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BENJ.ᴺ FRANKLIN.

AN

HISTORICAL,

GEOGRAPHICAL, COMMERCIAL,

AND

PHILOSOPHICAL

VIEW

OF THE

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA,

AND OF THE

EUROPEAN SETTLEMENTS

IN

AMERICA AND THE WEST-INDIES.

BY

W. WINTERBOTHAM.

THE FIRST AMERICAN EDITION, WITH ADDITIONS AND CORRECTIONS.

IN FOUR VOLUMES.

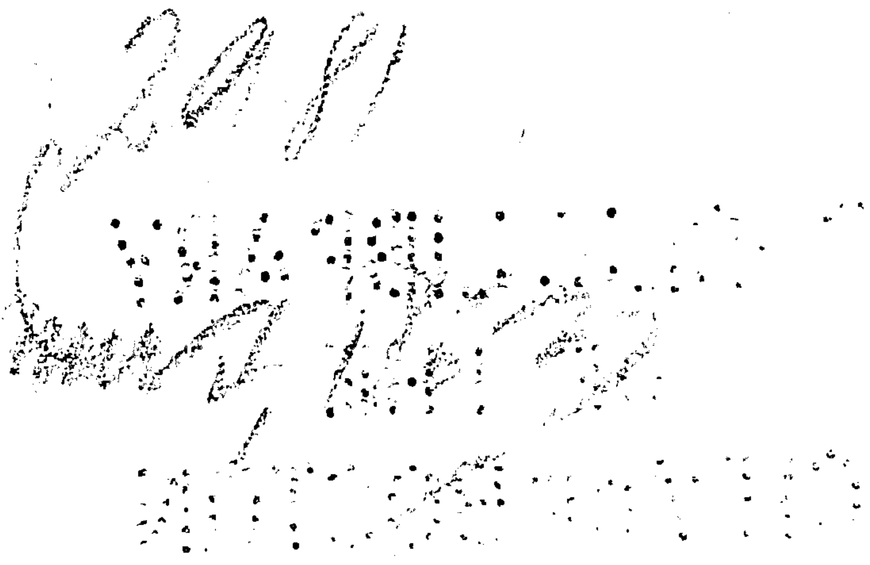
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CONTENTS.

VOL. III.

	PAGE
SOUTHERN States	1
Maryland	34
City of Washington	67
Virginia	73
Indiana	124
Kentucky	126
North-Carolina	192
Territory South of the Ohio, or the Tenneſſee Government	225
South-Carolina	238
Georgia	262
Advantages peculiar to the United States	281
Proſpects and Advantages of an European Settler in the United States	295
General Information to European Settlers	340

PRESENT SITUATION

OF THE

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

SOUTHERN STATES.

THIS third, which is much the largeſt diviſion of the United States, comprehends

MARYLAND, VIRGINIA, KENTUCKY,
NORTH-CAROLINA, TERRITORY S. of the OHIO,
SOUTH-CAROLINA, and GEORGIA.

This extenſive diviſion is bounded on the north by Pennſylvania and the Ohio river; on the weſt by the Miſſiſſippi; on the ſouth by Eaſt and Weſt Florida; and on the eaſt by the Atlantic ocean and the Delaware State. It is interſected in a N. E. and S. W. direction by the range of Allegany mountains, which give riſe to many noble rivers, which fall either into the Atlantic on the eaſt, or the Miſſiſſippi on the weſt. From the ſea coaſt, ſixty, eighty, and in ſome parts an hundred miles back towards the mountains, the country, generally ſpeaking, is nearly a dead level, and a very large proportion of it is covered, in its natural ſtate, with pitch pines. In the neighbourhood of ſtagnant waters, which abound in this level country, the inhabitants are ſickly, but in the back, hilly and mountainous country, they are as healthy as in any part of America.

This diſtrict of the Union contains about two millions of inhabitants, of whom about ſix hundred and forty-eight thouſand are ſlaves. The influence of ſlavery has produced a very diſtinguiſhing feature in the general character of the inhabitants, which, though now deſcernible to their diſadvantage, has been ſoftened and meliorated by the benign effects of the revolution, and the progreſs of liberty and humanity,

HISTORY OF ITS SETTLEMENT, &c.

MARYLAND.

