conformation of the eyelids, but rather more beard, and their countenances present greater intellectual capacity. They seem to partake of both the Mongol and Chinese character, possessing more determination and largeness of plan than the latter, with much of the rudeness and haughtiness of the former. Barrow states that those of the Manchus whom he saw at Pekin had fair and florid complexions; a few had blue eyes, straight or aquiline noses, brown hair and heavy beards; the Emperor Kienlung, himself, had some of these characteristics. Mr. Williams, in "The Middle Kingdom," regards them as "the most improvable race in Central Asia, if not on the continent; and the skill with which they have governed the Chinese empire, and the improvement which they have made in their own condition, during the same time, give promise of still further advances when they become familiar with the civilization of Christian lands."

The languages of all the tribes of the Tungousan race have a great similarity in words and construction; and it appears there is a relationship between them and the language of the Mongols and Turks, as well as some languages of Eastern Europe, especially the Slavonian and Finnish.

The Manchu language has an alphabet of 28 primitive or radical letters, each with two or three variations, forming, according to the "Alphabet Mantchou" of L. Langles, a syllabary of about 1,400 groups. The character is identical with the Mongolian, and both are supposed to be derived from the Oïgourian of the Oïgoors, whose letters were the same with, or merely variations of, those called Tangoutan, and were first introduced among the Mongols during the reign of Jenghis Khan. It is written in columns, from the top of the page downwards, like the Chinese, with which, however, neither it nor the language bears any affinity or resemblance.

Although the Manchus have but one kind of character, there are four different ways of writing it: the first is when they write with respect, in addressing the Emperor, or high officers of his court; it is larger than the ordinary character, and written with the greatest precision and elegance. The second is less elaborate. The third is the ordinary running hand in general use. These three modes of writing are equally legible, but not equally beautiful. The fourth is a more concise and abbreviated character, for minutes and extracts.

What is most singular in this language is, that the verbs are changed as often as the substantives governed by the verb are different; as, for instance, the verb *to make* must be changed as often as the substantive that follows it: we say, "to make verses," "make a noise," "make" a statue, table, chair, clock, &c. Such modes of expression are not permitted by them; if they make use of the verb in familiar conversation, it is pardonable, but they never suffer it in composition, not even in their ordinary writings. They cannot bear the repetition of the same word in two consecutive lines, and never use pronouns, having little occasion for them; the arrangement of their words alone supplies this deficiency, without leaving any obscurity or ambiguity.

The language is remarkable for the great number of expressions it furnishes for the abbreviation of discourse, and to express the nature, qualities, properties, and attributes of persons and objects, animate and inanimate. Very short words convey, with the greatest precision and perspicuity, ideas which, without their assistance, could not be expressed but by very long phrases. This is particularly observable when they speak of animals, whether domestic or wild, aquatic or volatile, which could only be exactly described by circumlocution in the languages of western nations. As, for example, the dog: besides the common names of every species of dog, they have words which denote the age, color, particular marks, skin, hair, height, figure, size, speed, good and bad qualities, &c. The same of a horse, an animal so useful to them, and for which they have a great predilection, they have invented terms still more multiplied than the dog; as, for example, "being tied up, he cannot stand still;" "fond of company;" "frightened at the fall of his rider;" "suddenly encountering a wild beast;" "with a rider on his back;" his action, pace, speed; "how many different shakes he gives his rider," &c.: for these, and a great many other locutions, they have a single, appropriate word, to express. It is much easier to acquire than the Chinese, and is likewise the court language at Pekin.

They have no national literature; most of the books published in the language are translations from Chinese, made under the superintendance of the imperial academies of Pekin and Moukden. The illustrious and

learned Kang-hi, one of the ablest sovereigns that ever sat on the throne of China, compiled a dictionary under the title of "Mirror of the Manchu Language," and translated into this, his vernacular idiom, the history of China, and the classic books of Confucius, which he published in 1708. In his dictionary the words are distributed into several classes. The first treats of the heavens; the second, of time; the third, of the earth; the fourth, of the emperor, government, ceremonies, customs, music, books, war, hunting, man, drinking, eating, silks, cloth, dress, labor, workmen, instruments, barks, corn, herbs, birds, animals, wild and domestic, fishes, reptiles, &c. Each of these classes is divided into chapters and articles; all the words are written in capitals, and under each are found, in smaller characters, the definition, explanation, and usual meaning of the word.

These works were revised, augmented, and republished by his grandson, Kien-lung, in 1772. All Manchu candidates for office are compelled to study both languages, and must submit to rigid examinations in both, before they can be promoted.

The study of Manchu is cultivated in Russia. At St. Petersburg and Cazan, various works in the language, including grammars and dictionaries, have been published within a few years past. At the university of Cazan there are professorships of Manchu and the principal oriental languages. The "Bibliothèque Royale" of Paris contains a large collection of Manchu books and manuscripts. The acquisition of the language is greatly facilitated by the "Alphabet Mantchou," above mentioned, in 8vo., and the "Dictionnaire Manchou-Français," in 3 vols. 4to., by M. Amyot, in which the words are arranged and classified according to the plan of the "Mirror of the Manchu Language;" and the "Dictionnaire Mandchou-Français," by Klaproth.

The latest information we possess respecting Manchuria is derived from the report of the Rt. Rev. Dr. Ferréol, vicar apostolic of Corea and the Loo-choo islands, to his superiors, published in the "Annales de la Propagation de la Foi," for May, 1846.

4. ISLAND OF TARAKAY, OR SAGHALIEN.

Tarakay is usually represented on the maps and described in geographical works as Saghalien. By the aboriginal inhabitants, the Ainos, it is called Sandan; by the Manchus, Saghalien-anga-hata, "the island of the mouth of the Black river," because it is opposite the mouth of the Amúr; and by the Japanese Oku-yeso, "further Yeso," Tchoka, Chish, and Karafouto. The Chinese call the natives Olunchun, Kooyeh, and Feyak.

In "Grosier's General Description of China," it is called Saghalien-Oola; and he states that the only knowledge the Chinese had of it was derived from the Katchell tribes inhabiting the banks of the Amúr, near its mouth. In his map of China, Chinese Tartary, and the countries conquered by China, *Tarakay* is described as Saghalien-oola-hata, "Island of the Black river," belonging to Russia.

This island is situated in the northern Pacific, and extends from south of 46° to 54° 20' north latitude, and between 142° and 145° east longitude, along the eastern coast of Manchuria, with which it is connected near 51° 30' by a sand-bank or low narrow neck of land separating the gulf of Tartary from the gulf of Saghalien. The latter is a circular

basin 50 miles wide, which receives the waters of the river Amúr, and is called by Kruzenstern the Liman of the Amúr, having its outlet in the sea of Okotsk by a channel about five miles wide, near the north part of the island. On the southern extremity it is divided from the Japanese island of Yeso by the strait of La Peyrouse, about 18 miles wide, and in which the tide runs with great velocity. It is nearly 600 miles in length, and varies in breadth from 25 to 120 miles.

In 1643 two Dutch vessels, the ship *Kastirkom*, commanded by Martin Bertin Devries, and the yacht *Breskins*, under the command of Hendrick Cornelius Schaep, were sent by Anthony Von Dieman, governor general of Batavia, to explore the northern seas of Japan, and were the first European navigators that visited the island. They supposed it to be part of the continent of Asia, and described it as the land of *Eso* or *Yeso*, the name originally given to all the islands lying between Kamtschatka and Japan, and they called the Kurile islands *Company's land*, (Urup.) They discovered and named Aniva bay and Patience bay. The natives were friendly and hospitable; exchanged their furs, fish, oil, &c., with the Japanese for cloth, trinkets, &c.; wore valuable silver ornaments, and informed them there were several mines of that metal in the country.

By the Japanese and Chinese accounts it would appear they have a very imperfect knowledge of the island, which does not form a part or dependency either of Japan or China. Rensifée Sendai, one of the most eminent Japanese geographers, gives a brief description of the island in his *Son-kokf-tsou-ran-to-sets*, or "General Outlines of the Three Kingdoms," published at Yedo in 1786, with an introduction written by Katsouri-gawa, court physician, commending the work to the favorable notice of the Siogoon. The author states in his preface that he resided several years in the island of Yeso, where he drew a map of that and the adjacent islands and countries, which agrees in the most essential particulars with those that had been previously published by his countrymen, Fak-sikf and Kanefori. In his description of the island of Yeso he gives the following account of Tarakay:

"To the north of Yeso there is another country, separated from its northwestern point by a strait 6 to 7 ri* wide, called the island of Karafouto, or Karafto, but its true name is Taraikái, or Tarakái. There are 22 villages on it, and it is 300 ri in circuit. The author cannot, however, vouch for the accuracy of this statement, for several geographers simply call the country an Island on the coast of Eastern Tartan, (Tartary.) Beyond the inhabited part there is a long rocky promontory trending in a southwestern direction seaward, as may be seen by the map. Doctor Faksikf calls this country Yetso in his map of the world; and it is also called Karafouto and Naroubusi. Towards the northwest is a rugged chain of lofty and steep mountains, over which there is no practicable route. Beyond this chain to the northwest is the country of Santan and the Matsiou. We have no precise knowledge of Santan: the Matsiou are the Manchus of the Chinese, and this country does not appear to be far from Karafouto."

In the Japanese map of the world, to which Sendai refers, Tarakay is represented as forming part of Manchuria; the Amúr is called the great river Amuri-gawa, or Sagaríian, separating Yéroppe (Europe) from Aziya,

* A degree at the equator contains 21½ Japanese ri.

(Asia,) and is placed several degrees to the north of this island, having the island of Sagarian at its embouchure, and to the eastward of Kamtschatta, the country of the Orosya, (Russians.) He describes Tarakay as entirely independent of Japan, and states that "the natives send the young men among the Manchus and Yesoites to learn the languages of those countries, so as to become qualified to carry on trade with them. At Karafouto, the principal village, the Yesoites receive in exchange for the productions of their country, blue glass, eagles' wings, tobacco pipes, silk stuffs embroidered with dragons, satin dresses, cloths of various colors, and cotton goods. The blue glass, as well as eagles' wings, which come from Karafouto, are also found in Yeso; the tobacco pipes, on the contrary, are of Tartar workmanship, as they bear inscriptions in Manchu letters. These goods are procured from Pekin by the Manchus, and brought to Karafouto, and are frequently received at Matsmay by the Yesoites."

"In the sea between Karafouto and Yeso there are many hidden sandbanks and thousands of rocks, which make the two routes to it by sea extremely difficult; and on this account the commerce between the two countries has always been inconsiderable. To the east of Karafouto is the high sea; to the northwest lies Tartary, but at what distance is not positively known. From thence they bring green and blue beads, eagles' wings, and the stuffs worn by the Yesoites; the designs of these stuffs resemble those manufactured in China, from whence they are probably brought into Tartary. Karafouto, although so near to Yeso, is separated from it by a very rapid current, rendering the passage between the two countries extremely dangerous. In the sea to the east of Yeso is the Archipelago called by the Japanese Tsi-Sima, or 'thousand islands,' (the Kuriles,) as may be seen on the map of that country. It consists of 37 islands. The inhabitants of Yeso frequent two of them, which are called Kounaziri (Kunachair) and Yedorofu," (Iturup.)

One of the Japanese names for Tarakay is Oku-Yeso, "Interior Yeso;" and in Kempfer's and other contemporaneous maps of Japan, it is represented as forming part of Tartary, and separated from Kamtschatka by a narrow strait. The fact of Yeso and Tarakay being separate islands remained doubtful until 1787, when La Peyrouse sailed through the strait now bearing his name, to the north of Yeso, the discovery of which first established with Europeans their separation from each other.

The island is naturally divided into three tracts: the mountainous, which occupies the southern portion; the level, in the middle; and the hilly tract, which extends over the northern districts. The mountainous region is the largest, and comprehends more than one-half of the island, terminating on the north at cape Délisle de la Croyère, near 51° north latitude. A chain of mountains begins at cape Crillion, and continues in an uninterrupted line northward to an elevated summit called peak Benizel, where it seems to be united to another and lower chain, which traverses the eastern peninsula, and encloses the bay of Aniva on the east. Cape Aniva is formed by a high isolated hill, which is connected by a low isthmus with a chain of hills which lie further north, and joins the principal range of peak Benizel. Further north occur other summits, as peak Lemanon, peak Mongez, and mount Tiara; the two last mentioned are north of 50° north latitude. None of these summits have been measured, but their elevation probably does not exceed 5,000 feet above the

level of the sea. Along the western coast the mountains in some places come close up to the water's edge, but a narrow level tract generally separates them from the shore, and this tract is covered with high trees, while the declivities of the mountains are mostly bare, probably owing to the rapidity of their slope. Extensive flats occur at Aniva bay and the bay of Patience. The low country which skirts the shore on the eastern side of the mountains appears to be more extensive and less interrupted than that along the western shores. On the eastern side the shore in some places is level and low, and in others elevated. The country extending from 51° to 53° north latitude is so low that the shores are not visible at the distance of five or six miles, and it is sandy and overgrown with bushes. The interior is in general level, partly sandy and partly swampy, and a greater part of it is covered with short bushes, and small trees. A number of low sand-hills are dispersed over the country, which are destitute of trees, and appear like islands in a sea of verdure. The hilly part occupies the most northern part of the island, or that which extends from 53° north latitude to cape Elizabeth. The coast is, in general, high and steep, being mostly composed of perpendicular white cliffs. There are only a few tracts in which the coast sinks down to the level of the sea; and here the villages of the natives are built. The interior consists of a succession of high hills, covered with lofty trees to the very summit; the valleys which intervene between them are partly wooded, and partly covered with a fine close turf. This part of Tarakay seems to possess a considerable degree of fertility.

The forests consist of oak, maple, birch, medlar, willow, but chiefly pine and fir. Large tracts are covered with juniper trees. Gooseberries, raspberries, and strawberries abound, and also wild celery and water-cresses. The wild animals are chiefly sables, foxes, martins, deer, and bears. The sea supplies the inhabitants with the means of subsistence in a great variety of fish. Whales are numerous on the coast, hitherto little frequented by whalers, and train-oil is an article of export.

The inhabitants are aborigines of the Ainos race, and have settlements on different points of the coast. They are represented by La Peyrouse to be very superior in bodily strength to the Japanese, Chinese, and Manchus; their features are more regular, and more nearly resembling the form of Europeans. They are called by the Japanese Mozia; are mild, peaceable, generous, and warmly attached to each other; are very honest, well-disposed, and bear an excellent character with the Japanese. They worship the sun, moon, the sea, a God of the heavens, and believe in the existence of the devil. They have no writing or money in use among them, but keep their reckoning on sticks of wood.

The Japanese have the two trading establishments of Salmon-Trout bay and Tamary-Aniva, on *Aniva bay*, at the southern extremity of the island, from which the southern islands of Japan are supplied with furs, peltries, seal-skins, dried fish, whale oil, &c., and give in return lackered wooden eating and drinking vessels, tobacco and tobacco-pipes, kitchen utensils, rice, coarse cotton cloth, trinkets, &c. Tobacco is a staple article of traffic, and always in great request among the various tribes of the Ainos and Tungousan races. Kruzenstern saw immense quantities of whales in Aniva bay. Salmon and a variety of other fish are caught in great abundance, and cured here by the Ainos fishermen in the service of the Japanese. The shores are covered with crabs and oysters; several large

streams of fresh water flow into the bay, and the adjacent forests abound in game and fur-bearing animals. The fishery and trade with the natives, which is of the greatest importance to the inhabitants of Japan, was formerly free, but is now an imperial monopoly, yielding large profits to the government, and is the source of great dissatisfaction to the people of northern Japan. Cape Aniva is in latitude 46° north, and longitude $145^{\circ} 60'$. They have no other settlement on the island, nor do they frequent any other part of it. No Chinese authorities have ever been seen there, nor is it enumerated among the possessions of the Chinese. According to the erudite Klaproth, Tarakay is not under the dominion of Manchurian China, as was once supposed, for it is entirely omitted in the great Chinese government geographical description of the empire, published at Pekin in 1790, and translated by him; and it does not appear that the Russians have ever made any trading settlement on the island, which has been rarely visited by their vessels or those of any other European nation.

La Peyrouse spent three months in exploring the gulf of Tartary, as far as the fine bay on the coast of Manchuria, which he named *Castrie's bay*, inhabited by a tribe of Orotches. He ascertained satisfactorily from the natives that there is no navigable communication between that gulf and the estuary of the Amúr, called the gulf of Saghalien. About 30 miles to the north of that bay they assured him there is a sand-bank, or low neck of land, over which the traders, who descend the Amúr to traffic with the natives of the gulf of Tartary, are obliged to drag their canoes. They called the island of Tarakay, Tchoka. He discovered three good harbors, or roadsteads; on the northwest coast of the island, to which he gave the respective names of *Langle's bay*, $47^{\circ} 49'$, *Estaing bay*, $48^{\circ} 59'$, and *Jonquiere bay*.

Patience bay, 49° north latitude, and 146° east longitude, on the southwest of the island, is very extensive, and well adapted for a whaling and trading station. One of the most eligible locations for the establishment of a trading mart is on its northern extremity, at *Nodeshla bay*, lying between capes Elizabeth and Maria, in $54^{\circ} 24'$ north latitude, and 142° east longitude. There is a lake of fresh water in its vicinity, into which several fine streams empty. The neighborhood is represented by Kruzenstern to be delightful, and the surrounding mountains covered with fine forest trees. It has a good and safe roadstead, with many local advantages for such a settlement; is situated within about one degree of the outlet of the estuary of the great Manchurian river Amúr, which he explored, and found to be 5 miles wide, $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 fathoms depth on the bar, and the water perfectly fresh for some distance at sea. Kruzenstern also states that the northwest coast of the island is infinitely preferable to the southwest: between the mountains, which are entirely overgrown to their summits with the thickest forests, there are valleys covered with luxuriant grass, and very capable of cultivation.

Whales are very abundant in the Japanese seas, which are now much frequented by our whalers during the summer months; rendering it most desirable that some arrangements be speedily made, under the sanction of our government, with the independent chiefs of this island for the privilege of frequenting any of its bays and harbors, except Aniva bay, by American whale ships, for wood, water, provisions, recruitment or repairs, and for traffic with the natives.

By our convention with Russia, (see appendix B,) we possess, in com-

mon with that power, the right of navigation of the northern Pacific, and of fishing and resorting to any of the coasts of northeastern Asia, upon points which may not already have been occupied, for the purpose of trading with the natives.

5. RUSSIAN AND JAPANESE KURILE ISLANDS, &c.

The Archipelago of the Kuriles consists of 22 islands, including Yeso, and is about 600 miles in extent, connecting the peninsula of Kamtschatka with the island of Nippon. The northern islands were first discovered and occupied by the Russians in 1713. They derive their name from the Russian word *kuril*, "to smoke," from the smoking volcanoes on some of the islands. They are naturally divided into two chains: one lying south of the Boussole strait, in $46^{\circ} 30'$ north latitude; the other to the north of it. The southern chain is called the Greater Kuriles, and more properly belongs to Japan; but several of the islands have been successively occupied by the Russians for trading with the natives, and they even claim, in common with the Japanese, Kunachir, Urup, and Iturup. The northern chain, embracing islands No. 1 to No. 16, called the Little Kuriles, are dependencies of Kamtschatka, and are comprehended in the Russian government of Eastern Siberia. Most of the natives of this chain have been baptised, and are occasionally visited by Russian missionaries of the Greek church. The population is about 1,400.

The Kuriles are called by the Japanese *Tsu sima*, and also *Kooroomitsi*; the latter signifying "road of sea-weeds," from the great abundance of the *fucus saccharinus*, or "sea-cabbage," an article of food in general use among all classes, with which they abound. They are thinly inhabited by tribes of *Aïnos*, are mostly uncultivated, and abound in valuable fur animals. The natives subsist by hunting, fishing, and catching whales.

The following islands of the chain belong to Russia:

No. 1. The nearest Kurile island to Kamtschatka is called *Shoumtsku*. The channel between Lopatka and this island is about 10 miles in breadth. The length of the island, from northeast to southwest, is 34 miles, and the breadth about 20 miles. It is a flat island, with moderate ridges of hills, and watered throughout, and has a small lake nearly in the centre. It is rich in minerals, but is chiefly visited for the sea-otter and red fox, with which it abounds; its salmon is in much request.

No. 2. The second island is called *Poromuchir*, between which and the former island is a strait three quarters of a mile in breadth. It lies from northeast to southwest, and is twice as large as the first island. It is hilly and well watered; has no timber, but has valuable mines. It produces the red fox, wolf, sea-otter, &c.

No. 3. *Shirinki*. The distance from the last named island to this is computed to be about 17 miles. It is remarkable for a bee-hive shaped mountain of considerable altitude. This island is nearly as broad as it is long, and about 27 miles in circumference. It abounds with sea-lions and various marine animals, which are carried there by the floating ice. The want of a safe anchorage prevents this island from being much frequented.

No. 4. *Makan Kur Assey* island lies 40 miles from the latter, and is in length 14 miles, and about seven in breadth. It is covered with brush-

wood, is badly watered, but supports the red fox and sea beavers, and a large number of seals are caught on it.

No. 5. *Anakutan* island is situated about 23 miles distant from the latter. This island is in length 66 miles, and in breadth about 10 miles. Three summits of mountains exhibit themselves, which are exhausted craters. The red fox and sea-beavers are numerous.

No. 6. *Amakutan* island is not more than 4 miles from the latter. It is 14 miles in length and 7 in breadth; produces foxes, and its shores abound with sea-lions and otters.

No. 7. *Syaskutan* island is separated from the latter about 33 miles, and the current between them is most rapid. Its length is about 54 miles, and only about 4 in breadth. Its productions are similar to those of the former island.

No. 8. *Icorma* is a volcanic island, about 8 miles from the latter, and only about 5 miles in circumference.

No. 9. *Tschimkutan* island is 20 miles distant from the former, round in form, and about 10 miles in diameter. The coast is mountainous and rocky.

No. 10. *Mussyr* island is 24 miles from the 9th island, and not more than 2 miles in diameter: it produces a large quantity of wild fowl.

No. 11. *Rach-Koke* island is 80 miles from the last mentioned, and its length and breadth about 14 miles. This island looks like a solitary mountain shooting upwards from the sea. A continued burning of this island has filled up 13 fathoms of water, and converted a large place into shoals and banks.

No. 12. *Mutova* island is situated 30 miles from the former, and is 20 miles long and 17 broad. There is a volcanic mountain to the south which emits smoke; to the north are several rich valleys and habitable plains. About 100 of the inhabitants pay tribute to Russia.

No. 13. *Rassegu* or *Raschaua* island is 20 miles distant from the latter, and in extent about 20 miles every way. This island has several lofty mountains, rocky shores, and sandy bays. It is covered with excellent timber, and nourishes sea birds, beavers, and seals.

No. 14. *Ussu-syr* island lies 12 miles from the former: it is, properly speaking, two islands lying close together, occupying a space of 17 miles each way. It abounds with rocks, cliffs, and hot springs. The productions are similar to the latter.

No. 15. *Keoli* island is situated at the distance of 24 miles from the island of Ussusyr, and is 20 miles in length, and only 7 in breadth. This island has three mountains of considerable altitude. The white and black-bellied red fox, so much esteemed for his skin, is here found in abundance. Between the three last named islands the currents are very rapid, and the sea rises to a great height.