This State was granted by a patent of King Charles the Firſt, June 30, 1632, to George Calvert, Baron of Baltimore, in Ireland,* who had been obliged, on account of the French government, to abandon the province of Avalon, in Newfoundland, after having expended twenty-five thouſand pounds in its advancement.

The government of this province was by charter veſted in the proprietary; but it appears, that he either never exerciſed theſe powers alone, or but for a ſhort time; for we find, in 1637, that the freemen rejected a body of laws drawn up in England, and tranſmitted by his lordſhip, in order to be paſſed for the government of the province. In the place of theſe they propoſed forty-two bills to be enacted into laws, by the conſent of the proprietary: theſe were, however, never enacted, at leaſt they are not on record.

The firſt emigration to Maryland conſiſted of two hundred gentlemen of conſiderable fortune and rank, with their adherents, chiefly Roman Catholics, who hoped to enjoy liberty of conſcience under a proprietary of their own profeſſion. They ſailed from England in November, 1632, and landed in Maryland the beginning of 1633. The Honourable Leonard Calvert, brother to Lord Baltimore, who was the firſt governor, very wiſely and juſtly purchaſed, by preſents of various goods, the rights of the Indians, and with their free conſent took poſſeſſion of their town, which he called St. Mary's. The country was ſettled with ſo much eaſe, and furniſhed with ſo many conveniencies, that emigrants repaired thither in ſuch numbers, that the colony ſoon became populous and flouriſhing.

In 1638 a law was paſſed, conſtituting the firſt regular Houſe of Aſſembly, which was to conſiſt of ſuch repreſentatives, cal-

* A Copy of this patent may be ſeen by referring to Hazard's Hiſtorica Collections, page 327.

led burgeſſes, as ſhould be elected purſuant to writs iſſued by the governor. Theſe burgeſſes poſſeſſed *all the powers of the perſons electing them;* BUT ANY OTHER FREEMEN, WHO DID NOT ASSENT TO THE ELECTION, MIGHT TAKE THEIR SEATS IN PERSON. Twelve burgeſſes or freemen, with the lieutenant-general and ſecretary, conſtituted the Aſſembly or Legiſlature. This Aſſembly ſat at St. Mary's.

Slavery ſeems to have gained an early eſtabliſhment in Maryland, for an act of this Aſſenbly deſcribes "the people" to conſiſt of all Chriſtian inhabitants, "ſlaves only accepted." The perſecuting laws which were paſſed by the Virginians, ſoon after this period, againſt the Puritans, made the latter emigrate in conſiderable numbers to Maryland, that they might enjoy, under a Popiſh proprietary, that liberty of conſcience of which they were deprived by their fellow Proteſtants.

In 1642 it was enacted, that ten members of the Aſſembly, of whom the governor and ſix burgeſſes were to be ſeven, ſhould be a Houſe; and if ſickneſs ſhould prevent that number from attending, the members preſent ſhould make a Houſe.

In 1644 one Ingle excited a rebellion, forced the governor to fly to Virginia for aid and protection, and ſeized the records and the great ſeal; the laſt of which, with moſt of the records of the province, were loſt or deſtroyed. From this period to the year 1647, when order was reſtored, the proceedings of the province are involved in almoſt impenetrable obſcurity.

In July, 1646, the Houſe of Aſſembly, or more properly the burgeſſes, requeſted that they might be ſeparated into two branches—the burgeſſes by themſelves, with a negative upon bills. This was not granted by the lieutenant-general at that time; but in 1650, an act was paſſed dividing the Aſſembly into two Houſes; the governor, ſecretary, and any one or more of the council, formed the Upper Houſe; the delegates from the ſeveral hundreds, who now repreſented the freemen, formed the Lower Houſe. At this time there were in the province but two counties, St. Mary's and the Iſle of Kent, but another (*Ann Arundel*) was added the ſame ſeſſion. This was during the adminiſtration of Governor Stone.

In this year there was alſo paſſed "an act againſt raiſing money without the conſent of the Aſſembly." It enacted, "*That no taxes ſhall be aſſeſſed or levied on the freemen of the province without their own conſent, or that of their deputies, firſt declared in a General Aſſembly.*" The printed words and early date of

this Maryland act are worthy of particular notice. The acts of the General Aſſembly and governor were of the ſame force in their own province as acts of parliment in England, and could not be repealed without the concurring aſſent of the proprietary or his deputy, with the other two eſtates.

In 1654, during Cromwell's uſurpation in England, an act was paſſed reſtraining the exerciſe of the Roman Catholic religion. This muſt have been procured by the mere terror of Cromwell's power, for the firſt and principle inhabitants were Catholics. Indeed the power of Cromwell was not eſtabliſhed in Maryland without force and bloodſhed. His friends and foes came to an open rupture, an engagement enſued, Governor Stone was taken priſoner, and condemned to be ſhot; this ſentence, however, was not executed, but he was kept a long time in confinement.

In March, 1658, Joſiah Fendall, Eſq. was appointed lieutenant-general of Maryland by commiſſion from Oliver Cromwell; he diſſolved the Upper Houſe, and ſurrendered the powers of government into the hands of the delegates.

Upon the reſtoration in 1660, the Honourable Philip Calvert, Eſq. was appointed governor; the old form of government was revived; Fendall, and one Gerrard, a councellor, were indicted, found guilty and condemned to baniſhment, with the loſs of their eſtates; but, upon petition, they were pardoned.

In 1689, the government was taken out of the hands of Lord Baltimore by the grand convention of England; and in 1692, Mr. Copley was appointed governor by commiſſion from William and Mary.

In 1692, the Proteſtant religion was *eſtabliſhed by law.*

In 1699, under the adminiſtration of Governor Blackiſton, it was enacted, that Annapolis ſhould be the ſeat of government.

In 1716, the government of this province was reſtored to the proprietary, and continued in his hands till the late revolution, when, though a minor, his property in the lands was confiſcated, and the government aſſumed by the freemen of the province, who formed the conſtitution now exiſting. At the cloſe of the war, Henry Harford, Eſq. the natural ſon and heir of Lord Baltimore, petitioned the legiſlature of Maryland for his eſtate, but his petition was not granted. Mr. Harford eſtimated his loſs of quit-rents, valued at twenty-five years purchaſe, and including arrears, at two hundred and fifty-nine thouſand, four hundred and eighty-eight pounds, five ſhillings,

dollars at 7/6—and the value of his manors and reſerved lands at three hundred and twenty-ſeven thouſand, four hnndred and forty-one pounds of the ſame money.

VIRGINIA.

We have already, when treating of the diſcovery of North-America, given a brief hiſtory of the ſettlement of this State to the year 1610,* when Lord Delaware arrived with ſupplies for the colony of ſettlers, and proviſions. His preſence had a happy effect on the colony, order and confidence being ſoon reſtored by him. The ſtate of his health did not, however, permit him long to purſue his plans of improvement, for in the beginning of 1611 he was obliged to return to England, leaving about two hundred coloniſts, poſſeſſed of health, plenty and peace with their neighbours. After his departure the colony again declined; but his ſucceſſor, Sir Thomas Dale, arriving in May with more emigrants, cattle and proviſion for a year, things were again reſtored to order. This ſame year the adventurers obtained a new charter, by which the two former were confirmed, and they had alſo granted to them all the iſlands ſituated in the ocean, within three hundred leagues of any part of the Virginia coaſt. The corporation was now conſiderably new-modelled, and, in order to promote the effectual ſettlement of the plantation, licence was given to open lotteries in any part of England. The lotteries alone, which were the firſt ever granted in England, brought twenty-nine thouſand pounds into the company's treaſury. At length, being conſidered as a national evil, they attracted the notice of Parliament, were preſented by the commons as a grievance, and in March, 1620, ſuſpended by an order of Council.

In April, 1613, Mr. John Rolf, a worthy young gentleman, was married to Pocahontas, the daughter of Powhatan, the famous Indian chief. This connection, which was very agreeable both to the Engliſh and Indians, was the foundation of a friendly and advantageous commerce between them.

Three years afterwards Mr. Rolf, with his wife Pocahontas viſited England, where ſhe was treated with that attention and reſpect which ſhe had merited by her important ſervices to the colony in Virginia. She died the year following at Graveſend, in the twenty-ſecond year of her age, juſt as ſhe was about to

* See vol. 1. page 162 to 165.

embark for America. She had embraced the Chriſtian religion, and in her life and death evidenced the ſincerity of her profeſſion. She left a ſon, who, having received his education in England, went over to Virginia, where he lived and died in affluence and honour, leaving behind him an only daughter. Her deſcendants are among the moſt reſpectable families in Virginia.