No. 16. *Semussyr* or *Mareekan* island is 20 miles distant from the latter. The extraordinary length of this island gives it a peculiar appearance to the mariner. Its length is ascertained to be about 87 miles, and not more than 7 in breadth. Four mountains are visible on the island, with evident traces of volcanic eruptions about them. The timber is excellent, and the various animals in request are numerous. The passage from this to the next island of the south chain is upwards of 134 miles in extent, and is called Boussole strait by La Peyrouse.

To the Japanese properly belong the following islands:

No. 17. *Tshirpo-Oi*, and the two other adjacent small islands, are estimated in length and breadth about 10 miles. A volcanic eruption at some remote period has covered these islands with stones, so that they are perfectly useless.

No. 18. *Urup* island is about 134 miles in length and 14 in breadth. Its physical aspect is lofty mountains and deep glens. On the northern side lie four small isles, which produce good timber and abundance of vegetables. Streams from the mountains traverse the island and fall into the sea. This island is considered to be rich in minerals, but is only visited for the red and white foxes, which are very numerous. The commandant of the Russian Kuriles usually resides on this island.

No. 19. *Iturup* or *Etoorpoo* island lies 20 miles distant from the foregoing, and is about 200 miles in extent. Several lofty mountains adorn this island, which is covered with forests of noble timber, consisting of larch, pine, oak, birch, cypress, &c. The other productions are black bears, sables, foxes, fish, otters, salmon, sturgeon, &c. In stormy weather, whales and dolphins are thrown on the shore. The inhabitants are the genuine aborigines, or hairy Kuriles, known to the Japanese by the various names of *Yeso*, *Ainus*, *Astoumi-Yebis*, "eastern barbarians," *Morin* and *Momin*, "hairy men," "hairy people." The earliest mention made of them in history was under the Japanese name of *Momin*, in a Chinese work called *Chan-hai-king*, written during the dynasty of Han, B. C. 150. Their country is described as situated beyond the Eastern sea, and the bodies of its inhabitants covered with hair. They congregate in villages, and pay a nominal tribute to Russia. On this island is the town of *Ourbitch*, with a Japanese fort and a port not far from a volcano of the same name. It contains several good anchorages, and rivers, into which ships may safely enter.

No. 20. *Kunassyf* island is situated about 30 miles distant from *Etoorpoo*. Its estimated length is 100 miles by about 33 in breadth, and is entirely surrounded by mountains and lofty summits. In the centre of the island are large tracts of low land covered with good timber. The productions of the southern portion are a great variety of vegetables and fish. A pearl-bearing muscle as large as a dessert plate is found here, and the inhabitants sell large quantities to the Japanese traders. Tribute is also paid to Russia in this article.

It was on this island that Captain Golownin of the Russian navy, while engaged in exploring the southern Kuriles in 1811, was seized and imprisoned by the Japanese authorities, and detained in captivity at *Matsumai* until 1813, in retaliation of a hostile attack made in 1807 by an armed party of Russians, under Lieutenant *Chwostoff*, upon the Japanese settlements in the bay of *Aniva*, island of *Tarakay*.

No. 21. *Tchikota* island is 47 miles distant from the latter island. Its length is about 80 miles, and breadth 28 miles. The features are lofty mountains, fertile plains, and several lakes, which teem with excellent fish. At the southern extremity are two small islets, which are covered with good timber.

No. 22. *Yeso*.—This island, the southernmost and 22d of the chain, is a dependency of Japan, and lies in 41° – 47° $30'$ north latitude, and 140° – 147° east longitude. It is about 300 miles in extreme length, and about the same breadth. Bounded on the west by the gulf of *Tartary*, on the east by the islands of *Kunachir*, *Iturup*, and *Tchikota*, and the northern

Pacific ocean; on the south by the island of Nippon, from which it is separated by the strait of Sangar, 18 miles wide; and on the north by the island of Tarakay.

Besides the "Outlines of the Three Kingdoms," by Rensifée Sendai, there are two other Japanese works on this island—one called *Yeso-ki*, or "Description of Yeso," by Araï-si Kogo-no-Kami, instructor of Siogoon Isoena-Yosi," written in 1720. The other is called "*Yeso-ki*, with the History of the Rebellion of Samsayla, by Kenamon, Japanese interpreter," written in 1752.

In Balbi's "Abrégé de Géographie," edition of 1842, adopted by the University of France, this island is divided into the *Government of Yeso*, embracing the southwestern peninsula of the island whereon Matsmay and Chakodade are situated; and the *Aïno-Koumi*, or "country of the Aïnos," in which we are to distinguish the districts subject to the Japanese lying on the southern and eastern coasts, containing Atkis and Edermo, from those entirely independent of Japan, and comprehending all the rest of the island.

Yeso signifies "the coast" in Japanese, and its inhabitants are the aboriginal Ainos. By some geographers the island is erroneously called Matsmay, the name of the southern province and capital. By the Kamtschatkades it is called Chicha, chish being the Japanese word for needles and iron, which were first introduced into that peninsula from Yeso by Japanese traders before the arrival of the Russians in those seas. The Japanese call the natives of the southern part of the island Koutsi-Yeso, or "Yeso of the mouth of the country," and those of the northern part Oku-Yeso, or "Yeso of the interior;" and the mountaineers Yama-Soumi-Yeso. The ignorance that so long prevailed respecting its extent and position has been justly described by M. Buache in his "Considerations Géographiques et Physiques" in the following terms: "Jesso, after having been transported to the east, attached to the south, and afterwards to the west, was at last found in the north."

The whole island is divided into six provinces or districts, of which *Matsmay*, or "South of the Pines," is the southernmost, and contains the chief town and residence of the hereditary Prince governor. The name was conferred by imperial letters patent of Siogoon Yori-firo, in 1594, on the Japanese prince Nobou-firo, whose ancestors conquered the southern part of the island, and built the town in 1443. The town of Matsmay is situated on the strait of Sangar, in latitude $41^{\circ} 32'$ north, and longitude $219^{\circ} 56'$ west, on a large commodious bay, with good anchorage in 4 fathoms. The harbor is constantly filled with Japanese vessels trading to every part of the empire. It has a population of about 50,000, and may be considered the most important town in this extremity of Asia. The place is well fortified and garrisoned; guards are constantly kept up on the coast to observe narrowly everything that passes. It has the small bays of Koru-yesi on the east, and Otube to the west of the town.

To the southwest of Matsmay, at the entrance of the strait of Sangar, are two small islands—Oos-Sima, in latitude $41^{\circ} 31' 30''$ north, and longitude $220^{\circ} 40' 45''$ west, and Kos-Sima, in latitude $41^{\circ} 21' 30''$, and longitude $220^{\circ} 14'$ west. Both islands are steep, rugged, and of volcanic origin. The island of Okosiri lies to the eastward of Yeso, and north of Oos-Sima, in latitude $42^{\circ} 9'$, and longitude $220^{\circ} 30'$ west, and is considerably larger than either of the others, being 11 miles long and 5 broad. Cape Sangar

lies in latitude $41^{\circ} 16' 30''$ north, and longitude $219^{\circ} 46'$ west. The western entrance to the strait, according to Kruzenstern, is only 9 miles wide.

Chakodade, the second town in magnitude on the island, is also situated on the strait of Sangar, southeast of Matsmay, on the declivity of a high circular hill, which rises above the peninsula there formed. It is washed on the south by the bay of Sangar, and on the north and west by the bay of Chakodade, which is very convenient for receiving a large fleet. The peninsula forms its junction on the east by a narrow strip of land; so that there is at once a view of the open sea and the low grounds.

On the northern side of the bay a spacious valley extends over a circuit of fifteen or twenty miles, bounded on three of its sides by hills. In the centre of this valley lies the village of Onno, the inhabitants of which are chiefly occupied in agriculture. The other villages which are situated on the coast are for the most part inhabited by fishermen. The hill, at the foot of which the town is built, serves as an excellent landmark for ships entering the bay, as it is easily recognised at a distance by its circular form, and is detached from every other elevated object. On the western side this hill is formed of huge masses of rock, in one of which there is a cavity perceptible from the sea. The depth of water close in land is very considerable on the southern and western sides of the peninsula; but as there are neither sand-banks nor rocks to be apprehended, the coast may be approached without danger. There are, however, numerous sand-banks on the northern side, and consequently only small vessels can get up to the town. From the projecting cape opposite the town a sand-bank of unequal depth extends one-third of the breadth of the bay. On the northern and eastern sides of the bay the depth of the water gradually diminishes towards the shore.

The Japanese towns and villages on the island are large, have regular streets, and the houses, on account of earthquakes, are all neatly built of wood. Every house has a kitchen garden, and many are furnished with orchards. The cleanliness which prevails in the streets and houses is truly astonishing. The inhabitants, says Golownin, are extremely lively, and content and cheerfulness are painted on every countenance. The boundary between the Japanese and Yesoite villages is about 100 miles from Chakodade.

The principal bays on the southeastern coast of the island are *Volcano bay*, in latitude $42^{\circ} 19' 20''$ north, and longitude $141^{\circ} 7' 36''$ east, secure and spacious, having the inner and well-sheltered harbor of *Edermo*; the *bay of Good Hope*, and *Atkis bay*, now beginning to be frequented by our whalers. The best harbors on the northwest coast are in *Soukhtalen bay* and *Strogonov bay*. Near the centre of the island is a lake called *Onoma*, about 15 miles long and nearly as broad, having its outlet in the river *Isikari*, a very rapid stream, which falls into Strogonov bay.

The aspect of the island, particularly in the southern provinces, is wild and mountainous. A rugged chain traverses it from northwest to southeast. Active and extinct volcanoes are visible. The northwestern provinces are said to be more fertile than the southern, producing everything necessary to support life, and are well cultivated by Japanese emigrants.

The timber forests consist of oak, pine, birch, elm, scented cypress, and other valuable woods; ginseng and various medicinal plants are found; deer, elk, bears, wolves, wild goats, sables, foxes, and other wild animals, are numerous. The bears are uncommonly fierce, and attack

men as well as other animals. Among the birds are three species of falcon and lammergeyers; and in summer, geese, swans, and ducks. Salmon, cod, herring, mackerel, and other varieties of fish and shell fish, tripang, beavers, sea-otters, seals, morses, sword-fish, whales, &c., are very plentiful on the coast; and Rensifée Sendai, in his description of the island, avers that an enormous sea-monster, called by the natives *Okime*, resembling, by all accounts, the kraken of the Norwegian seas, has been seen on the coast of Yeso.

The Yesoites are generally tall and strongly made, very active, and far more handsome and manly than the Russian Kuriles. They appear to be a distinct race of people from the inhabitants of the other islands; and have a language of their own, which, though it contains many Kurile words in common use, is totally unintelligible to the other Kuriles.

The principal occupation of the natives is hunting, felling timber and burning charcoal, fishing and gathering *kambou*, (*fucus saccharinus*), called by the Russians sea-cabbage, which is found in great abundance on the coast, and is a favorite article of food among all classes in the Japanese empire.

The *Kambou* is spread out upon the sand to dry; they then collect it together in heaps, resembling hay-cocks, and cover it over with matting until the time arrives for loading the vessels which carry it to the ports of the southern islands of Japan. Everything produced by the sea is considered eatable by the Japanese; fish, marine animals of every description, sea plants and weeds, are all made to contribute to their support.

There is a trading factory established by the Prince governor in each of the provinces of the island, where, on making his agent a small present, the Yesoites are allowed the privilege of bartering their furs, dried fish, &c., for such articles of Japanese manufacture as they may want. The Japanese traders carry on a clandestine traffic with the Russians at the adjacent Russian Kurile islands, for dried fish, whale-oil, bear and seal skins, eagles' wings and tails, and also for woollen cloths of various colors, chiefly red and yellow, glass ware, glass beads, strings of amber, hardware, boots, &c. of European manufacture, for which they pay very dear rates, and give in exchange rice, clothes, tobacco pipes, cotton manufactures, domestic utensils, and other things.

The Japanese give a high price for eagles' wings and tails, as they use the feathers for their arrows. The yellow cloth is reserved for distinguished visitors; a piece of a suitable size is usually spread out where it is intended the guest shall seat himself. Cloths of other colors are made into wearing apparel. Woollen cloth is not manufactured by the Japanese, no sheep being raised in any part of their dominions.

The Yesoites make their dresses out of various fibrous substances—bark of trees and skins of animals; and they also receive clothing in exchange for their commodities from the Japanese, Chinese, Manchus, and Russians; on which account a great diversity of habiliments is often observed among the members of a family occupying the same dwelling. The women are employed in weaving cloth for garments, and other necessary domestic work. In summer they live in huts made of wood, covered with bark; and in winter in huts of earth, the floor covered with mats. Their weapons are bows with poisoned arrows, spears, and Japanese swords. They are not permitted the use of powder or fire-arms. The smoking of tobacco is a favorite amusement with both sexes.

Polygamy is allowed among them; some of the chiefs have a number of wives. They live in admirable harmony with each other, and are in general mild and good hearted, hospitable, friendly, and polite. They have no writing, consequently no written laws; everything is handed down by tradition from generation to generation. The chiefs are elected by the natives, and confirmed by the Prince governor. Many of the natives are Budhists, and all are left to their own choice of religion, laws, customs, and dress. The island serves as a place of exile and punishment for political offenders from Japan.

Matsmai was visited by European traders as early as 1612. when the English had a factory at Firando, in Japan; they sold the Yesoites pepper, broadcloth, and elephants' teeth, and received in exchange bars of gold and silver. There are said to be several rich mines of those metals, as well as of copper, in the island, which the Japanese government will not allow to be worked, from an apprehension that foreigners, particularly the Russians, would be tempted to conquer and occupy the country.

According to a Japanese author, the Empress Catharine is reported to have said, "that it should always be the object of her children and grandchildren to seek to increase the Russian empire, and extend its frontier." "The Orotz," (Russians,) says the same author, "obeyed this injunction, and occupied the whole of the country of Kamtschatka. They named a governor, and obliged each inhabitant to bring in as tribute a deer skin. They then began to trade with the island of Yeso, receiving pepper, sugar, and linen, in exchange for gold and skins. We Japanese gather neither gold nor silver; we even make a secret of having such costly articles, for fear the Russians should take possession of the country. Yeso is to our kingdom as the lips and teeth are to the body. We must always be on our guard." (See appendix C.)

By a letter received from a gentleman who has long resided in Japan, as physician to the Dutch factory of Dezima, we learn that the courtesy, moderation, and forbearance of Commodore Biddle and his officers, during the short stay of the American squadron in the bay of Yedo, in July, 1846, had inspired both the government and people with the highest opinion of the nation he represented, and has favorably disposed them towards it. The Japanese government had caused orders in writing to be drawn up, to be delivered to the commanders of foreign vessels, allowing them to anchor north of the Covalhos, near the entrance of the bay of Yedo.

In the *Loo choo islands*, dependencies of the Prince of Satzuma, island of Kiu-siu, two Catholic missionaries have been permitted to reside since 1844. The Rev. Mr. Forcade, one of the number, in a letter to his superiors, dated Great Loo-choo, August 12, 1845, states that he had acquired a knowledge of the language, and compiled a dictionary of more than six thousand words; that everything at Loo-choo is Japanese in worship, language, dwelling-houses, furniture, manners, and customs; that he had not yet seen a Chinese junk in the port of Nafa, while there were constantly at anchor ten to fifteen Japanese vessels. The island is now frequently visited by European and American vessels. In 1846 an American whale ship foundered on a rock near Loo choo; she was raised, repaired, and sent on her voyage by the assistance of the subjects of the Prince of Satzuma.

Port Melville, called by the natives Ou-ting, or Vouching, on the western coast of the island, has a good, safe anchorage in 19 to 20 fathoms water, protected from all winds; and offers peculiar advantages and facilities for careening and repairing vessels, so much wanted in those seas. Its shores are studded with populous villages, and the country around is fertile and well cultivated.

6. STEAM COMMUNICATION WITH CHINA.—SUPERIOR COMMERCIAL ADVANTAGES OF CHUSAN, &C.

In addition to the steamers now in active progress of construction at this port for the transportation of the United States mail, passengers, and freight, between Panama and Columbia river, the increasing importance of our trade with China and the Indian Archipelago would warrant the immediate establishment of another line from Panama to Shanghai, Canton, Manilla, &c., either in connexion with that line or from Panama direct, to touch and coal at the Sandwich islands. From New York to Panama is about 1,950 miles, from Panama to Sandwich islands 4,780, thence to Shanghai or Chusan 4,470—in all 11,200 miles; and it is calculated the passage could be performed by American steamers within 45 days. From Panama, by the great circle, to the Aleutian or Fox islands, is 5,500 miles; thence, through the strait of Sangar and sea of Japan, to Shanghai and Chusan, is 2,700 miles—in all 8,200 miles. This route is about 1,200 miles shorter than the former, and must eventually obtain the preference, as it will form a connecting link with the line about to be established from Panama to Oregon; and on the Asiatic section of the north Pacific, will pass in the vicinity of the Kurile and Japanese islands, and the eastern coast of Manchuria and Corea. From Panama to Tehuantepec is about 1,200 miles, to Acapulco 1,500, Manzanillo 1,800, San Blas 1,962, Mazatlan 2,100, Guaymas 2,450, San Diego 2,760, Monterey 3,120, San Francisco 3,200, Columbia river 3,570, and Yedo, Japan, 7,950 miles.

Coal of an excellent quality and in great abundance has been found at the following places on the American coast of the Pacific, viz: Panama; island of Santa Cruz, near Santa Barbara; bay of San Francisco; Vancouver's island, in the straits of San Juan de Fuca, and Puget's sound; and its existence has been ascertained at various other points near the coast. In China it is found in inexhaustible quantities on the banks of the great river Yangtszekang, at Shanghai, and the island of Formosa; in Borneo, and several of its adjacent islands; and in the island of Ceram, in the Indian Archipelago; at Junk Ceylon, on the west coast of the Malayan peninsula, where the natives offer to deliver it in Penang at \$3 per ton; and at the Nicobar islands, in the bay of Bengal, belonging to Denmark, and recently colonized by the Danes. It is found in Assam and Aracan. Excellent bituminous coal is also very abundant, and has been used for fuel from time immemorial in the Japanese islands, which, in the course of events, must ere long be opened to our commerce. Extensive coal fields have been discovered in Australia and New Zealand.

The Chinese island of *Chusan*, besides its superior local advantages for trade, is most eligibly situated for a halting and coaling station for such line of steamers; rendering it highly desirable and important that the ports of the Chusan Archipelago should be opened to American commerce. The island is about 23 miles in length by 7 to 11 in breadth,

situated 7 miles from the main land of China, and distant 40 miles from Ningpo. The population of the whole group is estimated at 300,000.

Tinghae, the capital, is in $30^{\circ} 10'$ north latitude, and $122^{\circ} 14'$ east longitude. Population about 30,000. Besides *Tinghae*, the Chusan group possesses several fine bays and harbors, with good and safe anchorage for the largest vessels, with plenty of good water, and admirable sites for dock-yards, so much wanted for the repair of ships in the China seas. The rise and fall of the tide is twelve and a half feet. The climate is considered the healthiest of any part of the coast of China, the thermometer rarely rising in summer to 86° Fahrenheit. It is accessible to vessels proceeding in any direction to or from Chusan; is in the route of an immense Chinese coasting trade, and of the junks which trade with Manchuria, Corea, Japan, Loo-choo islands, Indian Archipelago, Manilla, Borneo, Cochinchina, Siam, Batavia, Singapore, and Malacca. Its geographical position, at the central point, and to the windward of the coast of China, near the Peiho and Yellow rivers, opposite the Great Yangtze-kang river, give it unrivalled natural advantages for commerce over every other port on the coast of China. It is within a short distance of Chapu, the seat of the China-Japanese trade, within two days' sail of Japan; the same from Corea, and five days' sail from Pekin.

Chusan was captured by the British during their late war with China, and occupied by their forces until January, 1846, when it was surrendered to the Chinese, under the treaty, in exchange for Hong Kong.

In Gutzlaff's "Retrospect of the Two Years of Peace," he describes the island as "fertile, containing a dense, industrious, agricultural population; and for the whale fishery presents great facilities, for during summer the fish go to the Japanese seas, and along the coast of Corea, whither they have never yet been pursued. Vessels, therefore, fitted out in this island, would be just in the track.

"As a commercial emporium, few places in Asia can vie in point of situation with Chusan. On the opposite main are the most flourishing cities, as respects manufactures as well as commerce. In its neighborhood the largest rivers of China disembogue, and these will always be the high road of commerce.

"We would look upon Chusan as another Malta, not in point of natural strength, but of political importance for the maintenance and undisturbed enjoyment of a commerce which, after the opening of Japan and Corea, and access to Manchuria, will certainly rival the whole of our Mediterranean trade."

The port of *Shanghai*, lying about one degree north of Chusan, being immediately adjacent to the richest districts of the Chinese empire, and especially to those which produce the principal articles of export, promises to become a formidable rival to Canton, and will inevitably draw from it a considerable portion of its traffic. According to the report of the select committee of the House of Commons of the 9th July, 1847, "on commercial relations with China," Shanghai already furnishes 16,000 out of the 20,000 bales of silk, and 10,000,000 out of the 57,622,802 lbs. of tea, which China, in 1846, appears to have furnished for British markets.

Sir John Davis, in a despatch of the 24th February, 1847, states that "Shanghai must be expected to attract to itself, in due time, the largest portion of the British trade, it seeming to be impossible that teas should

long continue to bear the heavy charge of transport to Canton from the north, when they can be delivered so near the place of production."

The river Woosung, on which the city of Shanghai is situated, 14 miles from the sea, comes out of the Ta-hoo or "Great lake," Chang-keaw-kow, and traverses the Yunho, or "Great canal," and thus communicates with the Yangtszekang, the Yellow river, and Pekin; from the Yun-ho it enters the Pang-shan lake, and flows by the beautiful city of Suchau, the most commercial, wealthy and luxurious city of the empire, with a population of nearly 2,000,000, celebrated for the variety and excellence of its manufactures, the politeness and intelligence of its inhabitants, and the beauty of its women. This river enables the inhabitants to trade and communicate with the remotest parts of the empire, from Pekin to Yunnan, and from the eastern coast to the extremity of Central Asia. Shanghai is the port of many great cities, besides Suchau, from which it is distant about 40 miles; the way to it is by the route of rivers, canals, and small lakes, through a continual range of villages and cities. The aggregate population of the whole district is estimated at 5,000,000.

Coal, of the description termed kennel coal, is very abundant at Shanghai, and is burnt in British steamers navigating the China seas. It is apparently worked near the surface, and a better sort could most probably be obtained by mining.

Shanghai is a better market for superior textures of silk than Canton; sewing silk of every kind, in colors, is prepared in Henschai and Nankin. The crapes made in this district are superior to those generally seen in Canton. Most of the fabrics made here are with thrown silk. The silk of the workmen in this district, together with the well known enterprise of the manufacturers, have established the character of their goods throughout the empire.