Tomocomo, a ſenſible Indian, brother-in-law to Pocahontas, accompanied her to Englrnd, and was directed by Powhatan to bring him an exact account of the numbers and ſtrength of the Engliſh. For this purpoſe, when he arrived at Plymouth, he took a long ſtick, intending to cut a notch in it for every perſon he ſhould ſee: this he ſoon found impracticable, and threw aw ay his ſtick. On his return, being aſked by Powhatan, how many people there were, he is ſaid to have replied, "Count the ſtars in the ſky, the leaves on the trees, and the ſands on the ſea ſhore; for ſuch is the number of the people of England."

In 1612-13, Sir Thomas Gates was diſpatched with ſix large ſhips, carrying three hundred coloniſts, one hundred cattle and uſeful ſupplies. He arrived in Auguſt, and parties were ſent out from James-town to form diſtant ſettlements. He returned the beginning of 1614, and the adminiſtration devolved once more on Sir Thomas Dale, to whom the Virginians owe the introduction of landed property. In 1615, fifty acres of land were granted to every emigrant and his heirs, and the ſame quantity to every perſon imported by others. Dale ſailed for England in the beginning of 1616, giving up the truſt to Sir George Yeardly, as deputy-governor, and in this year the cultivation of tobacco was introduced. Mr. Argal, a new deputy-governor, was ſent out, who arrived in May 1617. He pnbliſhed a variety of edicts, and was guilty of thoſe wrongs and oppreſſions, that the treaſurer and council appointed Yeardly captain-general, and empowerd him to examine into and redreſs grievances. Sir George arrived in April, 1619, with ſeveral inſtructions favourable to freedom, and ſoon declared his intention of calling a General Aſſembly, which gave the greateſt joy to men who had been hitherto ſubjected to the arbitrary orders of their prince, to the intereſted ordinances of an Engliſh corporation, or to the edicts of a haughty governor, and who enjoyed none of thoſe liberties which Engliſhmen claim as their birthright.

In June, Yeardley, purſuant to his inſtructions from the company, iſſued writs for the election of delegates, called

burgeſſes. The colony had been divided into ſeven hundreds or diſtinct ſettlements, which ſeemed to enjoy ſome of the privileges of boroughs, and from this circumſtance the democratic branch of the Aſſembly has been called to this day, the Houſe of Burgeſſes, though compoſed almoſt entirely of the repreſentatives of counties. The Aſſembly, formed of the governor and council of ſtate, who were appointed by the treaſurer and company, and of the burgeſſes choſen by the people, met together in one apartment, and tranſacted affairs like the parliament of Scotland of old, which mode continued till after the reſtoration of Chales II. Thus convened, and thus compoſed, the legiſlature "debated all matters thought expedient for the good of the whole." The laws were tranſmitted to England for the approbation of the treaſurer and company, without whoſe confirmation they were of no validity. The introduction of an Aſſembly was attended with the happieſt effects. The emigrants, for the firſt time, reſolved to ſettle themſelves, and to perpetuate the plantation. The Aſſembly thanked the company for their favour, and begged them "to reduce into a compenduous form, with his Majeſty's approbation, the laws of England proper for Virginia, with ſuitable additions;" giving as a reaſon, "that it was not fit that his ſubjects ſhould be governed by any other rules than ſuch as received their influence from him." This year the treaſurer and council received a letter from government, "commanding them to ſend a hundred diſolute perſons (convicts) to Virginia." They were accordingly tranſported, "and were at that period, very acceptable to the coloniſts." The ſubſequent year, 1620, muſt, on account of the introduction of African ſlaves into the colonies, be ſtigmatiſed as a much viler æra. The Hollanders were not then precluded by any law from trading with the colonies. A Dutch veſſel carried to Virginia a cargo of Negroes, and the Virginians, who had themſelves juſt emerged from a ſtate of ſlavery, became chargeable with reducing their fellow men to the condition of brutes.