The chief articles manufactured are damasks, satins, mazarines, and crapes, also figured and plain heavy serges. A peculiar description of singularly woven figured silk, called *Keh sz'* is manufactured at Suchau, in forming which are the several processes of weaving, printing, embroidery and sewing, exhibiting figures of men, flowers, gardens, &c., and is said to surpass anything known in Europe in its representation of figures and flowers. In their establishments for the culture and manufacture of silk they have an ingenious apparatus for avoiding double cocoons, and a simple process for reeling the fine white silk, named *t's-ih-ti*, and the well known cocoon thread. There are also at Suchau extensive manufactories of iron, ivory, bone, gold, silver, glass, paper, and cotton.

The safest article of export, recommended by Montgomery Martin, is the Hongchow and Nankin plain white, and the Tong-pa and Ching-tong yellow pongees. If purchased in the gum, and not boiled off, the purchaser will not be so liable to be cheated, as they are frequently increased in weight, and improved in their apparent quality with congee, or "rice paste." Rhubarb may be obtained fully as cheap here as at Canton, and green tea 20 per cent. cheaper. The most important articles of import from the United States are cotton goods and lead. Our coarser cotton fabrics are preferred to those of the English, and we supply China with lead cheaper than any other country.

In addition to teas and silks, among the exports are camphor, china root, cassia, and the best porcelain. Articles are also brought here from Japan, Siam, Cochin-China, and Tonquin, such as copper, sugar, gamboge,

raw silk, stic-lac, liquid indigo and plumbago, good hemp, and a superior description of fine flax. Provisions of all kinds are very abundant and cheap.

Shanghai is rapidly becoming a place of great commercial importance, on account of the large number of merchants who are crowding there from all parts of the empire, as well as from Siberia and Central Asia, to make purchases. It exports largely, and more than any other emporium in China, to Tientsin, the port of Peking, on the Pei-ho, which is covered with its junks. Trade appears to be in a very flourishing condition, and it is said 1,000 large-sized junks pass in and out of the harbor weekly.

The Woosung river discharges into the Yangtszekang, and is almost half a mile in breadth, and has about five fathoms in mid channel; the entrance is through a maze of sand-banks, without a mark; the tide rises from 15 to 18 feet. The anchorage at the mouth of the river is in latitude $31^{\circ} 25'$ north, longitude $121^{\circ} 1' 30''$ east. The heat is very great in July, August and September, but at other periods the temperature is very agreeable, and snow falls in winter, remaining on the ground some days.

It appears to have been the uniform policy of the Chinese government to concentrate the foreign trade, as much as possible, to certain privileged ports, in order to subject it to a more rigid system of supervision and monopoly, and more available for exaction. This will account for its reluctance to open the northern ports of the empire to foreign commerce, and free trade has thus far been a failure in China; but that government will, ere long, be compelled to succumb to the more liberal progressive commercial policy of the age.

The rule on which the Chinese government acts in its dealings with foreigners is thus translated by Prémare: "The barbarians are like beasts, and not to be ruled on the same principles as citizens. Were any one to attempt controlling them by the great maxims of reason, it would tend to nothing but confusion. The ancient kings well understood this, and accordingly ruled barbarians by misrule; therefore to rule barbarians by misrule is the true and best way of ruling them." Lord Napier observes that "the whole system of government here is that of subterfuge, and shifting the blame from the shoulders of the one to the other."

The commanding position and local advantages of *Quelpaert* island, latitude $33^{\circ} 20'$ north, and longitude 126° east, lying in the Korean Archipelago, for trade with the Korean peninsula, east coast of Manchuria, and Japan, as well as for whaling, were briefly indicated in my letter to the Hon. James Buchanan, Secretary of State, of the 28th November, 1846, printed document of the House of Representatives No. 96, of the last session. The British have since taken possession of this island, with the intention of permanently occupying it as another link in the long chain of their maritime stations in the Indian Archipelago, and seas of Eastern Asia, and by which they will be enabled to open up the trade of Corea, the northern provinces of China, Manchuria, and the Japanese islands.

Their possessions in those seas, including this island, now embrace Port Essington, on the Cobourg peninsula, Northern Australia; Cape York, and the adjacent islands on Torre's straits; the southeast coast of Papua; the Straits settlements of Penang, Malacca, and Singapore; the island of Labuan, on the northwest coast of Borneo; the island of

Hong Kong, on the south coast of China; and the island of Maratan or Maratubo, on the southeast coast of Borneo, in latitude $2^{\circ} 14'$ north, and longitude $106^{\circ} 2'$ east. This island is situated in the sea of Celebes, near the northwestern entrance of the strait of Macassar, and is said to be a most eligible point for a commercial settlement, as it would not only command the entire trade of the east and north coasts of Borneo, but would have a large share of that of the Sooloo group, Celebes, &c., and prove a formidable rival to the Dutch port of Macassar, in Celebes, now a free port.

The commander of her Britannic Majesty's surveying ship *Bramble*, landed in April, 1846, at a cape in Papua, or New Guinea, which he called Cape Possession, in latitude $10^{\circ} 19'$ south, and longitude 148° east, where he hoisted a British flag, and took possession of the coast in the name of her Britannic Majesty. There is an extensive range of mountains visible from the coast, 9,000 to 10,000 feet high, which he called Mount Victoria; there are also several intervening ranges of mountains of inferior altitude, covered with primitive forests, which gave him reason to suppose that the country was well watered and fertile.

The whole coast appeared thickly inhabited. Their villages consisted of large and respectable looking huts, the land near them presenting a very agreeable and fertile appearance. They were frequently visited by the natives, who brought off cocoanuts, sugar-cane, sago, a sort of arrow-root, as well as specimens of their arts and manufactures, such as bows, arrows, spears, ornaments, &c., which they readily exchanged for such trifles as were offered them. They have double and single canoes; some of the former being capable of carrying from fifty to one hundred men, and the latter two or three. At Bramble Key, on the same coast, there is a large quantity of guano, a vegetable resembling spinach, and turtle may also be procured here at particular seasons of the year.

The previous surveying expedition in her Britannic Majesty's ship *Fly*, discovered in 1845, on the same coast, the delta of a large river, 5 miles wide, in latitude $8^{\circ} 40'$ south, and $143^{\circ} 30'$ east longitude, and which they supposed to be navigable a long distance in the interior.

The island is inhabited by two distinct races of people, the Papuas and Horaforos, who subsist upon the spontaneous productions of the earth, and by fishing. No European nation, except the Dutch, has heretofore had any commercial intercourse with the island, and they have no settlement on it. The natives of Ceram and Goram are the principal traders with Papua. The chief articles of import are iron tools, chopping-knives and axes, blue and red cloth, Chinese beads, plates, basins of China, and other similar articles, in exchange for *slaves*, amber, ambergris, tripang, edible birds' nests, tortoise shell, pearls, pearl shells, mother-of-pearl, black loories, large and red loories, birds of paradise, and many other kinds of birds, which the Papuans have a peculiar way of preparing; wild nutmegs, rose maloes, ebony, iron wood, various odoriferous, medicinal, and dye woods, camphor, sago, cocoa, palm oil, gold dust, and diamonds. One of the most important articles of export is a bark called Massoy bark, which is taken by the Dutch to Java, where the powder made of it is extensively used by the natives for rubbing the body, and fetches $\$30$ per picul of $133\frac{1}{2}$ pounds.

7. SPECIAL MISSION TO THE EAST—STEAM NAVIGATION ON THE INDUS AND BRAHMAPUTRA, &c.—EXTENSIVE CARAVAN TRADE WITH NORTH-WESTERN AND CENTRAL ASIA, &c.

In view of our expanding commerce on the Pacific, and of the importance of adopting early measures for opening and extending our commercial intercourse with all the oriental nations, I take leave most respectfully to invite your favorable consideration of the proposed mission to the East, which I had the honor of submitting to Mr. Buchanan in my above mentioned letter of the 28th November, 1846.

In addition to the oriental nations therein briefly noticed, embracing an aggregate population of upwards of 140,000,000, and with which the United States have not made treaties—the recent annexation of the States of Sind and the Punjab, including the provinces of Cashmere and the Hazarahs, to the British Indian empire—the general tranquillity now reigning in the kingdoms of Beloochistan, Afghanistan, Koondooz, Bokhara, Khaurism, Kokan, or Ferghana, and their dependencies, together with the political, scientific, and commercial mission sent by the governor general of British India, in August last, to Tibet and Chinese Turkestan—will open new markets for an extensive and profitable commerce in those vast regions of northwestern and Central Asia by the route of the Indus, in which, by the negotiations now in progress between Mr. Bancroft and Lord Palmerston, it is presumable we may shortly be allowed to participate.

It is worthy of remark that a portion of those Asiatic countries embrace the Indo-Scythia, Bactria, Transoxiana, Marycanda, Chorasmia, Parthiana, and Parapomismus, of classical antiquity; and the Turan, Tur-kist'hán, Sogd, or "valley," and Maver ul-naher, or "the province beyond the river," of the early Arabian geographers, which they extolled as "the most delightful of all places which God created." "For eight days," says Ibn Haukal, "we may travel in the country of Sogd, and not be out of one delicious garden. On every side, villages with cornfields, fruitful orchards, country houses, gardens, meadows intersected by rivulets, reservoirs, and canals, present a most lively picture of industry and happiness." The hospitality of the inhabitants he describes, from his personal observations, as corresponding to the abundance that prevailed.

The erudite Professor Lassen, of Bonn, has discovered and identified the ancient name of the Afghans with that of *Uskanghar*, in the catalogue of nations tributary to the Great King, engraven in cuneiform characters on the monuments of Persepolis; they are descendants of the Hebrew tribes.

Those countries were celebrated before the memorable Indian expedition of Alexander, B. C. 327, for the great variety and value of their commercial products, their rich mines of gold, precious stones and minerals, such as rubies, turquoises, amethysts, tæjeloves, ladgword or lapis-lazuli, &c., and as the thoroughfares of an extensive commercial intercourse, by caravans of Bactrian camels, between India, China, and the western nations.

The chief cities of this region of Central Asia were then, as now, Balk, (called by the natives Omm-el-Baldan, or "Mother of Cities," the capital of the ancient Greek kingdom of Bactria,) Samarkand, and Bokhara. At a later period, Caubul and Candahar became, and still continue to be, the marts of an extensive commerce. Sultan Baber, who was a

native of Ferghana, and king of the Turki race in 1504, gives the following description of the two last named cities, in his "Memoirs :"

"On the road between Hindostan and Khorasan there are two great marts: the one Caubul, and the other Candahar. Caravans from Ferghana, Turkestan, Samarkand, Balk, Bokhara, Hissar, and Badakshan, all resort to Caubul; while those from Khorasan repair to Candahar. This country lies between Hindostan and Khorasan. It is an excellent and profitable market for commodities. Were the merchants to carry their goods as far as Khita, (northern province of China,) or Rûm, (Asiatic Turkey,) they would scarcely get the same profit on them. Every year, seven, eight, or ten thousand horses arrive in Caubul. From Hindostan, every year, fifteen or twenty thousand pieces of cloth are brought by caravans. The commodities of Hindostan are slaves, white cloths, sugar candy, refined and common sugar, drugs, and spices. There are many merchants that are not satisfied with getting thirty or forty for ten. The productions of Khorasan, Rûm, Iran, (Persia,) Chin, (China proper,) may all be found in Caubul, which is the very emporium of Hindostan. Its warm and cold districts are close by each other. From Caubul you may in a single day go to a place where snow never falls, and in the space of two astronomical hours you may reach a spot where snow lies always, except now and then when the summer happens to be peculiarly hot.

"In the districts dependant on Caubul there is great abundance of the fruits of both hot and cold climates, and they are found in its immediate vicinity. The fruits of the cold districts in Caubul are grapes, pomegranates, apricots, peaches, pears, apples, quinces, jujubes, damsons, almonds, and walnuts; all of which are found in great abundance. The fruits it possesses peculiar to warm climates are the orange, citron, the amlûk, (a large berry,) and sugar-cane. I caused the sugar-cane to be brought, and planted it here. They have numbers of bee-hives, but honey is brought only from the hill country on the west. The rawash (rhubarb) of Caubul is of excellent quality: its quinces and damask plums are excellent, as well as its bâdrengs, (a large green fruit.) There is a species of grape which they call the water-grape, that is very delicious: its wines are strong and intoxicating.

"In the country of Caubul there are many and various tribes. Its valleys and plains are inhabited by Turks, Aimáks, and Arabs. In the city and the greater part of the villages, the population consists of Tâjiks. Many others of the villages and districts are occupied by Pashâis, Parâchis, Tâjiks, Berekis, and Afghans. In the hill country to the west reside the Hazâras and Nukderis. Among the Hazâra and Nukderi tribes there are some who speak the Moghul language. In the hill country to the northeast lies Kaferistân, such as Kattor and Gebrek. To the south is Afghanistân.

"There are eleven or twelve different languages spoken in Caubul: Arabic, Persian, Túrki, Mongoli, Hindi, Afghâni, Pashâi, Parâchi, Geberi, Bereki, and Lamghânri."

The Bolor-Tag, the Imaus of the ancients, which forms the meridian axis of Central Asia, has been for many centuries the boundary between the empires of China and Independent Turkestan. The "Dark or Cloudy Mountain," and various other etymologies, have been assigned for the origin of its name; but the most probable derivation, according to Humboldt and the traditions of the neighboring nations, is from a corruption of

Vaidurya, the Sanscrit for lapis-lazuli, for which the mountains of that chain have been celebrated from the earliest ages.* The culminating points of the Bolor are about 20,000 feet above the sea level; but where it intersects the other chains parallel to the equator, such as the Thian shan or "Celestial mountains," the Kouen lun, and the Himalaya, the elevation is greater. It is crossed in three principal points, viz: that of Yarkand to the north, that of Pámér, and the one traversed by the Jesuit Goes, in 1603. But the pass by lake Sir-i-kol, or Victoria lake, in the high table land of Pámér, the source of the Amu Derya or Oxus, in $37^{\circ} 27'$ north latitude, and $75^{\circ} 40'$ east longitude, is the most frequented. This route was re-discovered and described by Lieutenant Wood, of the Indian navy, in 1838, and is about 15,000 feet above the level of the sea. He verifies the general accuracy of the account of Pámér, given by Marco Polo, the Venetian traveller, who visited it in 1280. The mountain in the vicinity of the lake is called by the natives Bami Dunyá, or "Terraced roof of the world."

The productive and valuable ruby mines of Badakshan, in the Khanat of Koondooz, yielding the celebrated Balais ruby, a crystal of a pale rose color, are situated in the mountain district of Gharan, on the right bank of the Oxus, which is about 1,000 miles in length, navigable for large vessels upwards of 600 miles, and falls into lake Aral. This river, the lake, and the Caspian, were in early time the great channels of communication, for the purposes of trade and war, for a large portion of the route between the Indus and the Black Sea.

Badakshan, when visited by Marco Polo, was governed by princes who were lineal descendants of Alexander, by the daughter of Darius, king of Persia. The Badakshan horses have always been celebrated for their superior size, great speed, and capacity for endurance. It was believed that there still existed in the province, horses of the breed of Alexander's celebrated Bucephalus, which were all foaled with a particular mark on the forehead. This filiation is also noticed and confirmed by Abu'l-fazl, and other Arabian historians. From the close connexion of the countries of the Oxus with Arabia, it may be presumed the breed was originally derived from the pure Arabian stock. Tamerlane, by his conquests in China and India, Persia, and Turkey, introduced the finest horses of those distant countries to his capital of Samarkand, and his native and adjacent city of Shuhr-Subz, in which neighborhood, according to Sir A. Burnes, are now found the most matchless horses of the East. Elphinstone observes, that "by far the best breeding country for horses in the Caubal dominions is Balk; and it is from that province, bordering on Badakshan and the Turcoman country lower down the Oxus, that the bulk of those exported are brought." We have authentic accounts of their performing a journey of 600 miles in six days. Speed is at all times looked on as an inferior quality to bottom. The Turcoman horse in winter is swaddled in three thick felts of sheep's and goat's wool, which are impervious to the wind and rain, and is left out in the open air day and night. At night the snow is piled around him, as a further protection. In so dry a climate, this is considered far better for him than the confined

*The workmen in the lapis-lazuli mines enumerate three descriptions of this mineral: these are, the noeli or indigo color, the asmani or light blue, and the sure-si or green, which are of the relative value in the above order. The richest colors are usually found in the darkest rocks. The beautiful blue called ultramarine, is obtained from the lapis-lazuli.

air of a stable, and he preserves the sleekness of his skin throughout the winter.

Among the Uzbeks of Turkestan, horse flesh is preferred to beef or mutton; and *koamis* (fermented mare's milk) is almost the only liquor used by them for convivial purposes. It is said to be very palatable and wholesome, and is reputed a sovereign remedy in consumption.

The city of Bokhara, "The Holy," "The Treasury of Sciences," has a population of about 150,000, and is the mart and entrepôt of a very extensive caravan trade with Russia, Siberia, and the principal countries of Eastern, Central, and Western Asia. Much has been done to facilitate the sale and transport of merchandise, by the construction of numerous caravansaries and vast and commodious bazars, which are filled with many of the products and manufactures of Asia, Africa, and Europe. It is also the chief seat of Mohammedan learning in Independent Turkestan. The number of its colleges, or medrasses, amounts to 366, several of which are richly endowed, and all of them are well attended by students from the neighboring countries. Their course of study generally lasts seven or eight years. M. Khanikoff, a Russian traveller, who visited Bokhara in 1842, says "it is the first place among the kingdoms of Central Asia for learning."

The Khan of Taskhend, one of the chief towns of Ferghana, lying on the Syr Derya, is now reckoned among the vassals of the Emperor of Russia, and at no distant day his territories will form an integral part of the Russian empire. A very extensive caravan trade is carried on between this town and Petrapavlock, in Siberia, in which about 3,500 camels are employed.

Were Bokhara, Khaurism, Kokan, and Koondooz, to be connected by steam communication, for which the Oxus, the Syr Derya or Jaxartes, and lake Aral, as well as the hard, level desert, afford such facilities, they would form a powerful commercial confederation—give laws to Central Asia, and make their influence be felt from Siberia to the Himalaya, and from the Caspian to China.

The religious forms and ceremonies of several of the Tartar nations of Central Asia bear a strong resemblance to those of the Buddhism of the Grand Lama of Tibet and the Roman Catholic church. They have a Pontiff; Patriarchs, intrusted with the spiritual government of the provinces; a council of superior Lamas, who meet in conclave to elect a Pontiff, and whose insignia resemble those of Roman cardinals; convents of monks and nuns; prayers for the dead; auricular confession; intercession of saints, fasts, kissing of feet, litanies, processions, and holy water. These points of similitude evidently show their derivation from the Nestorian Christianity, which was extensively spread throughout Tartary during the middle ages, and that the institution of the Lamas, which only dates from the 13th century of our era, has been based upon that of the Nestorians. A list of 25 Metropolitans, in Asia, which were subject to the Patriarch of the Nestorians between A. D. 800 and 1200, will be found in the 3d volume of the "Bibliothecæ Orientalis" of S. Assemanus, a work of high authority and vast erudition.

According to all accounts in which the state of these countries is described, no traces of Christianity subsist among them, with the exception of the Catholic religion preached anew by the modern missionaries of

the church of Rome. The religion of the Dalai-Lama, on the contrary, is preserved, extended, and established among the people of Tangut, Mongolia, the Tartars, Tibetans, and other nations of Central Asia, China, Japan, Corea, &c. We may therefore reasonably conclude that the Nestorian bishops and priests, who for so long a period propagated their doctrines throughout Asia, deprived, at so great a distance, of all intercourse with societies really Christian, departed farther and farther from Christianity, and gave themselves up to the superstitious practices of the people among whom they lived, till every trace of the Christian character was effaced, and Nestorianism finally became merged in Lamaism.

The Indus (Sindhu in Sanscrit) is now regularly navigated by steamers from the port of Kurrachee to Attock—a distance, by the course of the river, of 942 miles—in connexion with a line from that port, theemporium of the Indus, to Bombay. Its mean width is 680 yards, and in the dryest season of the year, 9, 12, 13, and 15 feet are the usual measures of depth below Attock. The sources of this great river have never been fully explored. It is certain that it rises in the Himalaya mountains near Tibet. It is probable that the Skayúk, from Karakorum, and the river Ladak, from near the “Sacred Lakes” of Ráwan-Hrad and Manasaróvara—held in superstitious reverence by the Hindoos—are its principal affluents. It receives the Abá Sín, and passes on to Attock, where it is joined by the Caubul. One of the sources of this tributary descends from Pamér, and is nearly as remote as the principal branch. From Attock to the sea it is familiarly known to the natives by the name of “Sind,” or “Attock.” The water is sweet and good, and the current runs about four miles an hour. It is subject to very sudden rises, and as rapidly falls. A few miles below Tatta it divides into two large arms, which subsequently are further broken into numerous branches, forming the Delta of the Indus, the base of which, measured in a straight line from the western to the eastern embouchure, conveys the main body of the Indus towards the ocean, preserving a similar magnitude to that of the parent stream; but from the loose and changeable nature of the soil, the mouths are constantly changing. The influence of the tide is irregular, and varies from four to twelve feet, and is not visible at a greater distance than 60 to 65 miles from the sea. The inundation of the Indus commences about the end of April, and attains its maximum height, which, below the latitude of Haiderabad, is about twelve feet above the ordinary channel, during July and August, after which it continues gradually to subside until September.

An enlightened plan was conceived by the Emperor Firoz III, in the thirteenth century, for uniting the Indus and the Ganges by means of the Sutledge and Brahmaputra, thus connecting Assam with the west of India, developing a grand scheme of internal navigation of upwards of 5000 miles in extent across that continent. The commerce carried on by means of the Indus during the reign of Aurungzebe, in the seventeenth century, was immense, employing not less than 40,000 boats of large tonnage between Lahore and Tatta. In some of the districts near the Indus, manufactures of silk goods are extensively carried on. The manufactured plain and striped silks are considered to surpass in beauty those of any other country, and large quantities of them are every year exported to Caubul and Candahar.

The chief trading marts on the banks of the Indus, and in the Punjab are Tatta, Haiderabad, the capital of Sind, and the residence of the Amers; Halla, Sihwan, the opulent town of Shikapoor, noted throughout India, Central and Western Asia, for the extensive banking and exchange transactions of its wealthy Hindoo bankers; Bukhur, Mitun Cote, Dhera Ghaza Khan, where the great festival of Sukhee Surwur and fair of five days is held annually near the gorge of the Taht-i-Suleiman mountains; Dhera Ismael Khan, Kalabagh, Attock, Loodiana, Umritsir, Mooltan, Bhawalpore, Lahore, &c. The banks of the Chenab and the Ravee abound in coal mines. From the above named entrepôts there is an extensive commercial intercourse, by caravans of camels, with the various countries of Central, Western, and Northern Asia, to the west—and also with the great trading marts of Kashgar, and Yarkand in Chinese Turkestan, Lha-sà, or “land of gods,” and other chief towns in Tibet, to the east of the Hindú-Kush, and north of the Himalaya; all which produce many articles of great commercial value, and take in exchange a great variety of the products and manufactures of China, India, and the western nations.

Yarkand has 200,000 inhabitants, and is surrounded by a number of towns and villages, which are very populous. Traffic is very active, as Chinese traders from Shanse, Keagnan, and Chekeang, proceed thither to meet traders not governed by China. Raw silk is cultivated in large quantities; but the staple article is the wool of the shawl goat, (akheha.) The dumba sheep, with a large tail, is abundant. The celebrated *yu*, or jade-stone, is found near Yarkand in great abundance. Large quantities of gold and silver brocades are manufactured. Merchandise pays a duty of ten per cent.

Tibet possesses the precious metals in great abundance. The first rate Chinese sycee—the native silver of the country—contains some parts of gold, and is said to surpass in fineness and purity that of any other country in the world.

Leh, the capital of Ladak, or Little Tibet, from its central situation, has become the great thoroughfare of the caravan trade from Yarkand, Hlasa, and Russia, to Cashmere, Lahore, and India. The route from Serinagur, the capital, to Leh, 150 miles, crosses the Himalaya mountains in latitude $34^{\circ} 5'$ north. The trade is extensive, and a source of profit to the Ladakians. The principal article of export is wool of the wild goat, the common breed of this and the neighboring countries, of which the Cashmere shawls are manufactured. The fleece is finer in Ladak than elsewhere, and Leh is the chief entrepôt of the wool. It is also supplied from Rodok and Tibet, and 800 camel loads of the picked wool is exported annually to Cashmere. The hair is made into ropes, coarse sacking, and blankets, for home consumption. Much of the transportation over the mountains of Ladak is done upon sheep, each carrying twenty-five to thirty pounds weight. The largest trade of Ladak is with Yarkand.

Captain Conolly, in his “Journey to the North of India,” in 1830, states that English goods generally sold in Bokhara at the rate of 150 to 200 per cent. profit upon prime cost at Bombay; and that the net profit of the Lohani Afghan merchants gained upon the sale of British goods at Candahar and Herat, was 100 per cent. upon prime cost in British India. Mohun Lal, the Cashmerian, states, in his travels in Afghanistan, that at Candahar and Herat a particular description of cotton, woollen, and

silk goods, subject to a duty of only 10 per cent., readily sell from twice to four times their prime cost at Bombay. White cotton goods find a ready sale in Cashmere, in return for shawls and various kinds of Cashmerian fabrics. The coarse though more durable cotton goods of the Russian are greatly preferred throughout Central Asia to those of English manufacture, which of late years have been too much fabricated for the cheap sale of a showy but slight article.

The whole foreign trade of Caubul in 1835 was estimated by Mr. Masson, the late British agent in Afghanistan, at about £1,000,000 sterling; since which time, it is stated to have greatly increased.

A valuable commerce in wool has been opened by the British with the Belooch and Afghan tribes, and has extended even as far as the eastern portion of the province of Korasan. The flocks of sheep possessed by the nomad and other tribes of Central Asia are exceedingly numerous, and the expense of transit by means of camels is trifling. An unlimited supply of wool is obtained at a comparatively low price.

Sinde and the Punjaab are as quiet and peaceful as any of the provinces of British India, and, by the latest accounts, more prosperous than most of them. Very large appropriations have recently been made by the native governments for the construction of roads, to facilitate commercial intercourse throughout their own territories, and with the adjoining countries. Associations have been formed by the native chiefs for the purpose of improving the agriculture of the country; and native workmen have been sent to Bombay to become proficient in various branches of industry, and learn how to construct implements that may be of advantage to them at home.

Nearly all the Malwa opium is shipped at Kurrachee. It is stated, on good authority, that the production of the drug in that district, in 1847, amounted to 30,000 chests. The product of Patna, Benares, &c., on the other side of India, including that of Damaun, is estimated at about the same quantity. These 60,000 chests find their way almost exclusively to the markets of China, where they are sold and bought nominally, as a contraband article, at \$600 per chest, more or less, = \$36,000,000.*

Besides the route of the Indus there is an extensive commercial intercourse, by caravans, with Beila, Kelat, Candahar, Herat, Caubul, and the chief trading marts of Central Asia, through the richest and most populous portion of Beloochistan, from the Belooch port of Sonmeanne, in the province of Lus, west of Kurrachee. There is also another route through Persia, from the port of Bushire, or Abushire, "the father of cities," in the Persian gulf. Ispahan is the principal emporium of Persia, and on the great line of communication between Afghanistan, India, Chinese Turkestan, Tibet, and China, on the east; and Turkey, Egypt, and the Mediterranean, on the west. A considerable number of its chief merchants have capitals embarked in trade, which vary from \$400,000 to \$800,000 each; and not only control, in a great degree, the whole trade

* It is estimated by Montgomery Martin that the number of opium smokers in China exceeds three millions. The pernicious practice is rapidly increasing among all classes of the Chinese, attended with the most deleterious consequences to the health, morals, and welfare of its votaries. It is, moreover, highly detrimental to their legitimate commerce, by draining the country of its specie, and thus depriving them of the means of extending their trade with foreign nations; and it is to be feared will finally lead to the general demoralization, impoverishment, and ruin of the empire.

of Persia, but are able also, it is said, to influence prices in the markets of Western and Central Asia.

Russia imports, overland, raw cotton from Persia, Khaurism, Bokhara and Kokan, and other countries of Central Asia. It is short staple, and only fit for spinning by hand, or to be converted into wadding. The importation of cotton, wool, and yarn, from those and other countries, into Russia, is progressively increasing; the latter is principally employed in weaving cloth of an ordinary texture, and for making candle-wick. The cotton cloth called *Persians*, formerly extensively manufactured in Shiraz and Ispahan, and now successfully imitated in England, Germany, and Russia, forms the largest amount of the imports from those countries into Persia. The demand for cotton prints, and American cotton goods, is said to be rapidly increasing in all the countries of the East.

Tibet is accessible on the east by the route of the great river Brahmaputra, or "son of Brahma;" the Dzangbo, its principal upper affluent, having its sources near those of the Indus, but flowing in an opposite direction, passes near Tshoo Lomboo, and within about 30 miles of Lhasa. After leaving the mountain ranges of the Himalaya, it runs through the valley of Assam 500 miles in a southwest direction, where it receives 34 rivers descending from the north, and 24 from the south mountains of that province, all of which are navigable from the sea for steamers and trading vessels of some size, as far as Sonpura, 12 miles above Sudyā, and 600 miles from the sea, or about the 96th meridian. The Brahmaputra falls into the bay of Bengal, near the mouth of the Ganges, and its entire length, including the Dzangbo, is about 1,500 miles.

The *ficus elasticus*, or India-rubber tree, abounds in all the forests of Assam, and frequently attains the height of 100 feet. The juice is procured by the natives from transverse incisions made in the larger roots of the tree, which are for the most part half exposed. The flow of the juice takes place principally from the bark; half a maund, or 41 pounds, may be considered a fair average of each bleeding. This province alone, it is calculated, will be able to meet all demands for that highly useful article. The tea tree is indigenous to the soil, and is successfully cultivated on the plantations belonging to the "Assam Tea Company" of London, and the company have established a line of steamers between Calcutta and Sudyā. Several of their shipments of Assam tea have averaged 2s. 6d. sterling per pound in London.

Cotton is not grown in the province, but cotton goods are extensively imported from Bengal. The trees producing lac are also of great importance to the province. Still more important are several species of *Tetrathera*, on which is fed the Assam silk-worm, producing the silk known in common as *mazan kuri* and *moonga*. Three-fourths of the upper classes of the Assamese are clothed in silks of domestic manufacture. A sample of a new rice denominated *bocca dhanya*, the produce of a certain part of the province, has lately been sent from Gowhaty to Calcutta. The chief quality of this rice is, that if it is kept for twenty minutes either in cold water or milk, it is sufficiently cooked, and becomes eatable.

At a late meeting of the Royal Asiatic Society of London, a specimen was presented of the inner bark of a tree indigenous in Assam, called *odassi* by the natives, strips of which are made into rope for the capture of wild elephants. The fibre is very strong, especially when wet, and

the donor of the sample is of the opinion that it might be advantageously introduced into the manufactories of England.

Among the Abors, or "Independent" tribe of this province, every village forms a democratical republic by itself, and is governed by laws enacted by all the inhabitants in a formal meeting. This meeting is called *Raj*, which evidently signifies the "sovereignty," or "republic." It is held in the morning, and every male inhabitant has an equal vote. Some few, either by their superior wealth, hereditary reputation, or real ability, exert a very strong influence over the rest, and can readily sway them to any measure they like. The *Raj*, however, is extremely jealous, and very vigilant in pursuing their democratical rights. Hence they have laws which make the public burdens fall equally on all. In the middle of the village is the *morang*, a large building, which serves as a hall of audience and debate, as a place for reception of strangers, and as a dwelling for the bachelors of the village generally, who by their laws are not entitled to the aid of the community for the construction of a separate house. Their orators seemed to have studied rhetoric, and to have considered its effects upon the minds of their countrymen: they speak in a remarkably emphatic style, dwelling upon each word and syllable. They are wonderfully fond of holding their political meetings, at which they are heard with the utmost patience, and without any interruption; and in this particular they are certainly much superior to many civilized nations. If, in an affair of importance, the assistance of their neighbors is required, they send an ambassador to the other republics, who are charged to make proposals, or to accept what has been proposed by another community.

The other principal native Assamese tribes are the Singphos, Booteas, Ratteras, Duplas, Nishmis, Miris, Khasias, Doms, Kacharis, Gelongs, and Nagas. Various dialects are spoken, but the Assamese is the principal language. Portions of the Holy Scripture, and also numerous tracts and elementary works, have been translated into it by the Rev. N. Brown, A. M., and his colleagues of the American Baptist mission to Assam. One of the number, the Rev. O. T. Carter, of the Sibsigar station, commenced in January, 1846, a monthly periodical of a religious and miscellaneous character, in the Assamese, called the *Orunodoi*, or "Rising Dawn."

S. POLICY OF ENCOURAGING IMMIGRATION OF CHINESE AGRICULTURAL LABORERS TO CALIFORNIA.—RAILROAD FROM THE MISSISSIPPI TO THE BAY OF SAN FRANCISCO.

With the view of bringing the fertile lands in California under early cultivation, I would suggest the policy of encouraging immigration of agricultural laborers from China to that territory. No people in all the East are so well adapted for clearing wild lands and raising every species of agricultural product, especially rice, cotton, tobacco, sugar, and silk, as the Chinese. They are the principal cultivators, agricultural laborers, mechanics, and ship-carpenters, throughout the various islands of the Indian Archipelago, Java, Borneo, Penang, Singapore, Malacca, Siam, Cochin China, the Philippine islands, &c., where they are estimated to exceed 2,000,000, nearly one-fourth of whom are established in Siam: the culture of sugar, the principal export of that country, is almost exclusively in their hands. A large amount of the traffic, and a greater proportion of

the carrying trade of those countries, is conducted by them. The better class of the settlers are described as enterprising, keen, laborious, and persevering; and those in traffic, expert, speculative, and judicious.

The establishment of a colony of Chinese cultivators at some eligible location on the coast of California, would, as a natural consequence, attract thither their trading junks, and lead to the opening of a direct commercial intercourse from thence with China, and all the eastern countries with which the Chinese carry on their junk trade. The superabundance of the population of that immense empire, annually compels vast numbers to emigrate. A channel for emigration once opened, great multitudes from that over-peopled country would wend their way to California. Some of their junks are of 1,500 to 2,000 tons burden, and frequently arrive at Singapore, and other places in the Indian Archipelago, with 1,200 emigrants on board, seeking employment. The junks are divided into seven or more different compartments, water-tight, usually belonging to different persons on board for the voyage. They are now beginning to build fast-sailing ships after our models. The greater proportion of emigrants are from Amoy, in the province of Fokien.

Emigration, instead of being prohibited as formerly, under severe penalties, is now encouraged by the Mandarins. A considerable number of Chinese coolies have been engaged to work for a term of years, at low wages, on the coffee and sugar plantations of the French island of Bourbon. Arrangements are in progress, under the sanction of the colonial authorities of Australia, to introduce the culture of sugar, cotton, and rice, on an extensive scale, in tropical Australia, and to supply the planters with predial laborers from China. Several ship loads of natives of the New Hebrides and Solomon's group have likewise been imported into the same colony, to serve as shepherds and agricultural laborers.

The commodious port of *San Francisco* is destined to become the great emporium of our commerce on the Pacific; and so soon as it is connected by a railroad with the Atlantic States, will become the most eligible point of departure for steamers to Oregon, Japan, China, the Indian Archipelago, &c. Coal of an intermediate species between bituminous and anthracite, burning more easily than the latter, but a little harder, and giving out less smoke than the former, has been recently found in large strata in its vicinity.

It is stated, on reliable authority, that the country along the valley of *San Joaquin*, between the bay of *San Francisco* and the *Mississippi*, is comparatively level, presenting less difficulties in execution, and more advantages in a commercial point of view, than any other projected route for a railroad between the Atlantic and Pacific, within the territorial limits and occupancy of the United States.

By this route it is proposed "that the railroad should start from the *Mississippi*, near the mouth of the *Ohio*, or at such a point that the navigation will never be interrupted by ice; thence to the vicinity of *Arkansas*; thence along the prairie ridge, which separates the waters which flow into *Arkansas* from those which flow into the *Mississippi* and *Missouri*, to the point where the road passes from *Missouri* to *New Mexico*, and by *San Miguel* to *Santa Fe*; thence up the valley to *Rio del Norte*, to the mouth of *Abeca* creek; thence through a pine forest of low sandy hills, ninety miles, to the *Rio de la Plata*, which is a tributary of the *San Juan*, and this is a tributary of the *Colorado*. It should cross the last named river

to the northwest side, and proceed along the trail from Santa Fe to California to a point between the Mahawee river and the San Bernadine mountains; thence through about ten miles of low hills to the great valley of the San Joaquin; thence down that fertile valley about five hundred miles on a level, to the tide-water of the bay of San Francisco. By this route the road will pass over a dead level of about eight hundred miles at the eastern, and about five hundred miles at the western end; will have no mountains to cross; will be really free from snow in all parts; and will afford an outlet from New Mexico to both oceans, to terminate at the best port on the western coast of America." (See appendix D.)

9. SHIP CANAL FROM THE ATLANTIC TO THE PACIFIC.

The five points indicated by the illustrious Humboldt, by which an artificial communication may be opened between the two oceans, are the following:

1. The isthmus of Tehuantepec, between the sources of the Rio Chimalapa, which has its outlet in the Pacific, and the Rio del Passo, which falls into the Huasacualco, and the latter which empties into the Atlantic.
2. The isthmus of Nicaragua, between the lake of Nicaragua, forming the source of the river San Juan, which has its embouchure in the Atlantic, and the gulfs of Nicoya and Papagayo, or port of Realejo, on the Pacific.
3. The isthmus of Panama.
4. The isthmus of Darien, or Cupica.
5. The isthmus between the Rio Atrato, which falls into the Atlantic, and the Rio Chocó, which falls into the Pacific.

With respect to the first of the above routes, which is about one hundred and twenty miles across in a straight line, the sand-banks and quick-sands at or near the mouth of the Chimalapa, and moveable sand-bars of San Francisco, on the Pacific; the want of a good harbor at the embouchure of the Huasacualco on the Atlantic; the number of rapids on both rivers, and the intermediate elevations to be surmounted, would appear to render impracticable a ship canal at this point. M. Deflot de Mofras, late member of the French legation in Mexico, carefully explored this route by order of the French government in 1842, and made a topographical map of the isthmus, which is appended to the report of his surveys. After specifying in his report the various difficulties of the route, he states emphatically, "of all the communications between the Atlantic ocean and the South sea, that of the isthmus of Tehuantepec appears to us the last that should be adopted."

From the various surveys that have been made of the third, fourth, and fifth routes above indicated, it appears that neither of them is practicable for a ship canal, and would require the construction of intermediate railroads to complete the communication between both oceans.

M. De Mofras concurs with Humboldt in opinion that the second of the above routes, viz: lake Nicaragua and river San Juan, is the only practicable oceanic ship canal between the Atlantic and Pacific, and has incontestable advantages over all the others; though not the shortest, it is considered the best, on account of the good harbors which exist at each end, and the great natural advantages afforded by the river and the lake, and the favorable nature of the country through which the canal would

have to be cut. Levels taken by eminent Spanish engineers, show that the lake is about 128 feet 3 inches above the level of the Pacific at low tide. The tide rises 12 feet on the coast at the port of San Juan of the South; and there is no essential difference between the levels of the two oceans.

The lake of Nicaragua is about 90 geographical miles long, by 40 wide in the widest part, with an average breadth of 20 miles, and is from 2 to 15 fathoms deep. A number of islands are scattered over its surface, the principal of which are Omotepa, Madera, Zapatera, Sanate, Salentinane, and Zapote. The first is the largest, and is inhabited by natives, who have two settlements on it called Moyogalpa and San Jorge. All the islands are well adapted for cultivation, and are covered with a variety of fine timber. The Rio Frio and several large rivulets empty into the lake. It is about 20 miles distant from lake Leon, or Managua, which is 35 miles in length by 16 in breadth, and united to the former by the river Tipitapa, navigable for small vessels to Pasquiel, within a mile of the rapids of that river, which have a fall of 13 feet. The lake is 28 feet 8 inches higher than the Nicaragua, about the same depth, and is fed by a number of small streams. It is about 29 miles from the port of Realejo, on the Pacific.

The western coast of the lake of Leon is twenty-six feet above the level of the lake. From hence the land rises gradually for a distance of 2,725 yards to an elevation of fifty-five feet six inches; here is then the culminating point, whence the ground gently descends to the ocean.

At a distance of eleven miles from the western shore of the lake, on the line which the canal should take to join Realejo, we find the river Tosta, which, at this spot, is thirty-four feet above the lake; and of course its source, issuing at the foot of the volcano Telica, must be much more elevated. This river would supply the canal with abundance of water, being, on an average, sixty-five feet wide, and six feet deep at low water. The rapidity of its current, which appears to be considerable, has not been estimated.

Captain Sir Edward Belcher, R. N., who explored this country in 1833, states:

"We pitched our observatory near the sea-margin, at the base of the volcano of Consequina, or Quisiguina, and having completed the requisite observations, started with the *Starling* and boats to explore the Estero Real, which I had been given to understand was navigable for *sixty miles*; in which case, from what I had seen of its course on my visit to the Viejo, it must nearly communicate with the lake of Managua.

"After considerable labor, we succeeded in carrying the *Starling* thirty miles from its mouth, and could easily have gone further had the wind permitted, but the prevailing strong winds rendered the toil of towing too heavy.

"We ascended a small hill about a mile below our extreme position, from which angles were taken to all the commanding peaks. From that survey, added to what I remarked from the summit of the Viejo, I am satisfied that the stream could have been followed many miles higher; and I have not the slightest doubt that it is fed very near the lake of Managua. I saw the mountains beyond the lake on its eastern side, and no land higher than the intervening trees occurred. This, therefore, would be the most advantageous line for a canal, which, by *entire lake navigation*, might be connected with the interior of the States of San Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, and extended to the Atlantic. Thirty

navigable miles for vessels drawing ten feet, we can vouch for, and the natives and residents assert sixty more. But steamers will be absolutely necessary, to tow against the prevalent breezes."

The river San Juan is the common outlet of both lakes, and is about 104 miles long, having its embouchure in the port of *San Juan of the North*, on the Atlantic, in $10^{\circ} 56' 45''$ north latitude, and $83^{\circ} 43' 14''$ west longitude. It varies in width from 100 to 400 yards; has a gentle current of 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile per hour, with a depth of $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 9 fathoms at low water; the average depth of the channel is 3 to 5 fathoms, but it is subject to a considerable rise and rapid current during the rainy season, from May to November. It receives the waters of the rivers San Carlos, Sarapiquí, and numerous large creeks, and is navigable at all seasons for vessels drawing $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 feet water. The principal, and in fact the only difficulty now experienced in navigating the river, is owing to four obstructions, consisting of ledges of rocks and large stones in its bed, called Machucha, Balas, Castillo, Viejo, and Toro, all within a space of ten miles, and between which the channel is 3 to 6 fathoms deep. The largest of these obstructions, that of Machucha, does not exceed a mile in extent.

The port of San Juan de Nicaragua, or Del Norte, according to the accounts given by Messrs. Baily, Rouhaud, Dumartray, and several other French officers, is extremely large and safe.

By inspecting the plan drawn on the annexed map, in 1832, by Mr. G. Peacock, of H. M. ship *Hyacinth*, it will be found that the bar is capable of admitting large ships, and that the roadstead affords a good shelter from the northerly winds which prevail with great violence in those roads.

The Colorado diverges from the San Juan in $10^{\circ} 50'$ north latitude, and after running in a southwesterly direction, falls into the sea in $10^{\circ} 46'$, forming a dangerous bar. This river abstracts from the main stream a considerable quantity of water, the opening from the San Juan being twelve hundred feet wide, and having in the deepest part nine feet of water at the lowest state of the river. From measurements of this section, carefully taken at two different periods, in May when at the minimum, and in July when much increased by freshes, it appears from calculation, that at the first period the loss of water from the river was 28,178 cubic yards per minute, and at the latter observation as much as 85,840 cubic yards. The main current being thus suddenly weakened, the motion of the water becomes sluggish, and the natural effect is, that deposits of sand and mud are formed, which gradually augment where the movement of the water is feeble; trunks of trees and other floating bodies grounding on these, small islets are formed by successive aggregations, which soon become covered with rank grass, reeds, and other herbaceous plants of rapid growth; a great number of these mounds have been thus raised, and the progress of formation is continually going on. The usual methods of clearing the beds of rivers could here be applied with facility and good effect, as the accumulations are nothing more than silt and sand, with occasional logs buried underneath. A dam across the Colorado branch, constructed on such of the well known plans as might be judged the most efficient, would be indispensable. Then the reformed body of water, aided, if necessary, by the resources of art, would, by the momentum of its increased velocity, soon clear a channel to the depth that should be deemed requisite: other parts of the river where such operations might be wanted, could be improved by nearly similar methods, as the

bottom is every where composed of mud and sand, except about the rapids, where it is of rock or loose stones.

The port of *San Juan of the South*, on the gulf of Papagayo, in the Pacific, is in $11^{\circ} 15' 57''$ north latitude, and $85^{\circ} 52' 56''$ west longitude. It is small, but sufficiently commodious, surrounded by high land, except on the south-southwest, where it is open to the sea. The depth of water is from 3 to 6, 7, 8, and 9 fathoms, at the distance of 300 yards from the shore. The entrance is about 1,100 yards wide; the anchorage tolerably good, with a muddy bottom. The prevailing winds on this part of the coast are from the north and northeast, which sometimes blow with great violence, and make it difficult for vessels to enter the port. Fresh water may be had at a short distance from the beach; fish is abundant, but nothing else but fire-wood is to be had. The country is uninhabited, and there is no settlement nearer than the town of Nicaragua, 7 to 8 leagues distant.

The country is well suited to agriculture, and capable of almost every species of improvement; the climate is good and salubrious; the temperature moderate, as the heat seldom exceeds 84° to 86° Fahrenheit.

From this port to the embouchure of the river Lajas, on the western shore of lake Nicaragua, in $11^{\circ} 24' 7''$ north latitude, and $85^{\circ} 46' 39''$ west longitude, by a route following the lowlands, valleys, and ravines in the dividing ridge, is 28,408 yards—in a direct line, 20,401 yards; and the highest intervening peak 615 feet above the Pacific, according to the surveys made by Mr. Bailey, an English engineer, in 1837 and 1838.