In July, the treaſurer and company carried into execution a reſolution formerly taken, for eſtabliſhing a proper conſtitution for the colony. The ordinance they paſſed, declared, that there ſhould be two ſupreme councils in Virginia, the one to be called the council of ſtate, to be appointed and diſplaced by the treaſurer and company, and which was to adviſe the governor in governmental affairs; the other was to be denominated the General Aſſembly, and to conſiſt of the governor and

council, and of two burgeſſes, to be choſen for the preſent, by the inhabitants of every town, hundred and ſettlement in the colony. The Aſſembly was to determine by the majority of the voices then preſent, and to enact general laws for the colony, reſerving to the governor a negative voice. They were to imitate the laws and cuſtoms, and judicial proceedings uſed in England. "No acts were to be in force till confirmed by the General Court in England: on the other hand, no order of the General Court was to bind the colony till aſſented to by the Aſſembly." The company having offered territory to thoſe who ſhould either emigrate themſelves, or engage to tranſport people to the colony, found this policy ſo ſucceſsful, that upwards of three thouſand five hundred perſons emigrated to Virginia during this and the two preceding years.

This year, 1622, was remarkable for a maſſacre of the coloniſts by the Indians, which was executed with the utmoſt ſubtilty, and without any regard to age or ſex. A well-concerted attack on all the ſettlements, deſtroyed, in one hour and almoſt at the ſame inſtant, three hundred and forty-ſeven perſons, who were defenceleſs and incapable of making reſiſtance. The emigrants, notwithſtanding the orders they had received, had never been ſolicitous to cultivate the good-will of the natives, and had neither aſked permiſſion when they occupied their country, nor given a price for their valuable property, which was violently taken away. The miſeries of famine were ſoon ſuperadded to the horrors of maſſacre. Of eighty plantations, which were filling apace, only eight remained; and of the numbers which had been tranſported thither, no more than about one thouſand eight hundred ſurvived thoſe manifold diſaſters.

Frequent complaints having been made to King James of the oppreſſions of the treaſury and company, and the before-mentioned calamities being attributed to their miſconduct or neglect, it was determined, that a commiſſion ſhould iſſue to inquire into the affairs of Virginia and the Somer iſles, from the earlieſt ſettlement of each. Upon the report of the commiſſioners, the King concluded on giving a new charter, and required of the company the ſurrender of former grants, which being refuſed, a writ of *quo warranto* iſſued in November, 1623, againſt the patents of the corporation: and judgment was given by the Court of King's Bench againſt the treaſurer and company, in Trinity term, 1624. Theſe proceedings "were ſo conformable to the general ſtrain of the arbitrary adminiſtration of that reign,

that they made little impreſſion at the time, though the Virginia company was compoſed of perſons of the firſt quality, wealth and conſequence in the nation." The company, probably, would not have exerciſed ſo tame and ſubmiſſive a ſpirit, had they not been wholly diſappointed in their viſionary proſpects, and met with conſiderable loſſes, inſtead of acquiring enormous profits. They had obtained from individuals, who ſported in their lotteries from the hope of ſudden riches, twenty-nine thouſand pounds: but the tranſportation of more than nine thouſand Engliſh ſubjects had coſt them one hundred and fifty thouſand pounds. They did not, however, abandon the colony in its diſtreſs while they continued a corporation. Timely ſupplies were ſent from England to the Virginia ſettlers, which ſo animated them, that they carried on an offenſive war againſt the Indians, purſued them into their faſtneſſes, and drove them from the neighbourhood of thoſe rivers, where they had fixed their own plantations.

As to King James, he "aſſuredly conſidered the colonies as acquired by conqueſt; and that they ought to be holden of his perſon, independent of his crown or political capacity; and might be ruled according to his good will, by prerogative: and he endeavoured, agreeably to the ſtrange economy of his reign, to convert them into a mere private eſtate, deſcendible to his perſonal heirs."*

The Virginia company being diſſolved, James took the colony under his immediate dependence, which occaſioned much confuſion. Upon his death, in 1625, King Charles, being of the ſame judgment with his farther as to the government of Virginia, determined to tread in the ſame ſteps. In May he named a new governor and council for Virginia, and inveſted them with an authority fully legiſlative and arbitrary. They were empowered to make and execute laws, to impoſe taxes, and enforce payment. Neither the commiſſion nor inſtructions mentioned expreſsly, or even alluded to an Aſſembly, to the laws of England, or to the acts of the provincial legiſlature, as a rule of government. They were required to tranſport coloniſts into England, to be puniſhed there for crimes committed in Virginia. This ſyſtem increaſed the colonial diſſatisfaction, which continued for years, till the Virginians received a letter containing the royal aſſurance, that "all their eſtates, trade, freedom

* See Chalmers's Political Annals under the head of Virginia, for many of the preceding and ſubſequent articles reſpecting that colony.

and privileges, ſhould be enjoyed by them in as extenſive a manner, as they enjoyed them before the recalling of the company's patent." On this they were reconciled, and began again to exert themſelves in making improvements.*

Being left for ſome years in a manner to themſelves, they increaſed beyond expectation. They remained under the adminiſtration of their late governors, and other officers, who reſpected their privileges becauſe they loved the colony. The governor whom Charles had been anxious to appoint, had no opportunity of exerciſing thoſe illegal and extraordinary powers with which he had been inveſted. His death, in 1627, put an end to his authority, and prevented the colony's feeling its full extent. His ſucceſſor, John Harvey, Eſq. was nominated in March, 1629, and his commiſſion and inſtructions were preciſely the ſame with thoſe of the former. He departed ſoon after for Virginia. The ſpirit of his adminiſtration was an exact counterpart of what had too long prevailed in England. He was ſevere in his extortions, proud in his councils, unjuſt and arbitrary in every department of his government. The Virginians, rouſed almoſt to madneſs by oppreſſion, ſeized and ſent him priſoner to England, accompanied with two deputies, to repreſent their grievancies and his miſconduct. His behaviour was ſo thought of, that he was honoured with a new commiſſion which confirmed his former powers, and he was ſent back to Virginia in April, 1637. After that, his government was ſo exceſſively oppreſſive and cruel, that the complaints of the coloniſts became at length too loud to be longer neglected, and his commiſſion was revoked in January, 1638-9. During his ten years adminiſtration, the Virginians were ruled rather as the vaſſals of an eaſtern deſpot, than as ſubjects entitled to Engliſh liberties; but it is to their credit, that, having taſted the ſweets of a ſimple government, they oppoſed with a firm ſpirit, during the reign of Charles, the attempts of thoſe who endeavoured to revive the patents, and to reſtore the corporation.

Sir William Berkeley was appointed governor the beginning of 1639. His inſtructions evidenced a prodigious change in colonial policy, which muſt be partly aſcribed to the then ſtate of affairs in England. He was directed to ſummon all the burgeſſes of the plantations, who, with the governor and council, were to conſtitute the Grand Aſſembly, with power to make acts for the government of the colony, as near as might be to

* Bland's Inquiry into the Rights of the Britiſh Colonies.

the laws of England—to cauſe ſpeedy juſtice to be adminiſtered to all, according to Engliſh forms—and to forbid all trade with foreign veſſels except upon neceſſity. Thus were the Virginians reſtored to that ſyſtem of freedom which they had derived from the Virginia company, and which the writ of *quo warranto* had involved in the ſame ruin with the corporation itſelf.

Civil diſſenſions, however, took place, which were embittered by religious differences, and inflamed by acts made to prohibit the preaching of the doctrine of the Puritans. The diſcontented party preſented a petition to the Houſe of Commons, in the name of the Aſſembly, "praying for the reſtoration of the ancient patents and corporation government." But the governor council and burgeſſes, no ſooner heard of the tranſaction, than they tranſmitted an explicit diſavowal of it. They ſent alſo an addreſs to King Charles, acknowledging his bounty and favour toward them, and earneſtly deſiring to continue under his immediate protection. In 1642, they declared in the form of an act, "that they were born under monarchy, and would never *degenerate* from the condition of their births, by being ſubject to any other government." Nothing could be more acceptable than this act, which being preſented to the King at York, drew from him an anſwer, in which he gave them the fulleſt aſſurances, that they ſhould be always, immediately dependent upon the crown, and that the form of government ſhould never be changed.