The river Lajas varies from 25 to 100 yards in breadth, with depth of water from 1 to 3 fathoms; the bottom is of mud to a further depth of several feet, beneath which there is in some places rock or stone: this has been ascertained by repeated borings. The bank on one side is thickly wooded for a distance inland of about 300 to 400 yards: on the opposite side there is a dense growth of wild cane of great extent.

The port of *Realejo*, also situated in the State of Nicaragua, is in $12^{\circ} 28'$ north latitude, and $87^{\circ} 12'$ west longitude. It is a good and safe harbor, and there is sufficient depth of water for vessels to come within half a mile of the city. In the time of the Spanish government several large ships were built at this port, which has better and more durable timber, and affords greater facilities for ship building, than Guayaquil, or any other port to the south, on the Pacific.

Captain Belcher also surveyed the harbor of Realejo, in 1838, as given in the annexed map of Nicaragua: he states that "it has two entrances, both of which are safe, under proper precaution, in all weather. The depth varies from two to seven fathoms, and good and safe anchorage extends for several miles; the rise and fall of tide is eleven feet, full and change three hours six minutes. Docks or slips therefore may easily be constructed, and timber is readily to be procured of any dimensions; wood, water, and immediate necessaries and luxuries, are plentiful and cheap. The village of Realejo is about nine miles from the sea, and its population is about one thousand souls. The principal occupation of the working males is on the water, loading and unloading vessels. It has a custom-house and officers under a collector, comptroller, and captain of the port."

The proposed canal between the Atlantic and the Pacific oceans, commencing at the port of San Juan, and terminating at the port of Realejo, would traverse, 1st, the river San Juan, which, according to Mr. Bailey,

is, with its windings, ninety English miles, and one hundred and four miles according to the narrative journal of Mr. G. Lawrance, mate and assistant-surveyor of Her Majesty's surveying vessel *Thunder*, in March, 1840; 2d, the lake of Nicaragua, which is ninety geographical miles long; 3d, the river of Tipitapa, joining the lake of Nicaragua to that of Leon, a course of twenty miles; 4th, the lake of Leon or Managua, which is thirty-five miles; 5th, the isthmus between the lake of Leon and the port of Realejo, twenty-nine miles.

RECAPITULATION.

Length of the river San Juan	-	-	-	-	104 miles.
" " lake of Nicaragua	-	-	-	-	90 "
" " river Tipitapa	-	-	-	-	20 "
" " lake Leon	-	-	-	-	35 "
" " isthmus between the lake Leon and the Pacific ocean	-	-	-	-	29 "
Total length of the communication between the two seas					278 "

Of which only about eighty-two miles would be required to be worked.

The government of the "Republic of Central America" having, in 1825, through Señor Cañas, its minister plenipotentiary to the United States, invited proposals for the construction of a ship canal by this route, I was induced to send out a special agent to Guatemala on the business in the fall of that year. The person I employed on that agency was the late Colonel Charles de Beneski, a Polish officer of superior talents and indomitable energy of character, who had served as military secretary and aid-de-camp to Iturbide, when emperor of Mexico. He met with great opposition from "The British Atlantic and Pacific Canal Company," which was then before the British Parliament for a charter, with a capital of one million sterling; and it was understood had offered their agent in Guatemala a bonus of £30,000, in the event of his obtaining from the federal government of Central America an exclusive grant to the company for the construction of the canal.

Notwithstanding the intrigues and machinations of his rivals and opponents, Colonel de Beneski succeeded on the 14th of June, 1826, in concluding a contract, as my duly authorized agent *ad hoc*, with Francisco Gomez de Arguello, Secretary of State and of the Treasury of the supreme government of the federal republic of Central America, acting in pursuance of a decretal order of the Congress of that republic, of the 20th May preceding, granting me and my associates the exclusive privilege of making the canal, and enjoying the sole profits thereof, under certain restrictions. The contract is sealed with the great seal of the republic, and is executed with all the authenticity of a public treaty. It is also duly attested under the seal of the legation of the United States, by Colonel John Williams, then resident American minister at Guatemala, who was present at the execution thereof.

With the view of giving an early inception to so magnificent an enterprise, under the most favorable auspices, on the 5th October of the same year I executed a deed of trust to my illustrious and lamented friend De

Witt Clinton, then governor of the State of New York, investing him with plenary powers to organize a company with a capital of \$5,000,000, the estimated cost of the work, to carry it into execution. Arrangements were made with our government to send out the late General Bernard and Captain Poussin, his aid, then topographical engineers in the service of the United States, to make careful surveys of the proposed route, and estimates of the cost of the canal. In the month of November following I went over to England, with the object of interesting British capitalists in the undertaking; but owing to political disturbances in Guatemala, which resulted in the dissolution of the republic of Central America, a general revulsion in commercial credit, and other untoward events at the time, my mission to England proved abortive; the company which had been provisionally organized by Governor Clinton never went into operation, and I sustained a very heavy pecuniary loss by the transaction.

The following copy of a letter from Governor Clinton to the gentlemen appointed his associate trustees, will show the high importance he attached to the enterprise, and the spirit in which it was intended to be carried into operation by himself and co-trustees. The execution of the deed of trust, on his part, was witnessed by the Hon. William L. Marcy, then comptroller of the State of New York, and was duly attested under the great seal of the State.

[PRIVATE.]

ALBANY, *October 6, 1826.*

GENTLEMEN: Considering the importance of the grant made by the Central government of America to Mr. Palmer, its binding nature and authentic character, (having been attested by Colonel Williams, our minister,) I have considered it my duty to enter into the arrangements which will be shown to you, confidently hoping that you will associate your labors with mine in this great undertaking, and fully believing that no injurious responsibility can accrue, and that great good may be done. Early measures will be taken to procure an act of incorporation from our legislature, and the whole character of the transaction will be free from the taint of speculation.

I am sincerely yours,

DE WITT CLINTON.

S. VAN RENSSELAER,
C. D. COLDEN,
P. HONE, and
L. CATLIN, Esqs.

From the best information I have been enabled to obtain on the subject, the difficulties to be surmounted in the construction of an oceanic canal by the above indicated route would appear to be rather political than physical, on account of the unsettled state of public affairs in Central America for many years past, without any stable government to negotiate with for the cession of the required portion of territory through which it is proposed to open the canal. It ought to be a national work, not a privileged monopoly, conferred on any private association or corporate body; open to the transit of vessels, merchandise, and passengers of all nations, upon the same footing, subject to fixed and uniform rates of toll; and, under the management of a local board of commissioners, not amenable to the

jurisdiction or control either of the government or public authorities, State or federal, of that republic, except in cases to be specially provided for.

Entertaining these views in regard to this magnificent project, I would respectfully recommend that negotiations be opened as early as practicable by our government with the actual government of "the States of Central America," for the purpose of obtaining permission to explore and survey the proposed route for a ship canal from one ocean to the other; and also to ascertain the terms and conditions upon which that government would agree to surrender its title and jurisdiction to the required portion of territory through which the canal may be opened in the State of Nicaragua, and that competent engineers be employed by our government, so soon as such permission is obtained, to explore and survey the isthmus at different points, and ascertain the most feasible route for a ship canal, in order to enable it to adopt such ulterior measures as may be deemed expedient and requisite to carry the enterprise into execution: and also that negotiations be opened by our government with such European governments as would probably be disposed to co-operate in promoting the object, especially those of Great Britain, France, Holland, Belgium, Russia, Sweden, and Denmark, for the purpose of entering into arrangements to accomplish the great end in view, through common means and united exertions.

In 1842 the British authorities of the Balise took under their guardianship an Indian boy, chief of the Mosquito tribe of Indians, occupying the Mosquito shore of the bay of Honduras, and claimed in his favor not only the right of sovereignty of that territory from the cape of Honduras, but also the adjacent coast of Nicaragua to the mouth of the river San Juan of the North. The British consul, Mr. Walker, resident at Blewfields, is the guardian of the boy, who is dignified with the title of "King of Mosquitia," and is about 15 years of age. The consul governs in the King's name, and the minor is educated under his inspection, by English teachers, who give him daily lessons. It is understood at Blewfields by the most intelligent persons, that the port of San Juan will soon be occupied by British forces, in the name of the King of Mosquitia.

Señor Sebastian Salinas, Minister of Foreign Relations of the government of Nicaragua, has addressed an official communication to Mr. Chatfield, consul general of her Britannic Majesty to the States of Central America, in which, after remonstrating energetically against the assumed sovereignty of the pretended King of Mosquitia over any portion of the territory of Nicaragua, he concludes by declaring that Nicaragua will consider as an act of war any attempt on the part of the Mosquito Indians, and their confederate the British, to take possession of the port of San Juan; that she will resist all these encroachments to the death, and will appeal to the other Christian and impartial nations of the earth to aid and assist her against this unlawful usurpation and invasion of her territory. (See appendix E, and the annexed map of the State of Nicaragua.)

PROSPECTUS.

THE
UNKNOWN COUNTRIES OF THE EAST;

THEIR
PRESENT STATE, PRODUCTIONS, AND CAPABILITIES FOR COMMERCE;

INCLUDING
A COMPREHENSIVE DIGEST OF THE PRODUCTIVE RESOURCES, TRADE,
COMMERCE, TARIFFS, DUTIES, COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS, MONEYS,
WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, EXPORTS AND IMPORTS, OF THE
PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES OF ASIA AND EASTERN AFRICA;

AMERICAN TREATIES WITH CHINA, SIAM, MUSCAT, AND SOOLOO; AMER-
ICAN CONSULS AND MISSIONARIES IN THE EAST,
&c. &c. &c.

TOGETHER WITH BRIEF NOTICES OF

THE CUSTOMS, RELIGIONS, LANGUAGES, ETC., OF VARIOUS ORIENTAL NATIONS.

Collected from the latest accessible authorities—Asiatic, Oriental, European, and American—
and intended as a guide for American commerce and intercourse with the East.

BY AARON H. PALMER,

Counsellor of the Supreme Court of the United States, Corresponding Member of the National Insti-
tute, Washington, and of the Royal Economical Society of the Philippines, Manila,
&c. &c. &c.

Testimonial of the Hon. ROBERT J. WALKER, Secretary of the Treasury, in favor of the work.

NEW YORK, August 11, 1847.

SIR: I have read the synopsis of the book you are about publishing, entitled "The Unknown Countries of the East," as also considerable portions of the work itself. Independent of the value of the work as a literary production, it is eminently calculated to enlarge our commerce.

As soon as it is published, I will supply the several bureaus of the Treasury Department with copies, as also the principal custom-houses.

For myself, individually, as a small evidence of my appreciation of your great and valuable labors, I will take five copies, and regret that my limited means do not allow me to subscribe for a larger number.

Most respectfully, your obedient servant,

AARON H. PALMER, Esq.

R. J. WALKER.

SYNOPSIS OF THE COUNTRIES DESCRIBED IN THE WORK.

ISLAND OF ASCENSION. ISLAND OF ST. HELENA. COLONY OF THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE. *Cape Town, Simon's Town, Port Elizabeth, Port Natal.*

EAST COAST OF AFRICA, from *Port Natal* to the Island of *Socotra*, viz: *Delagoa bay, Inhambane bay, Sofala, the Cuama or Zambesi river, Quilimane, Great Lake N' Yassi, &c.*, in the interior, *Island of Mozambique, Querimba, Macaloe bay, Mongallou river, Lindy river.*

ZANGUEBAR. *Quiloa, Zanzibar, Latham's island*, covered with guano. *Mombas, Melinda, Patte, Lamoo, River Joob, Town of Joob or Soahel, Brava, Magadoxa.* ISLAND OF SOCOTRA.

Tribes of the east coast of Africa, and their languages, &c.

COMORO ISLANDS. *Comoro, Johanna.* Translation of letter from Sultan of Comoro Islands to the author, giving a list of articles suitable for that market. *Mayotta and Mohilla.*

ISLAND OF MADAGASCAR. *Bembatonka bay, St. Augustine's bay, Tamative, &c.*

ISLAND OF MAURITIUS. *Port Louis, &c., Seychelles*, and dependencies.

ISLE OF BOURBON. *St. Denis, &c.*

ABYSSINIA. *Ankober, Tigré, &c.* Ports of *Masuah and Dahlac*, on the Red Sea; *Berberah, Zeila, and Tajourah*, on the Gulf of Aden. Languages of Abyssinia.

THE RED SEA, OR ARABIAN GULF.

PORTS ON THE AFRICAN COAST. *Port Mornington, Suakin, Cossier, Suez*, PROJECTED CANAL from the Mediterranean to the Red Sea.

ARABIA.

THE HEDJAZ, and PILGRIMAGES TO MECCA. Ports on the Arabian coast. *Arabia Petraea*.—*Tor, Gulf of Akaba, Yambo, Djedda.*

YEMEN PROPER, AND THE IMAMAT OF SANA.—*Sana, Mareb or Saba. Himyarites, Himyaritic Inscriptions at Mareb, Arabic language, &c.*
Loheia, Hodeida, Bat-el-Fakih, Mocha.

ADEN, a dependency of Bombay. Halting station for the bi-monthly steamers between Suez, Bombay, China, &c.

SOUTHERN COAST OF ARABIA.—*Maculla, Island of Maseru, Rass-el-gat, &c.*

IMAMAT OF OMAN OR MUSCAT.—*Muscat.* Town named *El-Ofir*, said to have been discovered within a few years past, on the coast of *Oman*. Treaty between the United States and the Iman of Muscat. *Bahrein Islands*, on the Arabian shore of the Persian gulf. *Bassorah*, (Asiatic Turkey,) on the Euphrates.

PERSIA.—Principal towns of Persia, and trading marts and ports on the PERSIAN GULF and CASPIAN. *Persian Language. Zend, Zendavesta.* Extracts from the translations of the inscriptions in the cuneiform or arrow-headed characters on the celebrated monument of Darius Hystaspes, at Behistun, by Major Rawlinson.

BELOUCHISTAN. Ports of *Posmee, Churbar, Gutter bay, Gwadel, Sonmeanne, &c.*

SINDE. *Hoïdrabad, Shikarpoor, Dhera Ghaza Khan, &c. Kurrachee*, principal port. Steam navigation on the *Indus*, and the rivers of the *Punjaub*. Recent establishment of a commercial line of steamers between *Bombay, Kurrachee, Attock*, and the principal towns of the *Punjaub*.

PUNJAUB. *Lahore, Umritsir, &c.* CASHMERE. *Serinagur.* New history of Cashmere, &c.

LADAK. *Leh, Iskardo, &c.*

AFGHANISTAN. *Caubul, Candahar, Peshwar, Herat.*

KHANAT OF KOONDOOZ. *Koondooz, Khooloom, &c.*

“ BOKHARA. *Bokhara, Samarkand, Balk, &c.*

“ KAURISM. *Khiva, Urghem, Anbari, &c.*

“ KHOKAN. *Khokan, Tashkend, Turkestan, Andejan,*

Khajend. Immense caravan trade of Central Asia, with the *Punjaub, Caubul, China, Russia, and Siberia.*

Rivers Amu Derya or Oxus, and Syr Derya or Jaxartes, and lake Aral.

HINDOSTAN.

CUTCH. Ports of *Mandavee, Luckput Bunder, &c.*

GUJERAT. Ports of *Surat, Cambay, Baroach, &c.*

BOMBAY. Progress of cotton culture in India, &c. *Goa Damain Diu, (Portuguese.)* LACCADIVE ISLANDS. MALDIVE ISLANDS *Male.*

ISLAND OF CEYLON. *Colombo, Point de Galle, Trincomalee &c.* Cingalese and Tamil languages.

TRANQUEBAR, ceded by Denmark to Great Britain in 1846.

PONDICHERRY &c., (French.) MADRAS. CALCUTTA. New Bengal tariff, with the differential duties. Statement of the progress of American trade with Calcutta, &c.

ANGLO BURMAN PROVINCES.

ASSAM. *Bisnuth, Gowhatty, &c.* Large forests of India-rubber trees culture of tea, &c. ARAKAN, *Arakan, Akyab, &c.* TENNASSERIM *Maulmain, Tavoy, Mergui, &c.*

BURMAH PROPER. *Ameerapoora, Rangoon.* Burmese language

ANDAMAN ISLANDS.—(English.)

NICOBAR ISLANDS.—(Danish.)

SIAM. *Bankok Chantibun, &c.* Siamese language, &c. Treaty between the United States and the king of Siam. Onerous tonnage duties and monopoly of the foreign trade by the king; unsatisfactory state of our commercial relations with Siam.

ANNAM, or COCHIN CHINA. *Hué, Turon, &c.* Annamese language.

INDIAN ARCHIPELAGO.

STRAITS SETTLEMENTS OF PENANG, or PRINCE OF WALES ISLAND, PROVINCE OF WELLESLEY, MALACCA and SINGAPORE. Description of *gutta percha*, a product of the Indian Archipelago, which is becoming an important article of export to Europe and the United States.

SUMATRA. Kindom of *Acñeen, Quallah Battoo*, and the pepper ports, *Padang, Bencoolen, Palembang, &c.* BANKA RHIO.

JAVA.—*Batavia, Samarang, Sourabaya, &c.* Javanese, Pali, and Malay languages, &c. BALLY. LOMBOCK. SUMBHAWA. TIMOR. TIMOR-LAUT. SERAWATTA ISLANDS. BABA. TENIMBER ISLANDS. KI ISLANDS. ARRU GROUP. *Dobbo*, the mart of a considerable traffic. PAPUA. Account of the recent exploration of the island by H. B. M. ship *Fly*, &c. CERAM-LAUT. GORAM ISLANDS. BANDA, or SPICE ISLANDS. *Banda, Amboyna, Booroo, Ceram, Mysol.* GILOLO. TERNATE. TIDORE.

CELEBES. *Bonthain bay, Boolecomba, Salayer, Bouton, Gonong Tello, Kemar, Manado, Sangir. Bujis of Waju*; the most enterprising and commercial nation of the Archipelago. Their language and liter

ture; synopsis of their maritime code of laws, &c. Dutch port of **MACASSAR**. Proclamation of the governor general of Netherlands, India, of 9th September, 1846, declaring it a free port. Account of a voyage to Celebes, by *Rajah Brooke*, of Sarawak, Borneo.

BORNEO. *Borneo Proper*. *Island of Labuan*, *Territory of Sarawak*, and *Island of Maratubo*, British possessions. *Sambas*, *Pontianak*, *Banjarmassin*, *Coti*, &c., Dutch settlements. Proclamation of the governor general of Netherlands, India, of the 28th February, 1846, defining the Dutch jurisdiction in Borneo, and appointing a Governor over the Dutch possessions of the island. Islands of *Balambangan*, *Banguay*, and *Cagayan Sooloo*.

SOOLOO GROUP. **SOOLOO PROPER**. *Soung*. Commercial treaty between the United States and the Sultan of Sooloo.

PHILIPPINE ISLANDS. *Manilla*. Description of the Provinces of the Philippines and their dependencies, the **MARIAN ISLANDS**. Native languages of the islands. *Bashee Islands*.

NEW ROUTE OF STEAM COMMUNICATION BETWEEN ENGLAND, SINGAPORE, AND SIDNEY, through the **INDIAN ARCHIPELAGO**, by the way of **BATAVIA**, **PORT ESSINGTON**, and **WEDNESDAY ISLAND**, in **TORRE'S STRAITS**.

NORTH AND NORTHEAST COASTS OF AUSTRALIA.

PORT ESSINGTON. **TORRE'S STRAITS**. *Cape York*, recently surveyed; safe roadstead, &c.

LOOCHOO ISLANDS. *Napakiang*, *Ou Ting*, or *Port Melville*; safe harbor, possessing great facilities for careening and repairing vessels, &c. Tributary to China and Japan.

BONIN ISLANDS. *Port Lloyd*, *Fitton bay*, &c.

COREA. Port of *Fung-Chang*. *Quelpaert's island*. Commerce with Manchuria, China, and Japan. *Corean language*.

JAPAN. *Nangasaki*, *Ohosaca*, *Miaco*, *Yedo*, &c. Government, laws, religions, language, literature, &c. American intercourse with the Japanese, &c.

KURILE ISLANDS, Russian and Japanese, No. 1 to No. 22, the Japanese dependency of **YESO**, or **MATSUMAY**.

YESO. *Matsumay*, *Chakodade*, &c. Islands said to contain very rich mines of gold and silver; possesses several fine bays and harbors. Lucrative clandestine traffic of the Russian fur traders with the Japanese Kurilians. Whales very abundant in the vicinity of those islands.

ISLAND OF TARAKAY, or **SAGHALIEN**. Its ports on the gulf of Saghalien, sea of Japan, and gulf of Tartary, in the possession of the native *Ainos* tribes, favorably situated for fishing, whaling, and trading with the neighboring islands and countries of northeastern Asia. Convention between the United States and Russia, 5th April, 1824.

The English have lately completed new hydrographical surveys of the east coast of Arabia, the Persian gulf, and the coast of China between Hong Kong and Shanghai, and the Pescadore and Chusan Archipelago. They are also progressing with surveys of the northern coasts of that empire, the Japanese seas, and the coasts of Corea and Manchuria. Baron Melvill de Carabee, an officer of the Dutch navy, has been engaged during the last twelve years in making scientific surveys of the Indian Archipelago and the Dutch East India possessions. The island of Madagascar, the east coast of Africa, and Abyssinia, have recently been surveyed by the French. The Russian surveys of the coasts of Siberia, Manchuria, the Russian and Japanese Kurile islands, and the northern Pacific ocean, are said to be the latest and best extant. These are of special importance to us at the present time in consequence of the great increase of our commerce and whale fishery in those seas, and the contemplated establishment of a line of American trans-Pacific steamers to China, to connect with the line now in progress from Panama to Oregon. Our present charts of those coasts, islands, and seas, are very inaccurate. The American whale ship Lawrence was shipwrecked, as before related, upon a ledge of rocks lying within three degrees of the Kurile islands, not laid down on any chart.

Besides the above mentioned official authorities, I am desirous of consulting the transactions of the principal Asiatic, Oriental, and Geographical societies of Europe* for the late and valuable information they embody respecting the geography, hydrography, ethnography, &c., of the eastern countries described in the work—all which would enable me to make it a reliable authority for intelligent legislation and action in the future diplomatic and commercial relations of the United States with the East—greatly enhance the value and utility of the work in every branch of the public service, and also be the means of vastly extending our oriental commerce. I have reason to believe that the national comity and courtesy of the British, as well as the other foreign governments, would be extended to me in furtherance of the proposed object, were it sanctioned by the authority of Congress.

The expenses of the journey to Europe, and for procuring and engraving on steel a series of the requisite maps, charts, &c., for the work, will not probably exceed \$10,000, for which a special appropriation and subscription by Congress for 2,000 to 3,000 copies of the work is respectfully solicited. Were the appropriation and subscription to be immediately made, it could be got ready for delivery by the first of January, 1849. The copyright to remain my property; the original maps, charts, hydrographical surveys, &c., that may be procured by me in Europe, to be deposited in the library of Congress upon the completion of the work.

All which is respectfully submitted by your excellency's most obedient servant,

AARON H. PALMER.

*The Royal Geographical Society of Berlin reckons among its members the "Universal" Humboldt and the eminent geographer Carl Ritter. The works of the former on the geography, &c., of Central Asia, and of the latter on the physical geography of the Asiatic continent, are generally acknowledged to be the best extant.

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ALASKA HISTORICAL
LIBRARY AND MUSEUM

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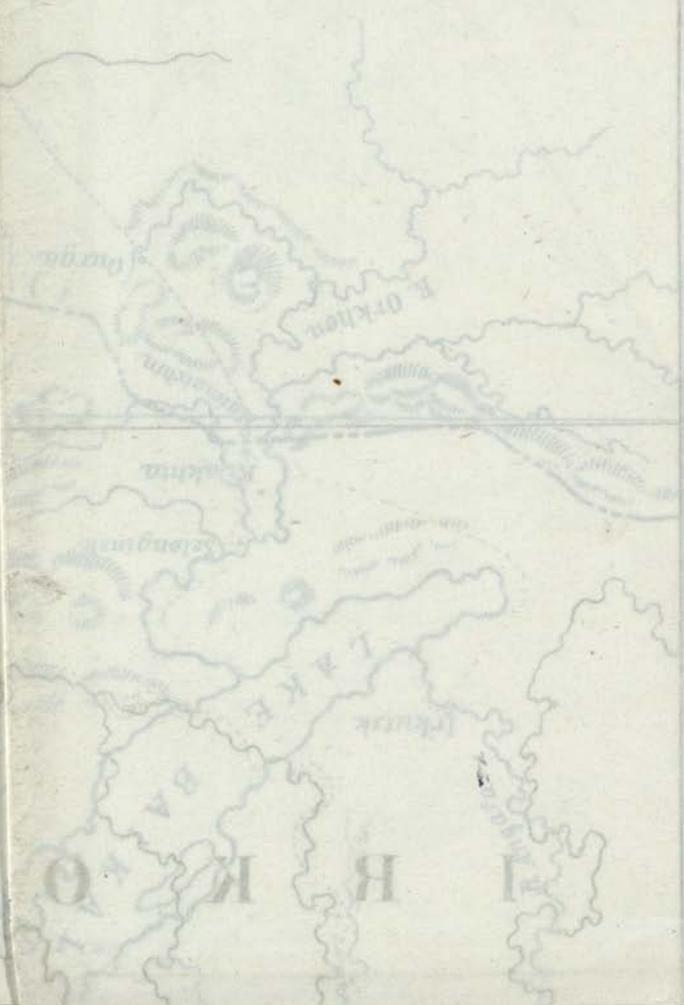
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Outline Map
of
NORTH EASTERN ASIA,
and the
ASIATIC ISLANDS of the NORTHERN PACIFIC OCEAN.
drawn from the latest accessible authorities,
by
AARON H. PALMER,
to illustrate his Memoir
GEOGRAPHICAL, POLITICAL AND COMMERCIAL,
on
Siberia, Manchuria &c.
addressed to His Excellency James K. Polk, President of the United States,
under date of the 10th Jan^r 1848, and printed by order of the Senate of the United States.

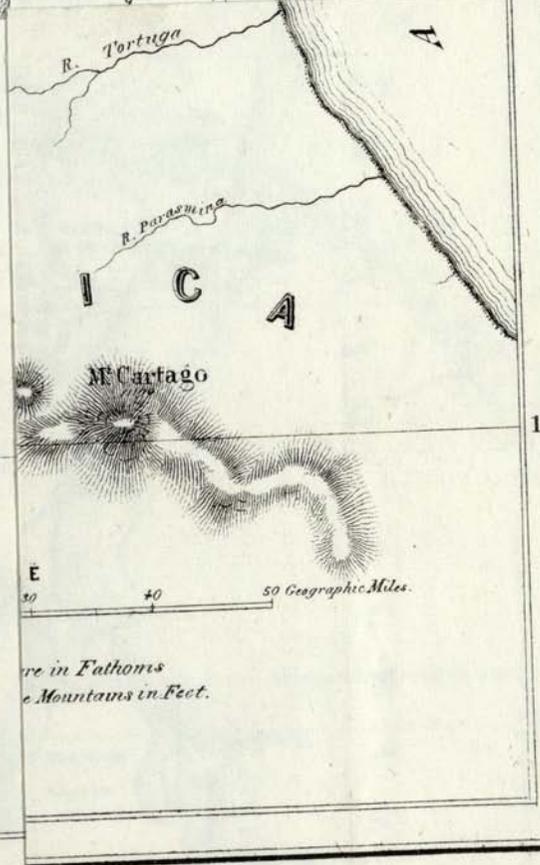
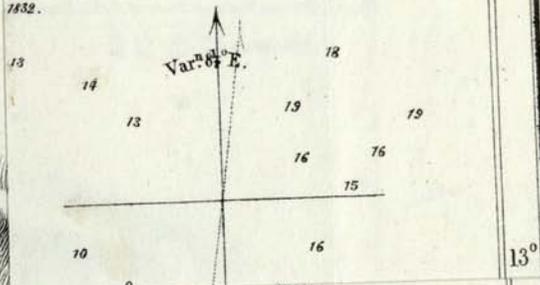
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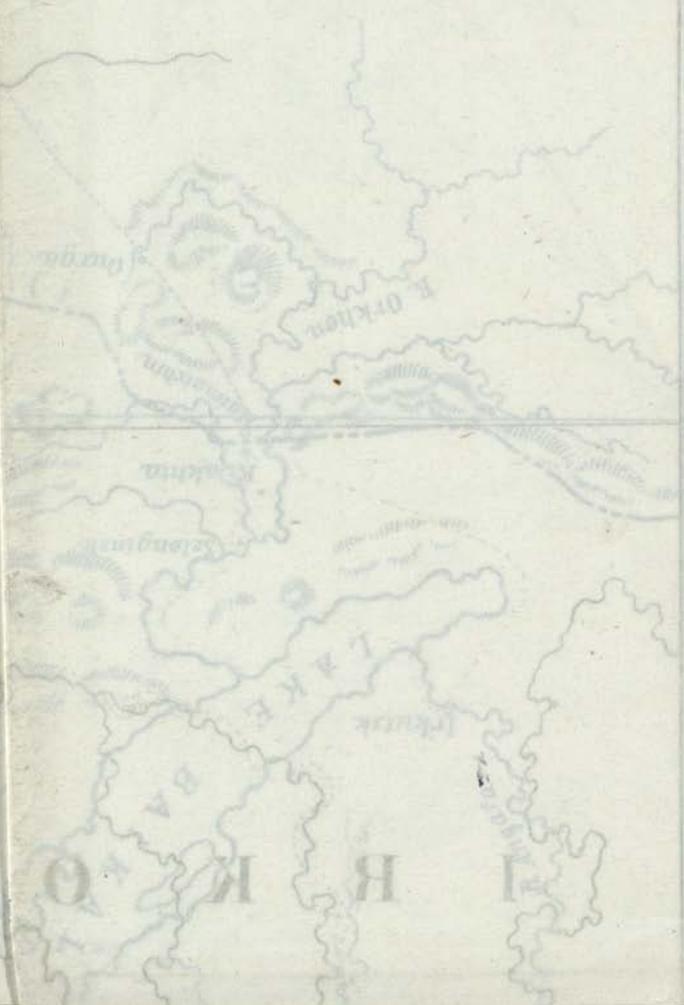
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1832.



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M O N G O L I



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HARBOUR OF SAN JUAN DE NICARAGUA

By M. George Peacock, Master of H.M.S. Hyacinth 1832.

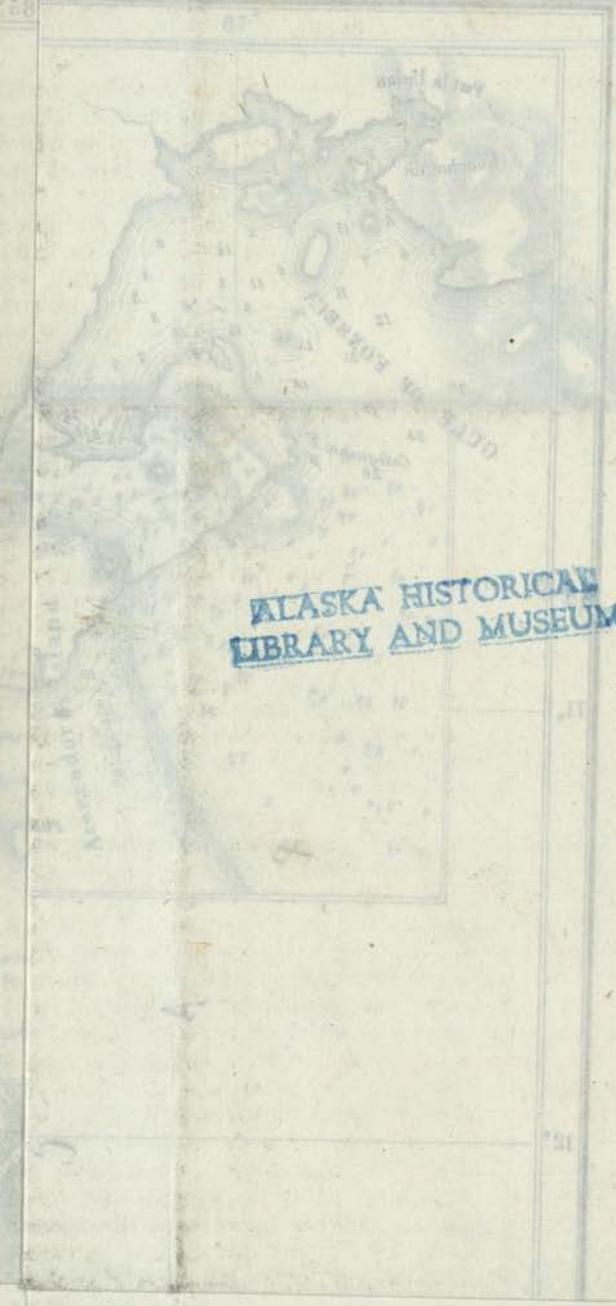
P. Arenas 10° 56' 45" N. 85° 42' 19" W.

Var. 6° E.



SCALE 0 5 10 20 30 40 50 Geographic Miles.

The Soundings are in Fathoms The Height of the Mountains in Feet.



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APPENDIX A.

On the Tea plant, from "Fortune's Wanderings in China," and "Williams's Middle Kingdom."

"There are few subjects connected with the vegetable kingdom which have attracted such a large share of public notice as the tea-plant of China. Its cultivation on the Chinese hills, the particular species or variety which produces the black and green teas of commerce, and the method of preparing the leaves, have always been objects of peculiar interest. The jealousy of the Chinese government in former times, prevented foreigners from visiting any of the districts where tea is cultivated; and the information derived from the Chinese merchants, even scanty as it was, was not to be depended upon. And hence we find our English authors contradicting each other; some asserting that the black and green teas are produced by the same variety, and that the difference in color is the result of a different mode of preparation; while others say that the black teas are produced from the plant called by botanists *Thea Bohea*, and the green from *Thea viridis*, both of which we have had for many years in our gardens in England. During my travels in China since the last war, I have had frequent opportunities of inspecting some extensive tea districts in the black and green tea countries of Canton, Fokien, and Chekiang: the result of these observations is now laid before the reader. It will prove that even those who have had the best means of judging have been deceived, and that the greater part of the black and green teas which are brought yearly from China to Europe and America are obtained from the same species or variety, namely, from the *Thea viridis*. Dried specimens of this plant were prepared in the districts I have named, by myself, and are now in the herbarium of the Horticultural Society of London, so that there can be no longer any doubt upon the subject. In various parts of the Canton provinces where I have had an opportunity of seeing tea cultivated, the species proved to be the *Thea Bohea*, or what is commonly called the black tea plant. In the green tea districts of the north—I allude more particularly to the province of Chekiang—I never met with a single plant of this species, which is so common in the fields and gardens near Canton. All the plants in the green tea country near Ningpo, on the islands of the Chusan Archipelago, and in every part of the province which I have had an opportunity of visiting, proved, without exception, to be the *Thea viridis*. Two hundred miles further to the northwest, in the province of Kiang-nan, and only a short distance from the tea hills in that quarter, I also found in gardens this same species of tea. Thus far my actual observations exactly verified the opinions I had formed on the subject before I left England, viz: that the black teas were prepared from the *Thea Bohea*, and the green from *Thea viridis*. When I left the north, on my way to the city of Foo-chow-foo, on the river Min, in the province of Fokien, I had no doubt that I should find the tea hills there covered with the other species, *Thea Bohea*, from which we generally suppose the black teas are made; and this was the more likely to be the case as this species actually derives its specific name from the Bohea hills in this province. Great was my surprise to find all the plants on the tea hills near Foo-chow exactly the same as those in the green tea districts of the north. Here were, then, green tea plantations on the black tea hills, and not a single

plant of the *Thea Bohea* to be seen. Moreover, at the time of my visit, the natives were busily employed in the manufacture of black teas. Although the specific differences of the tea plant were well known to me, I was so much surprised, and I may add amused, at this discovery, that I procured a set of specimens for the herbarium, and also dug up a living plant, which I took northward to Chekiang. On comparing it with those which grow on the green tea hills, no difference whatever was observed. It appears, therefore, that the black and green teas of the northern districts of China (those districts in which the greater part of the teas for the foreign markets are made) are both produced from the same variety, and that that variety is the *Thea viridis*, or what is commonly called the green tea plant. On the other hand, those black and green teas which are manufactured in considerable quantities in the vicinity of Canton, are obtained from the *Thea Bohea*, or black tea.

“ In the green tea districts of Chekiang, near Ningpo, the first crop of leaves is generally gathered about the middle of April. This consists of the young leaf buds just as they begin to unfold, and forms a fine and delicate kind of young hyson, which is held in high estimation by the natives, and is generally sent about in small quantities as presents to their friends. It is a scarce and expensive article, and the picking off the leaves in such a young state does considerable injury to the tea plantation. The summer rains, however, which fall copiously about this season, moisten the earth and air; and if the plants are young and vigorous, they soon push out fresh leaves. In a fortnight or three weeks from the time of the first picking, the shrubs are again covered with fresh leaves, and are ready for the second gathering, which is the most important of the season. The third and last gathering, which takes place as soon as new leaves are formed, produces a very inferior kind of tea, which is rarely sent out of the district. The mode of gathering and preparing the leaves of the tea plant is very simple. We have been so long accustomed to magnify and mystify everything relating to the Chinese, that, in all their arts and manufactures we expect to find some peculiar practice, when the fact is, that many operations in China are more simple in their character than in most other parts of the world. To rightly understand the process of rolling and drying the leaves, which I am about to describe, it must be borne in mind that the grand object is to expel the moisture, and at the same time to retain as much as possible of the aromatic and other desirable secretions of the species. The system adopted to attain this end is as simple as it is efficacious. In the harvest seasons, the natives are seen in little family groups on the side of every hill, when the weather is dry, engaged in gathering the tea leaves. They do not seem so particular as I imagined they would have been in this operation, but strip the leaves off rapidly and promiscuously, and throw them all into round baskets, made for the purpose out of split bamboo or ratan. In the beginning of May, when the principal gathering takes place, the young seed-vessels are about as large as peas. These are also stripped off and mixed with the leaves; it is these seed-vessels which we often see in our tea, and which has some slight resemblance to young capers. When a sufficient quantity of leaves are gathered, they are carried home to the cottage or barn, where the operation of drying is performed.”

This is minutely described, and the author continues:

“ I have stated that the plants grown in the district of Chekiang pro-

duce green teas, but it must not be supposed that they are the green teas which are exported to England. The leaf has a much more natural color, and has little or none of what we call the 'beautiful bloom' upon it, which is so much admired in Europe and America. There is now no doubt that all these 'blooming' green teas which are manufactured at Canton are dyed with Prussian blue and gypsum, to suit the taste of the foreign 'barbarians;' indeed the process may be seen any day, during the season, by those who give themselves the trouble to seek after it. It is very likely that the same ingredients are also used in dyeing the northern green teas for the foreign market; of this, however, I am not quite certain. There is a vegetable dye obtained from *Isatis indigotica* much used in the northern districts, and called *Teinsing*; and it is not unlikely that it may be the substance which is employed. The Chinese never use these dyed teas themselves, and I certainly think their taste in this respect is more correct than ours. It is not to be supposed that the dye used can produce any very bad effects upon the consumer, for, had this been the case, it would have been discovered before now; but if entirely harmless or inert, its being so must be ascribed to the very small quantity which is employed in the manufacture."

In short, the black and green teas which are generally exported to England and the United States from the northern provinces of China, are made from the same species; and the difference of color, flavor, &c., is solely the result of the different modes of preparation.

"The native names given to the various sorts of tea are derived from the most part from their appearance or place of growth; the names of many of the best kinds are not commonly known abroad. *Bohea* is the name of the Wu-i hills, (or Bu-i, as the people on the spot call them,) where the tea is grown, and not a term for a particular sort among the Chinese, though it is applied to a very poor kind of black tea at Canton. *Sunglo* is likewise a general term for the green teas produced on the hills in Ki-angsu. The names of the principal varieties of black tea are as follows: *Pecco*, 'white hairs,' so called from the whitish down on the young leaves, is one of the choicest kinds, and has a peculiar taste; *Orange Pecco*, called *shang hiang* or 'most fragrant,' differs from it slightly; *Hungmuey*, 'red plum blossoms,' has a slightly reddish tinge; the terms *prince's eyebrows*, *carnation hair*, *lotus kernel*, *sparrow's tongue*, *fir-leaf pattern*, *dragon's pellet*, and *dragon's whiskers*, are all translations of the native names of different kinds of Souchong or Pecco. *Souchong*, or *siau chung*, means *little plant* or sort, as *Pouchong*, or *folded sort*, refers to the mode of packing it; *Campoi* is corrupted from *kan pei*, i. e. carefully fired; *Chulan* is the tea scented with the chulan flower, and applied to some kinds of scented green tea. The names of green teas are less numerous: *Gunpowder*, or *ma chu*, i. e. hemp pearl, derives its name from the form into which the leaves are rolled; *ta chu*, or 'great pearl,' and *chu lan*, or 'pearl flower,' denote two kinds of *Imperial*; *Hyson*, or *yu tsien*, i. e. before the rains, originally denoted the tenderest leaves of the plant, and is now applied to *Young Hyson*; as is also another name, *mei pien*, or 'plum petals;' while *hi chun*, 'flourishing spring,' describes *Hyson*; *Twankay* is the name of a stream in Chehkiang, where this sort is produced; and *Hyson skin*, or *pi cha*, i. e. skin tea, is the poorest kind, the siftings of the other varieties; *Oolung*, 'black dragon,' is a kind of

black tea with green flavor. Ankoï teas are produced in the district of Ngankí, not far from Tsiuenchau fu, possessing a peculiar taste, supposed to be owing to the ferruginous nature of the soil. De Guignes speaks of the Pu-'rh tea, from the place in Kiangsu where it grows, and says it is cured from wild plants found there; the infusion is unpleasant, and used for medical purposes. The Mongols and others in the west of China prepare tea by pressing it, when fresh, into cakes like bricks, and thoroughly drying it in that shape to carry in their wanderings.

“Considering the enormous labor of preparing tea, it is surprising that even the poorest kind can be afforded to the foreign purchaser at Canton, more than a thousand miles from the place of its growth, for eighteen cents and less a pound; and in their ability to furnish it at this rate, the Chinese have a security of retaining the trade in their hands, notwithstanding the efforts to grow the plant elsewhere. Comparatively little adulteration is practised, if the amount used at home and abroad be considered, though the temptation is great, as the infusion of other plants is drunk instead of the true tea. The poorer natives substitute the leaves of a species of Rhamnus or Fallopiá, which they dry; Camellia leaves are perhaps mixed with it, but probably to no great extent. The refuse of packing-houses is sold to the poor at a low rate, under the names of tea endings and tea bones; and if a few of the rarest sorts do not go abroad, neither do the poorest. It is a necessary of life to all classes of Chinese, and that its use is not injurious is abundantly evident from its general acceptance and extending adoption; and the prejudice against it among some out of China may be attributed chiefly to the use of strong green tea, which is no doubt prejudicial. If those who have given it up on this account will adopt a weaker infusion of black tea, general experience is proof that it will do them no great harm, and they may be sure that they will not be so likely to be deceived by a colored article. Neither the Chinese nor Japanese use milk or sugar in their tea, and the peculiar taste and aroma of the infusion is much better perceived without those additions; nor can it be drunk so strong without tasting an unpleasant bitterness, which the milk partly hides. The Japanese sometimes reduce the leaves to a powder, and pour boiling water through them in a cullender, in the same way that coffee is often made.”

APPENDIX B.

Convention between the United States and Russia, signed at St. Petersburg on the 5th of April, 1824.

“ART. 1. It is agreed that in any part of the great ocean commonly called the Pacific ocean, or South sea, the respective citizens or subjects of the high contracting powers shall be neither disturbed nor restrained, either in navigation or in fishing, or in the power of resorting to the coasts, upon points which may not already have been occupied, for the purpose of trading with the natives; saving always the restrictions and conditions determined by the following articles:

“ART. 2. With the view of preventing the rights of navigation and of fishing, exercised upon the great ocean by the citizens and subjects of the high contracting powers, from becoming the pretext for an illicit

trade, it is agreed that the citizens of the United States shall not resort to any point where there is a Russian settlement without the permission of the governor or commander; and that, reciprocally, the subjects of Russia shall not resort without permission to any establishment of the United States upon the northwest coast.

“ART. 3. It is, moreover, agreed that hereafter there shall not be formed by the citizens of the United States, or under the authority of the said States, any establishments upon the northwest coast of America, nor in any of the islands adjacent, to the north of 54 degrees 40 minutes of north latitude; and that, in the same manner, there shall be none formed by Russian subjects, or under the authority of Russia, south of the same parallel.

“ART. 4. It is nevertheless understood that during a term of ten years, counting from the signature of the present convention, the ships of both powers, or which belong to their citizens or subjects, respectively, may reciprocally frequent, without any hindrance whatever, the interior seas, gulfs, harbors, and creeks upon the coast mentioned in the preceding article, for the purpose of fishing and trading with the natives of the country.

“ART. 5. All spirituous liquors, fire arms, other arms, powder, and munitions of war of every kind, are always excepted from this same commerce permitted by the preceding article; and the two powers engage, reciprocally, neither to sell, nor suffer them to be sold, to the natives by their respective citizens and subjects, nor by any person who may be under their authority. It is likewise stipulated, that this restriction shall never afford a pretext, nor be advanced in any case, to authorize either search or detention of the vessels, seizure of the merchandise, or, in fine, any measure of constraint whatever towards the merchants or the crews who may carry on this commerce; the high contracting powers reciprocally reserving to themselves to determine upon the penalties to be incurred, and to inflict the punishment in case of the contravention of this article by their respective citizens or subjects.”

APPENDIX C.

The following account of the shipwreck of the American whale ship *Lawrence*, Captain Baker, of Poughkeepsie, New York, upon rocks not laid down on any chart, lying within about three degrees of the Kurile Islands, is contained in a letter of George How, second mate of the ship, dated at Batavia, 28th December, 1847, published in the “Singapore Free Press” of the 6th January, 1848:

“The *Lawrence*, under the command of Captain Baker, sailed from the port of Poughkeepsie, New York, on the 10th July, 1845, bound on a whaling voyage. On the 27th May, 1846, in latitude $44^{\circ} 30'$ north, longitude 153° east, in the vicinity of the Japan islands, we encountered a heavy gale, at which time we had a whale alongside, and kept the ship drifting free.* At about 10 or 11 o'clock at night she struck on some rocks, and immediately fell over on her starboard side and bilged. Captain Baker then ordered his boat to be lowered, and taking some men with him, got into the boat, saying, as he left the ship's side, “each man for him-

self," or some other words to that effect. It was very dark at the time, and after he left the ship I saw nothing more of him. The first mate, Mr. Myers, then attempted to lower his boat with eight men in her, in doing which he accidentally slipped the bow tackle, which plunged her bows under water; and on the boat coming up under the counter, she was stove to pieces, and all except one man, whom I saved, must have perished. I could hear their cries in the water, but could not see any of them, as it was so dark. I then got the remaining boat ready and left the ship with seven men, who, I think, were all that were left of the crew. We took with us a little bread and water, and some harpoons and cordage, and steered about southwest. On the second day all the water and food we had were consumed, and from that day to our making the land we had nothing to subsist on. It snowed all the time, and we had hardly any covering on our bodies to protect us from the piercing cold. One of the men, named Hiram Yates, who was sick when he left the vessel, died on the third day, and we buried him in the sea. At last, on the 3d June we perceived land, for which we steered, and entered into a large bay where we could discover no marks of any human being. We landed and caught a seal, the meat of which we cooked and ate together with some grass we found near the beach. It was the only food we had tasted since the last four days. We then strolled along the beach, leaving one man to take care of the boat; and striking inland for about a mile, we came to a bamboo cottage, with a river running between it and us. We hailed repeatedly, but nothing made its appearance. We then sat down for about an hour, expecting to see somebody go in or out of the house; but as this did not happen, and it was getting dark, we returned to the boat. The man we had left in her told us that during our absence he had been visited by two men, whom he invited to come and sit with him, but they refused to do so. They then inquired of him, by signs, how many of us there were; and on his intimating to them our number, they appeared frightened and ran away.

"The next morning we got into the boat and steered for the mouth of a river on one side of the bay. As we approached it we saw what appeared to us to be a fort, with spears glistening in the sun above the walls; but on coming nearer we found it was a piece of cloth, extending about three-quarters of a mile, and painted so as to represent a fort with guns. Here, as we landed, about 60 men, armed with swords and spears, ran towards us and motioned us to go away. We, however, continued approaching them until we got very near, when we all fell on our knees before them. One of them came up to me and would have struck me down with his sword, but his hand was held back by an old man who stood behind him. I made signs to them that we were harmless people and wanted food. After much talking amongst themselves, they brought us some rice and fish, which we ate. They then again motioned us to be off. I took them to our boat and made signs to them that it was impossible for us to go to sea in such a small thing, and that if they would give us the materials for building a larger one, we would go away in it. On this there was another consultation amongst them, and one of them wrote something on a piece of paper and sent a man away with it. In about half an hour he returned with a letter, which was read aloud by one of them, and we were then ordered to get into our boat again, after being searched and deprived of everything we had about us. They then got another boat to tow ours up

the river, along which we proceeded in this way until we got into a lake, on one side of which stood a house covered all round with mats, which we were made to enter. We remained in it until night, when they came again with lanterns and ordered us to follow them, motioning to us that if we endeavored to go in any other direction we would be killed. We followed them on foot for 3 or 4 hours until we came to a town, where we were introduced into a brick building that appeared to us to be the prison of the town. They then locked us all up in a small cell, and kept a vigilant watch over us the whole of the night. In the morning we were unfolded and led to the house of the governor, where we were questioned and examined, and asked if we were Englishmen, after which they led us again to our prison. Not a day passed without our being examined and questioned regarding our country, religion, and every other particular that could be thought of. They made themselves understood to us by signs, and principally by drawings on paper, at which they were very expert. In this prison we continued for about 11 months, and not once did we see a single foot out of it during that time. Every day we had an allowance of rice, fish, and water, and once they gave us a sort of liquor called sakie. We drank it, and it naturally revived us and made us feel a little more cheerful; they then again examined us and took down our depositions in writing, thinking, perhaps, that under the influence of the liquor we would give them whatever information we had before endeavored to suppress. About this time all the men, with myself, fell sick; and what with this, the miserable situation we were in, and the bad treatment we met with from our guards, who frequently struck us and insulted us in every possible way they could, we gave up all hopes of ever getting out of our prisons alive. We got better, however, and were informed that we had to go on to Jeddo, where the Emperor lived. They put us on board of a junk and allowed us all in the hold—a dark, filthy place; and during the time we were in her, some 3 or 4 months, not a single moment were we allowed to step on deck to breath the fresh air, or see the light.

One day we were made to wash ourselves, and clean clothes were given us, and we were conducted into the cabin, which was beautifully fitted up with silk and gold ornaments. They then gave us each a carpet to sit upon, and made us understand that we had arrived at a city called Matsamai, where the Emperor's son lived, and that he was coming on board to see us. By and bye we heard a great stir outside, and all the people about us fell on their faces to the ground, and we were made to do the same. Shortly after, the prince entered the cabin, accompanied by a numerous suite. We were then again examined before him; and this time the questions were put to us by a Japanese who spoke Dutch, and who communicated with us through one of our men, Murphy Wells, who also spoke a little Dutch. This lasted for about an hour, after which the prince departed, and in the evening we received a box of sweetmeats, which they said was from him. He is a very young man, of handsome appearance, and on the whole seemed kindly disposed towards us. The next day we continued on our voyage, and were again left to the mercy of our sailors. We then arrived at another city, when we were each put into a box, the lid of which was fastened down upon us, and in this way we were carried to the town-hall. Here we underwent another examination, the questions being put to us by the same interpreter who acted in that capacity at Matsamai. Their chief object in this, as in all the examina-

tions we went through, was to find out whether we were not really Englishmen; and I am of opinion that had we confessed ourselves of that nation, we would all have been killed. The interpreter told us to beware how we tried to mislead them, as they would find out who we were when we got to Nagasaki. They then brought a box from which they took out a print of the crucifixion, and told us to put our feet upon it. On our hesitating to do so, the guards drew out their swords and threatened to kill us, and so compelled every one of us to trample on the print, and spit upon it. A couple of epaulets were then shown to us—one an English naval officer's, and one an American—and we were asked which of them belonged to our country. After this we were again conducted to prison. One day we were again summoned to the town-hall, where we were surprised to see a man in European dress sitting amongst our judges. He took no notice of us at first, but sat writing and talking to the Japanese. At last he addressed us in Dutch, to which we did not reply; then in French, which we also did not understand. He then spoke English, and said: 'If there are any John Bulls amongst you, you had better not say anything about it.' He then interrogated us concerning our country, our religion, and the circumstances relative to our shipwreck, &c. &c., all which were again interpreted to the Japanese, and noted down in writing by them. He then told us he had some hopes we would all be set at liberty. The council then broke up, and we were taken again to prison. At this place one of the men tried to escape from prison, and was inhumanly murdered by the Japanese. He had made known his intentions to us previously, and we did all we could to dissuade him from it, but to no purpose, as he said he would rather die than suffer so much any longer. At last, after seventeen months in all of close and strict confinement, privation, and ill-treatment, we were liberated and sent to the Dutch factory. Here we were received by the director of the factory, Mr. Levyssohn, in whom we recognised the European who interrogated us at the town-hall, and to whose active and humane exertions we were indebted for our release: not only for this, but also for the kind, generous, and hospitable treatment we met with at his hands during the rest of our stay in Japan, are we under deep and lasting obligations to him.

"Ten days after, we were put on board the Dutch ship *Hertogenbosch*. Here we received the best possible treatment and attention until our arrival here, when we were handed over by the authorities to the United States consul, who, although in a very weak state of health, extended his protection towards us, and furnished us with a few articles of clothing, &c., we were so much in need of; for all which we feel extremely grateful.

"Your obedient servant,

"GEORGE HOW,

"*Second mate of the late ship Lawrence,*

"*for self and fellow-sufferers.*"

The inhospitable and rigorous treatment of those shipwrecked American seamen by the Japanese, is in striking contrast with the philanthropy and kindness displayed by Captain Mercator Cooper, of the American whale ship *Manhattau*, in rescuing twenty-two Japanese mariners from a desert island and sinking junk, and making a considerable deviation from his voyage to land them at Yedo, the 17th of April, 1845; for which he

received the thanks of the Siogoon, and marked attentions of the high officers of his court, together with abundant supplies of wood, water, and provisions, free of charge, as stated in the before mentioned document, No. 96, H. R.

The "New Bedford Mercury" of the 16th May, 1848, contains the following account of the rescue of the crews of two Japanese junks in 1847, and the new whale fishery opened in the Japan seas; extracted from the "Polynesian" of the 25th December, 1847:

The whale ship *Frances Henrietta*, Captain Poole, of this port, fell in with, at sea, in May, latitude 42° north, longitude 150° east, a Japanese junk of 200 tons, dismasted, rudder gone, and otherwise injured in a typhoon *seven months previous*. The original number of the crew was seventeen, but when Captain Poole discovered them they were reduced to four, and in a famishing condition. The crew had drawn lots for some time past as to who should be killed and eaten; the one upon whom the lot fell, if able, fighting for his life, and in some instances succeeded in killing one of the others, in which case the murdered man was first eaten. The survivors were shockingly scarred with dirk and knife wounds, as if their lives had been often attempted by their companions. Captain Poole kept them on board his ship for thirty days, and then put them on board some fishing boats, close in shore, about latitude 40° north. They were exceedingly grateful, and manifested much emotion on leaving the whaler. The junk had not much of a cargo on board, or was in such a disgusting condition that the crew of the *Frances Henrietta* did not like to examine her minutely. They obtained, however, a number of interesting curiosities, such as books, idols, swords, pictures, fans, boxes, china ware, boxes of tools, &c., &c.

The Bremen ship *Otaheite*, Captain Wieting, had previously picked up another Japanese junk, relieved the distressed crew, and taken to Honolulu several thousand dollars worth of her cargo, which was sold at auction at that place, December 8th, and brought good prices, the sales realizing about \$1,300, exclusive of twelve thousand pounds of beeswax, which was reserved to be sent to Europe. The *Polynesian* says:

"The junk's cargo appeared to consist of 'notions,' and the samples of Japanese merchandise were sufficient to show that they have many articles that could be profitably exported, and that their own skill and comfort could be materially increased by a foreign trade. Some copper, brass hoop, iron and iron wire, white lead, glue, ginger, and cinnamon, were of excellent quality. Their wrought copper utensils resemble in design and shape the metallic and earthen manufactures of the Mexicans and Peruvians of the 15th century; while their tools, although made of good iron and steel, are simple enough in construction to provoke the merriment of the greenest son of New England."

The *Polynesian* alludes to the landing at Japan, in April, 1847, of Capt. Jackson, of the whale ship *Inez*, of this port, under more favorable auspices than had before been allowed. The Japanese appeared friendly, offered to supply him with wood and water, but would permit no further intercourse and desired his departure; and it thinks the signs of the times are threatening to the exclusive policy which has been so rigidly maintained hitherto by the Japanese government.

"England, France, and the United States ardently desire to effect a

breach in this policy. They perhaps have too high a sense of national honor to do this by mere force of arms, but circumstances now appear to be preparing the way for their intervention in some shape. We believe the whaling fleet are destined to do something in this cause. A new fishery has been opened in the Japanese seas. Hundreds of enterprising whalers will the ensuing season cruise in all directions about their shores and in the bays in search of their game. The Japanese have no naval force to enforce respect to their inter-channel rights. The doctrine of a closed sea, however much they may desire to see preserved, they are powerless to enforce. The whalers will be tempted to land for wood, water, provisions, &c. Stress of weather, or some other contingency, may force some ashore. In this way some intercourse must be established. Humanity or necessity will demand it. Will the Japanese refuse? If they continue their policy of gratuitous hospitality, their patience may become exhausted at the increasing demands upon it, or their avidity may be awakened to receive something in return. If they abuse those who may thus be placed within their power, they afford the pretext which is so eagerly desired for interference on the part of some foreign power. If they commence trading in any way, the door for innovation is opened, and it will never be closed. Junks in distress will undoubtedly be met with by whalers. In case of such an event, we hope the master will have public spirit enough to carry the crew, with as much of the merchandise as he can save, to its port of destination. Such honorable conduct will favorably impress the Japanese, and we feel sure the master who thus acts will not suffer in his interests by so doing. The Japanese merchants will appreciate the deed, and through them the government may become more lenient. If they should decline to receive the rescued property or to pay a fair salvage, the master will then have a perfect right to it. But such a course cannot do otherwise than create a kindly feeling towards whale ships, and they may have occasion, cruising as they will in a comparatively unknown and dangerous sea, to require similar generosity at the hands of the Japanese. At all events, we hope masters of whale ships will lose no opportunity of favorably impressing the Japanese in regard to the respective nations they represent, and that they will make note of all information they can procure. Capt. Jackson's example in both these respects is deserving of commendation. We have not a doubt that if he should by chance drop into the same bay again, his old friends would secretly be rejoiced to see him. From his journal, they evidently were pleased to leave him there, but were afraid of their own government, and consequently made known to him, with courtesy, their wishes that he might leave.

“It would be good policy for the United States, England, and France, to keep each a national vessel cruising in Japanese waters while the whaling fleet is there. Their presence might be productive of good to both parties and they would familiarize the Japanese with the sight of their flags.”

APPENDIX D.

The very able and interesting “Geographical Memoir upon Upper California, in illustration of his map of Oregon and California, by John Charles Frémont, printed by order of the Senate, June 5, 1848,” con-

tains much new and valuable information respecting the productive resources of that territory, derived from his various topographical surveys in the valleys of the Sacramento and San Joaquin, and the western slope of the Sierra Nevada. It is to be hoped that Congress, in view of Colonel Frémont's eminent qualifications and the great utility of his labors to the country, in illustrating the geography and topography of our territorial possessions on the Pacific, will enable him "to complete a map of Oregon and California, with topographical and descriptive maps of their most valuable parts, and a general map of the whole from the Mississippi river to the Pacific ocean."

The following extracts are taken from his memoir:

"*Western slope of the Sierra Nevada.*—The western flank of this Sierra belongs to the maritime region of California, and is capable of adding greatly to its value. It is a long wide slope, timbered and grassy, with intervals of arable land, copiously watered with numerous and bold streams, and without the cold which its name and altitude might imply. In length it is the whole extent of the long valley at its base, five hundred miles. In breadth, it is from forty to seventy miles from the summit of the mountain to the termination of the foot hills in the edge of the valleys below, and almost the whole of it available for some useful purpose—timber, pasturage, some arable land, mills, quarries—and so situated as to be convenient for use, the wide slope of the mountain being of easy and practicable descent. Timber holds the first place in the advantages of this slope, the whole being heavily wooded, first with oaks, which predominate to about half the elevation of the mountain; and then with pines, cypress, and cedars, the pines predominating; and hence called the pine region, as that below is called the oak region, though mixed with other trees. The highest summits of the Sierra are naked, massive granite rock, covered with snow, in sheltered places, all the year round. The oaks are several varieties of white and black oak, and evergreens, some of them resembling live oak. Of the white oak there are some new species, attaining a handsome elevation, upon a stem six feet in diameter. Acorns of uncommon size, and not bad taste, used regularly for food by the Indians, abound on these trees, and will be of great value for stock. The cypress, pine, and cedar are between 100 and 250 feet high, and five to twelve feet in diameter, with clean solid stems. Grass abounds on almost all parts of the slope, except towards the highest summits, and is fresh and green all the year round, being neither killed by cold in the winter, nor dried by want of rain in the summer. The foot hills of the slope are sufficiently fertile and gentle to admit of good settlements; while valleys, coves, beaches, and meadows of arable land are found throughout. Many of the numerous streams, some of them amounting to considerable rivers, which flow down the mountain side, make handsome fertile valleys. All these streams furnish good water power. The climate in the lower part of the slope is that of constant spring, while above the cold is not in proportion to the elevation."

"*Bay of San Francisco and dependent country.*—The bay of San Francisco has been celebrated, from the time of its first discovery, as one of the finest in the world, and is justly entitled to that character even under the seaman's view of a mere harbor. But when all the accessory advantages which belong to it—fertile and picturesque dependent country; mildness and salubrity of climate; connexion with the great interior valley of the Sacramento and San Joaquin; its vast resources for ship timber, grain and

cattle—when these advantages are taken into the account, with its geographical position on the line of communication with Asia, it rises into an importance far above that of a mere harbor, and deserves a particular notice in any account of maritime California. Its latitudinal position is that of Lisbon; its climate is that of southern Italy; settlements upon it for more than half a century attest its healthiness; bold shores and mountains give it grandeur; the extent and fertility of its dependent country give it great resources for agriculture, commerce, and population.

“The bay of San Francisco is separated from the sea by low mountain ranges. Looking from the peaks of the Sierra Nevada, the coast mountains present an apparently continuous line, with only a single gap, resembling a mountain pass. This is the entrance to the great bay, and is the only water communication from the coast to the interior country. Approaching from the sea, the coast presents a bold outline. On the south, the bordering mountains come down in a narrow ridge of broken hills, terminating in a precipitous point, against which the sea breaks heavily. On the northern side, the mountain presents a bold promontory, rising in a few miles to a height of two or three thousand feet. Between these points is the strait—about one mile broad in the narrowest part, and five miles long from the sea to the bay. Passing through this gate,* the bay opens to the right and left, extending in each direction about 35 miles, having a total length of more than 70, and a coast of about 275 miles. It is divided, by straits and projecting points, into three separate bays, of which the northern two are called San Pablo and Suisoon bays. Within, the view presented is of a mountainous country, the bay resembling an interior lake of deep water, lying between parallel ranges of mountains. Islands, which have the bold character of the shores—some mere masses of rock, and others grass covered, rising to the height of three and eight hundred feet—break its surface, and add to its picturesque appearance. Directly fronting the entrance, mountains a few miles from the shore rise about 2,000 feet above the water, crowned by a forest of the lofty *cy-press*, which is visible from the sea, and makes a conspicuous landmark for vessels entering the bay. Behind, the rugged peak of *Mount Diablo*, nearly 4,000 feet high, (3,770,) overlooks the surrounding country of the bay and San Joaquin. The immediate shore of the bay derives, from its proximate and opposite relation to the sea, the name of *contra costa* (counter-coast, or opposite coast.) It presents a varied character of rugged and broken hills, rolling and undulating land, and rich alluvial shores backed by fertile and wooded ranges, suitable for towns, villages, and farms, with which it is beginning to be dotted. A low alluvial bottom land, several miles in breadth, with occasional open woods of oak, borders the foot of the mountains around the southern arm of the bay, terminating on a breadth of twenty miles in the fertile valley of St. Joseph, a narrow plain of rich soil, lying between ranges from two to three thousand feet high. The valley is openly wooded with groves of oak, free from underbrush, and after the spring rains covered with grass. Taken in connexion with the valley of San Juan, with which it forms a continu-

* Called *Chrysopylae* (golden gate) on the map, on the same principle that the harbor of *Byzantium* (Constantinople afterwards) was called *Chrysoceras* (golden horn.) The form of the harbor, and its advantages for commerce, (and that before it became an entrepot of eastern commerce,) suggested the name to the Greek founders of Byzantium. The form of the entrance into the bay of San Francisco, and its advantages for commerce, (Asiatic inclusive,) suggest the name which is given to this entrance.

ous plain, it is fifty-five miles long and one to twenty broad, opening into smaller valleys among the hills. At the head of the bay it is twenty miles broad, and about the same at the southern end, where the soil is beautifully fertile, covered in summer with four or five varieties of wild clover several feet high. In many places it is overgrown with wild mustard, growing ten or twelve feet high, in almost impenetrable fields, through which roads are made like lanes. On both sides the mountains are fertile, wooded, or covered with grasses and scattered trees. On the west it is protected from the chilling influence of the northwest winds by the *cuesta de los gatos*, (wild-cat ridge,) which separates it from the coast. This is a grassy and timbered mountain, watered with small streams, and wooded on both sides with many varieties of trees and shrubbery, the heavier forests of pine and cypress occupying the western slope. Timber and shingles are now obtained from this mountain; and one of the recently discovered quicksilver mines is on the eastern side of the mountain, near the Pueblo of San José. This range terminates on the south in the *Anno Nuevo* point of Monterey bay, and on the north declines into a ridge of broken hills about five miles wide, between the bay and the sea, and having the town of San Francisco on the bay shore, near its northern extremity.

“ Sheltered from the cold winds and fogs of the sea, and having a soil of remarkable fertility, the valley of St. Joseph (San José) is capable of producing in great perfection many fruits and grains which do not thrive on the coast in its immediate vicinity. Without taking into consideration the extraordinary yields which have sometimes occurred, the fair average product of wheat is estimated at fifty fold, or fifty for one sown. The mission establishments of *Santa Clara* and *San José*, in the north end of the valley, were formerly, in the prosperous days of the missions, distinguished for the superiority of their wheat crops.

“ The slope of alluvial land continues entirely around the eastern shore of the bay, intersected by small streams, and offering some points which good landing and deep water, with advantageous positions between the sea and interior country, indicate for future settlements.

“ The strait of *Carquines*, about one mile wide and eight or ten fathoms deep, connects the San Pablo and Suisoon bays. Around these bays smaller valleys open into the bordering country, and some of the streams have a short launch navigation, which serves to convey produce to the bay. Missions and large farms were established at the head of navigation on these streams, which are favorable sites for towns or villages. The country around the Suisoon bay presents smooth low ridges and rounded hills, clothed with wild oats, and more or less openly wooded on their summits. Approaching its northern shores from *Sonoma* it assumes, though in a state of nature, a cultivated and beautiful appearance. Wild oats cover it in continuous fields, and herds of cattle and bands of horses are scattered over low hills and partly isolated ridges, where blue mists and openings among the abruptly terminating hills indicate the neighborhood of the bay.

“ The *Suisoon* is connected with an expansion of the river formed by the junction of the Sacramento and San Joaquin, which enter the Francisco bay in the same latitude, nearly, as the mouth of the Tagus at Lisbon. A delta of twenty-five miles in length, divided into islands by deep channels, connects the bay with the valley of the San Joaquin and Sacra-

mento, into the mouths of which the tide flows, and which enter the bay together as one river.

“Such is the bay, and the proximate country and shores of the bay of San Francisco. It is not a mere indentation of the coast, but a little sea to itself, connected with the ocean by a defensible gate, opening out between seventy and eighty miles to the right and left, upon a breadth of ten to fifteen, deep enough for the largest ships, with bold shores suitable for towns and settlements, and fertile adjacent country for cultivation. The head of the bay is about forty miles from the sea, and there commences its connexion with the noble valleys of the San Joaquin and Sacramento.

“*Coast country north of the bay of San Francisco.*—Between the Sacramento valley and the coast, north of the bay of San Francisco, the country is broken into mountain ridges and rolling hills, with many very fertile valleys, made by lakes and small streams. In the interior it is wooded, generally with oak, and immediately along the coast presents open prairie lands, among heavily timbered forests, having a greater variety of trees, and occasionally a larger growth than the timbered region of the Sierra Nevada. In some parts it is entirely covered, in areas of many miles, with a close growth of wild oats, to the exclusion of almost every other plant. In the latter part of June and beginning of July, we found here a climate sensibly different from that of the Sacramento valley, a few miles east, being much cooler and moister. In clear weather the mornings were like those of the Rocky mountains in August, pleasant and cool, following cold clear nights. In that part lying nearer the coast, we found the mornings sometimes cold, accompanied with chilling winds; and fogs frequently came rolling up over the ridges from the sea. These sometimes rose at evening, and continued until noon of the next day. They are not dry, but wet mists, leaving the face of the country covered as by a drizzling rain. This sometimes causes rust in wheat grown within its influence, but vegetables flourish and attain extraordinary size.

“I learned from Captain Smith, a resident at *Bodega*, that the winter months make a delightful season—rainy days (generally of warm showers) alternating with mild and calm, pleasant weather, and pure bright skies—much preferable to the summer, when the fogs and strong northwest winds, which prevail during the greater part of the year, make the morning part of the day disagreeably cold.

“Owing probably to the fogs, spring is earlier along the coast than in the interior, where, during the intervals between the rains, the ground becomes very dry. Flowers bloom in December, and by the beginning of February grass acquires a strong and luxuriant growth, and fruit trees (peach, pear, apple, &c.) are covered with blossoms. In situations immediately open to the sea the fruit ripens late, generally at the end of August, being retarded by the chilling influence of the northwest winds: a short distance inland, where intervening ridges obstruct these winds and shelter the face of the country, there is a different climate and a remarkable difference in the time of ripening fruits; the heat of the sun has full influence on the soil, and vegetation goes rapidly to perfection.

“The country in July began to present the dry appearance common to all California as the summer advances, except along the northern coast within the influence of the fogs, or where the land is sheltered by forests, and in the moist valleys of streams and coves of the hills. In some of these was an uncommonly luxuriant growth of oats, still partially green,

while elsewhere they were dried up; the face of the country presenting generally a mellow and ripened appearance, and the small streams beginning to lose their volume, and draw up into the hills.

“This northern part of the coast country is heavily timbered, more so as it goes north to the Oregon boundary, (42°), with many bold streams falling directly into the sea.”

“The climate of maritime California is greatly modified by the structure of the country, and under this aspect may be considered in three divisions: the *southern*, below point Concepcion and the Santa Barbara mountain, about latitude 35° ; the *northern*, from cape Mendocino, latitude 41° , to the Oregon boundary; and the *middle*, including the bay and basin of San Francisco and the coast between point Concepcion and cape Mendocino. Of these three divisions the rainy season is longest and heaviest in the north, and lightest in the south. Vegetation is governed accordingly—coming with the rains—decaying where they fail. Summer and winter, in our sense of the terms, are not applicable to this part of the country. It is not heat and cold, but wet and dry, which mark the seasons; and the winter months, instead of killing vegetation, revive it. The dry season makes a period of consecutive drought, the only winter in the vegetation of this country, which can hardly be said at any time to cease. In forests, where the soil is sheltered; in low lands of streams and hilly country, where the ground remains moist, grass continues constantly green and flowers bloom in all the months of the year. In the southern half of the country the long summer drought has rendered irrigation necessary, and the experience of the missions, in their prosperous day, has shown that in California, as elsewhere, the driest plains are made productive, and the heaviest crops produced, by that mode of cultivation. With irrigation a succession of crops may be produced throughout the year. Salubrity and a regulated mildness characterize the climate; there being no prevailing diseases, and the extremes of heat during the summer being checked by sea breezes during the day, and by light airs from the Sierra Nevada during the night. The nights are generally cool and refreshing, as is the shade during the hottest day.

“California, below the Sierra Nevada, is about the extent of Italy, geographically considered in all the extent of Italy from the Alps to the termination of the peninsula. It is of the same length, about the same breadth, consequently the same area, (about one hundred thousand square miles,) and presents much similarity of climate and productions. Like Italy, it lies north and south, and presents some differences of climate and productions, the effect of difference of latitude, proximity of high mountains, and configuration of the coast. Like Italy, it is a country of mountains and valleys: different from it in its internal structure, it is formed for *unity*; its large rivers being concentric, and its large valleys appurtenant to the great central bay of San Francisco, within the area of whose waters the denominating power must be found.

“Geographically, the position of this California is one of the best in the world; lying on the coast of the Pacific, fronting Asia, on the line of an American road to Asia, and possessed of advantages to give full effect to its grand geographical position.”

APPENDIX E.

The States of Central America are Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, and San Salvador: they are divided into forty eight *partidos*, or districts, having each of them a capital. Besides these capitals, the number of towns and villages in the whole republic amounts to two hundred and fifty-three.

The following table will give the names of the districts, their capitals, and their produce.

The State of Guatemala is divided into thirteen districts, viz :

Districts.	Capitals.	Produce.
Zacatepeque - -	Guatemala-nueva - -	Cochineal, cotton, common cloth, fruits.
Chimaltenango - -	Chimaltenango - -	
Solola - - - -	Solola - - - -	Wheat, maize, European fruits.
Totonicapan - -	Totonicapan - -	Cattle.
Gueguetenango - -	Gueguetenango - -	Goat hair, with which they manufacture stuffs and garments; wheat, ware, guitars, wooden tools, &c. &c.
Guesaltenango - -	Guesaltenango - -	
Suchiltepéque - -	Mazatenango - -	The same produce as Totonicapan; it has also lead mines.
Escuintla - - -	Escuintla - - -	Idem.
Chiquimula - -	Chiquimula - -	Cocoa, cotton, cattle, timber, &c.
San Augustin - -	San Augustin - -	Indigo, cattle, cotton.
Vera-Paz - - -	Cohan - - - -	Gold and silver mines, cattle, horses, mules, indigo, cotton.
Salama - - - -	Salama - - - -	
Peten - - - -	Remedios - - -	The same as at Chiquimula; cocoa, wheat, &c. &c.
		Sugar-cane, spices, cotton, linen manufactures, dyewoods.
		Sugar and sarsaparilla.
		Timber of all sorts.

The State of San Salvador is divided into three districts, viz :

San Salvador - -	San Salvador - -	Indigo, cochineal, cocoa, balms, saffron, cattle, cotton, cloth, saddlery, bridles of horses gilt, palm-nuts, fruits, sugar, and tobacco.
Zonzonate - - -	Zonzonate - - -	
San Miguel - -	San Miguel - -	Cotton, wheat, cloth, indigo, cattle, hats, sugar, matting, artificial flowers made of shells, the exportation of which to Peru and Chili amounts yearly to £10,000.
San Vincente - -	San Vincente - -	Indigo, cochineal, cotton, leather, netting, hammocks, sacks made of aloes, gold and silver mines.
		The same produce as at San Miguel.

The State of Honduras is divided into twelve districts, viz :

Districts.	Capitals.	Produce.
Comayagua - -	Comayagua - -	} Gold, silver, copper, and iron mines.
Tegucigalpa - -	Tegucigalpa - -	
Choluteca - -	Choluteca - -	Same produce.
Macaome - -	Macaome - -	Same produce.
Cantaranas - -	Cantaranas - -	Same produce.
Juticalpa - -	Juticalpa - -	Same produce.
Gracias - -	Gracias - -	} Wheat, sugar, indigo, tobacco, precious stones.
Los Llanos - -	Los Llanos - -	
Santa Barbara - -	Santa Barbara - -	Tobacco, &c. &c.
Truxillo - -	Truxillo - -	Same produce.
Lloro - -	Lloro - -	Same produce.
Segobia or Somoto	Segobia, or Somoto	} Naphtha, tobacco, cattle, and silver mines.

The State of Nicaragua is divided into eight districts, viz :

Leon - - -	Leon - - -	Indigo, timber, cattle, &c.
Grenada - -	Grenada - -	Same as above, and cocoa.
Managua - -	Managua - -	Ditto.
Realejo - -	Realejo - -	Ditto.
Sutiaba - -	Sutiaba - -	Ditto.
Massaya - -	Massaya - -	Ditto, and manufactured hats.
Nicaragua - -	Nicaragua - -	Ditto, cocoa, &c.
Matagalpa - -	Matagalpa - -	Wheat and cattle.

The State of Costa Rica is divided into eight districts, viz :

San Jose - - -	San Jose - - -	} The State of Costa Rica possesses gold, silver, and copper mines.
Cartago - - -	Cartago - - -	
Ujarras - - -	Ujarras - - -	
Borrica - - -	Borrica - - -	
Iscan - - -	Iscan - - -	
Alajuela - - -	Alajuela - - -	
Eredia - - -	Eredia - - -	
Bogases - - -	Bogases - - -	

I am indebted to the kindness of my friend Señor Ygnacio Gomez, now minister plenipotentiary of the State of Central America to the Holy See, for the following account of the ports of that republic on the Pacific.

“ Ports of Central America on the Pacific ocean, from south to north, or rather from southwest to northeast.

“ PUNTA ARENAS. It belongs to the State of Costa Rica. It consists of an inner and an outer harbor. The first is only accessible for vessels not drawing above eight or nine feet water; the second is well sheltered from the winds by two islands, which also shelter it from the swell. The anchorage is good, though all cargoes must be taken from and on board by

boats a pretty good distance; large vessels remaining one or two miles off the landing places.

“Costa Rica has another port on the Pacific, CALDERAS. It is a remarkably good harbor, well situated and safe; but the government ordered the custom-house and officers, some time since, to remove to Punta Arenas, on the northeast side, on account of the unhealthy climate of Calderas.

“There is also the port of TERCOLAS, higher up the bay, where it is now thought to move the port. It possesses signal advantages, a very convenient harbor, and a fertile territory, and is nearer the capital of the State.

“All these ports are south, but near the celebrated coast of *Nicoya*, where pearl fisheries have long existed and where pearls are abundant: a beautiful, picturesque, and fertile country, full of rich valleys, watered by numerous streams, and where population is only wanting to make it one of the happiest and most prosperous regions in the world. On this coast is *San Juan del Sur*, and other harbors.

“The next port northward on the Pacific is REALEJO. It belongs to the State of Nicaragua. It is a good and safe harbor, and there is a sufficient depth of water for vessels to come within half a mile of the city. In the time of the Spanish government several vessels, some even of 500 tons, were built at Realejo, which has better and more durable wood, and affords facilities for shipbuilding superior to Guayaquil, or any other arsenal in the Pacific.

“LA UNION, or (as it was formerly named) *Conchagua*, follows. It belongs to the State of San Salvador, and is one of the most magnificent seaports in the world. It is a most beautiful bay, its entrance and the scenery around being of the wildest and most picturesque that can be imagined. It possesses anchorage from three to twelve fathoms of water, free from shoals and perfectly well protected from all winds, being about $3\frac{1}{2}$ leagues in diameter and 10 or 11 in extent. It is surrounded on three sides by high land, and the entrance is protected by several beautiful islands, with many deep and safe channels. It is considered the best harbor we possess.

“Coal may be easily obtained here, there being abundant mines of it some 25 or 30 miles distant, or perhaps less, through level roads, where seams of it are to be seen.

“The State of San Salvador possesses also, north of *Conchagua*, or (as it is now called) *La Union*, the port of *La Libertad*. It is the nearest to the capital of the State, but not a very safe harbor.

“It possesses, moreover, the port of ACAJUTLA, also known on some maps by the name of *Sonsonate*, because it stands near the town of this name. It was a place of importance in the time of the Spanish government, and possesses some excellent buildings. The port is sheltered by a neck of land protecting it from the westerly swell; the beach is nevertheless bathed by a strong surf, which requires some care to prevent ordinary boats from being swamped.

“This port, *Realejo*, and *Union*, are naturally good, and might be made the best ports in the world with but a trifling expense. Still, such as they are, they are superior to Valparaiso, Callao, Rio Janeiro, and many others which are a good deal frequented on the American coast, and as good as any in the known world.

Ocos and *Yztapa* are the last of the ports of Central America on the South sea; but they are inferior to the former named, and cannot be denominated very good ports, being, like *Libertad*, little more than open roadsteads. They are the only ports the State of Guatimala possesses on the Pacific ocean. *Yztapa* is the place where Alvarado (the Spanish conqueror) built his flotilla and sailed with troops to Peru, in 1525-'28.

“WASHINGTON, December 24, 1847.

“Y. G.”

“I forgot to mention the port of *SAN LORENZO*, a new settlement on the opposite side of the bay of Conchagua. It is safe and of easy access, and belongs to the State of Honduras. The coal mines, before alluded to, are nearer to *San Lorenzo*, or quite as near as they are to the port of *La Union*, and cargoes are admitted free, as a premium or temptation to all vessels visiting said port of Honduras.

“The situation of the aboved-named ports is as follows, or pretty nearly: Commencing on the most northerly part of the southwest coast, the first is *Ocos*. A little below is *Yztapa*. Some 45 leagues to the eastward is the port of *Acajutla*. Twenty or twenty-two leagues further along the coast is *La Libertad*. Eight or ten leagues further to the eastward is the bay of Conchagua, at the head of which, on the west side, is the port of *La Union*. On the opposite side is *San Lorenzo*. A few leagues southwest of the Conchagua bay is *Realejo*. Fifty or fifty-five leagues to the eastward of this port is that of *San Juan del Sur*, to which place it was proposed to bring the canal connecting the two oceans. Along this coast (the rich Nicoya coast) there are many creeks which would make most convenient ports; but the only ones made use of are *Punta Arenas* and *Caldera* to the southwest.

“*Ocos*, *Yztapa*, and *Libertad*, might be made safe harbors with but a breakwater and a wharf; the rest are naturally good ports, especially *Realejo* and *Union*.

“Y. G.”

APPENDIX F.

THE ALEUTIAN ISLANDS.

The Aleutian islands derive their name from the Russian word *aleut*, which signifies a “bold rock.” The group is situated in the North Pacific ocean, between cape Alaska in North America, and the peninsula of Kamtschatka in Asia; describing a circular arc which extends from 163° of west to 166° of east longitude, comprehending 31° of longitude. The islands which form the two extremities of the chain, viz: Oonemak, which is separated by a narrow channel from cape Alaska, and Behring's island, which approaches nearest to the coast of Asia, are both in the 55th parallel of north latitude, while the others extend in a curve towards the south, the centre one of the chain being situated in the 53d parallel.

The number of islands composing the entire chain is very considerable; above forty have received names. The most important of those situated to the eastward—the Fox islands—are Oonemak, Oonalashka, and Oomnack. Those composing the Andrenovian division are smaller

than the other, and are seldom visited. The principal of them are Amlak, Atchka, Tschetchina, Ayag, Kanaga, and Takavangha. The two last-mentioned have volcanoes, and Tschetchina possesses a high hill, which is apparently an extinct volcano. The division nearest to the Asiatic coast contains, among other islands of less importance, Semitch Ottoo, Agattoo, Copper island, and Behring's island.

The small group lying southeast of Behring's island are considered by the Russians as the real Aleutian isles. They were first discovered in 1745, by Michael Nevottsikof, a native of Tobolsk, commander of the exploring vessel called the Eudokia, fitted out from the Kamtschatka river. The southern group are sometimes called the Nearest Aleutian isles, and the Fox islands the Farthest Aleutian isles.

The coasts of all the Aleutian islands are rocky, and the navigation among them dangerous. They are mostly destitute of trees, but are abundantly supplied with springs and streams of fresh water. Great quantities of drift wood from the American coast are continually thrown upon their shores. Potatoes, and several other esculent vegetables, arrive at tolerable perfection. The land animals on the islands are bears, wolves, beavers, ermines, and river-otters. The sea-otter is nearly exterminated by the hunters. Red, gray, brown, and black foxes are seen in great variety on the Fox islands; seals, walruses, and whales are abundant on the coast, and sea-lions are occasionally met with. The kinds of fish most usually caught are salmon and halibut; the latter of these are sometimes of an immense size.

The only occupations of the islanders are fishing and hunting, and the preparation of implements necessary for those pursuits. The population has greatly diminished since the settlement among them of the Russian fur-traders. The civil and military administration of the islands is vested in the Imperial Russian-American Company, which has a factory at Oonalashka.

The otter chase still constitutes their chief occupation. In former times the inhabitants of the Aleutian islands paid a tribute of furs, but since the establishment of the company they have been exonerated from this, personal service being substituted instead of it: every native of these islands, or that of Kodiak, is obliged to place himself for three years at the disposition of the company, which may employ him, as it pleases, either in hunting, fishing, or agriculture.

In the month of December every year, the company announces the number of men and small boats it will require for beaver hunting. The hunters are then chosen, the preference being given to families having the greatest number of sons: these the company furnishes with arms, powder, lead, dried fish, tobacco, and the utensils necessary for repairing the boats. Immediately upon the breaking up of the ice, the baydars quit the creeks in which they had been laid up during the winter, and repair to the place of rendezvous; the different expeditions afterwards set off for the points assigned them, each under the direction of an *ancient* chosen by his companions. Kodiak generally furnishes one hundred and fifty boats, Oonalashka one hundred, Atchka fifty, and other islands a less number.

Upon their return in the month of August or September, these different detachments deposite the produce of their chase in the stores of the company, which pay them according to the stipulated tariff, giving at

the rate of thirty roubles for a beaver skin of the first quality, deducting, however, from this price the value of the ammunition and provisions previously furnished to the hunter.

The otter is not the only game hunted down during the summer; other vessels are employed in pursuing the aquatic birds which alight in such numerous flocks on the coasts of the peninsula of Alaska. Their skins are bought by the company; their flesh, being dried, serves as food for the inhabitants of the country. The pursuit of the walrus is more dangerous. The Aleutians engaged in this difficult chase endeavor, at first, to cut off the retreat of these formidable animals, which lie basking themselves in the sun upon the seashore; they then attack and kill them with their hunting spears. The tusks and teeth are the only valuable part of the animal, and in successful seasons the chase is so productive as to furnish as many as five thousand. The walrus is sometimes found of the length of eighteen feet, and the circumference in the thickest part ten or twelve; the weight from fifteen hundred to two thousand pounds. In the upper jaw are two very long tusks bending downwards, and in each jaw, above and below, four grinders.

Several whalers, fitted out at the company's expense, likewise cruise annually in those seas. The Aleutians strike the whale with harpoons, the barb of which is of jasper: each individual engraves upon the stone of his harpoon some private mark by which he may recognise it, so that it is always easy to ascertain the party who has dealt the mortal blow to the animal. One half of the whale belongs to the successful harpooner; the other one is the property of the company, subject to their paying to the rest of the crew from twenty to forty roubles. Further facility has lately been given to the trade, by furnishing the whalers with superior implements. Vessels constructed upon the model of those of the English have rendered this fishery less dangerous, and the company have now employed in its service several experienced harpooners.

During the winter the colonists are engaged in other labors. Snares are laid for the white foxes, and dogs regularly trained to track the zizel (*mus cytellus*) in its subterranean abodes.

WASHINGTON, August 3, 1848.

SIR: I beg to acquaint you that the foregoing Memoir, with the consent of the President, was informally communicated to the Senate, on the 8th March, by Mr. Sevier, then Chairman of the Committee on Foreign Relations, referred to the Committee on the Library, and ordered to be printed for the use of the Senate. On the 3d June, 2000 additional copies were ordered, but which, I regret to state, owing to the vexatious delays on the part of both printers and lithographers, are not yet ready for distribution.

Mr. Hunt, Chairman of the Committee on Commerce, House of Representatives, considering the subject of sufficient importance to justify the immediate action of Congress thereon, addressed on the 7th June a communication to the Secretary of the Treasury, stating that the Committee contemplated offering a resolution authorising the President to appoint an agent, as suggested in the Memoir, with authority to visit the countries of Asia, as well as Europe, to collect the desired commercial information, statistics, &c., and requested to be favored with his views on the subject; to which Mr. Walker made the following reply:

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, June 11, 1848.

SIR: Your communication of the 7th instant has been duly considered and in reply to the inquiry of the Committee, this Department is well persuaded that the appointment of a competent person to obtain the information contemplated, would be attended with beneficial results. Much attention has been devoted to this subject by Mr. Aaron H. Palmer, of New York, and a work of his has been submitted to this Department in manuscript, containing views and suggestions calculated greatly to increase our commerce with Asia. This work is the result of extensive travel and of laborious research, presenting many new and most interesting facts and statistics in regard to a country comparatively unknown, and especially in relation to Northern Asia, where we have no Consuls, nor diplomatic or commercial agents. That our commerce with this region, by proper exertions might be greatly increased, there can be no doubt, and great additional importance is given to the subject by the settlement of the Oregon question, and the probable addition to the Union of Upper California. I would, therefore, respectfully recommend an appropriation of twelve thousand dollars to accomplish the object contemplated by the Committee, and believe the result would increase the aggregate of our imports and exports several millions of dollars, and probably augment our revenue from duties to the extent of several hundred thousand dollars per annum.

With great respect, your obedient servant,

R. J. WALKER,

Secretary of the Treasury.

Hon. W. HUNT,

Chairman of the Committee of Commerce, &c.

Mr. Hunt, by direction of the Committee, communicated Mr. Walker's letter to Mr. Vinton, Chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means, requesting him to move for an appropriation of \$10,000 to pay the expenses of the proposed commercial agent, to be inserted as an amendment to the Civil and Diplomatic Bill; and it was accordingly moved in the House by Mr. Vinton, under the direction of his Committee, on the 17th July, but as

the object of the appropriation was not well understood, no report having been previously made to the House thereon, and several influential members in favor of it being temporarily absent at the time, and meeting with opposition from Mr. NICOLL, of New York, on the ground that the information should be obtained by private enterprise, the motion was lost.

After the passage of the bill in the House and its presentation in the Senate, and reference to the Finance Committee, the subject of the appropriation was brought before that Committee, and on the 2d inst., Mr. Atherton, the Chairman, moved the following amendment to the bill which was then under consideration in Committee of the Senate:

"For compensation and expenses of a commercial agent, to be selected and sent abroad by the President to collect information respecting the commerce, production, and statistics of Asia and Eastern Africa, ten thousand dollars."

The amendment was advocated by Mr. Atherton, Mr. Phelps, Mr. Davis, of Mississippi, and Mr. Dayton; and opposed by Mr. Benton.

Those who voted in the affirmative were

Messrs. Atherton, Badger, Baldwin, Bell, Calhoun, Davis, of Massachusetts, Davis, of Mississippi, Dayton, Dickinson, Dix, Dodge, Fitzgerald, Greene, Hamlin, Houston, Johnson, of Maryland, Johnson, of Louisiana, Johnson, of Georgia, Lewis, Mangum, Niles, Phelps, Sebastian, Sturgeon—24.

Those who voted in the negative were—

Messrs. Allen, Atchison, Benton, Borland, Bradbury, Breese, Bright, Butler, Clarke, Douglas, Downs, Felch, Hale, Hunter, King, Mason, Metcalfe, Miller, Spruance, Underwood, Upham, Walker, Wescott, Yulee—24.

So the motion to amend was lost.

The following Senators, who had promised to vote for the appropriation, were not present, viz: Mr. Clayton, Mr. Foote, Mr. Hannegan, and Mr. Rusk. Mr. Webster, and several other Senators known to be favorable to it, were then absent from Washington.

When the object for which the appropriation recommended by Mr. Walker comes to be understood, and its importance to the commercial, navigating, industrial, and agricultural interests of the United States on the Atlantic and Pacific more deliberately considered, by the Honorable Senators and members of the House of Representatives, it is to be presumed a special Act or Joint Resolution will be passed, early in the next session, authorizing such appropriation, the agent to be appointed by, and execute his mission under the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury.

With great respect, your most obedient servant,

AARON H. PALMER.

R. J. WALKER,

Secretary of the Treasury.

Salos