They remained unalterably attached to the cauſe of their ſovereign. But when the Commons of England had triumphed over their European opponents, their attention was turned to the plantations; and an ordinance was paſſed in October, 1650, "for prohibiting trade with Barbadoes, Virginia, Bermuda and Antego." It recited, that "in Virginia, and other places in America, there are colonies, which were planted at the coſt, and ſettled by the people, and by the authority of this nation, which ought to be ſubordinate to, and dependent upon England—that they ever have been, and ought to be, ſubject to ſuch laws and regulations as are, or ſhall be made by the Parliament—that divers acts of rebellion have been committed by many perſons inhabiting Virginia, whereby they have ſet up themſelves in oppoſition to this commonwealth." It therefore declared them "*notorious robbers and traitors.*" PERSONS IN POWER GENERALLY REASON ALIKE AGAINST THOSE WHO OPPOSE THEIR AUTHORITY, AND DISPUTE THE LEGALITY

OR EQUITY OF THEIR MEASURES, whatever might be their ſentiments when in a lower ſtation, and while aggrieved by ſuperiors. The ordinance authoriſed the Council of State to ſend a fleet thither, and to grant commiſſions to proper perſons to enforce to obedience all ſuch as ſtood oppoſed to the authority of Parliament. In conſequence hereof commiſſioners were appointed, and a powerful fleet and army detached to reduce all their enemies to ſubmiſſion. They were to uſe their endeavours, by granting pardons and by other peaceful arts, to induce the coloniſts to obey the eſtate of England: but if theſe means ſhould prove ineffectual, then they were to employ every act of hoſtility; to free thoſe ſervants and ſlaves, of maſters oppoſing the government, that would ſerve as ſoldiers to ſubdue them; and to cauſe the acts of Parliament to be executed, and juſtice to be adminiſtered in the name of the Commonwealth. After the arrival of the commiſſioners with the naval and military force, the Virginians refuſed to ſubmit, till articles of ſurrender had been agreed upon, by which it was ſtipulated, "The plantation of Virginia, and all the inhabitants thereof, ſhall enjoy ſuch freedoms and privileges as belong to the free people of England. The General Aſſembly, as formerly, ſhall convene and tranſact the affairs of the colony. The people of Virginia ſhall have a free trade, as the people of England, to all places, and with all nations. Virginia ſhall be free from all taxes, cuſtoms, and impoſitions whatſoever; and none ſhall be impoſed on them without conſent of the General Aſſembly; and neither forts nor caſtles ſhall be erected, nor garriſons maintained without their conſent."*

This convention, entered into with arms in their hands, they ſuppoſed had ſecured the ancient limits of their country; its free trade; its exemption from taxation but by their own Aſſembly, and excluſion of military force from among them. Yet in every of theſe points was this convention violated by ſubſequent kings and parliaments, and other infractions of their conſtitution, equally dangerous, committed. The General Aſſembly, which was compoſed of the council of ſtate and burgeſſes, ſitting together and deciding by plurality of voices, was ſplit into two houſes, by which the council obtained a ſeparate negative on their laws. Appeals from their ſupreme court, which had been fixed by law in their General Aſſembly, were arbitrarily removed to England, to be there heard before the king and

* Bland's Inquiry into the Rights of the Britiſh Colonies.

council. Inſtead of four hundred miles on the ſea coaſt, they were reduced in the ſpace of thirty years, to about one hundred miles. Their trade with foreigners was totally ſuppreſſed and, when carried to Great-Britain, was there loaded with impoſts. It is unneceſſary, however, to glean up the ſeveral inſtances of injury, as ſcattered through American and Britiſh hiſtory: and the more eſpecially, as, by paſſing on to the acceſſion of the preſent king, we ſhall find ſpecimens of them all, aggravated, multiplied, and crowded within a ſmall compaſs of time, ſo as to evince a fixed deſign of conſidering the rights of the people, whether natural, conventional, or chartered, as mere nullities. The colonies were taxed internally; their eſſential intereſt ſacrificed to individuals in Great-Britain; their legiſlatures ſuſpended; charters annulled; trials by juries taken away: their perſons ſubjected to tranſportation acroſs the Atlantic, and to trial before foreign judicatories; their ſupplications for redreſs thought beneath anſwer; themſelves publiſhed as cowards in the councils of their mother country and courts of Europe; armed troops ſent among them to enforce ſubmiſſion to theſe violences; and actual hoſtilities commenced againſt them. No alternative was preſented but reſiſtance or unconditional ſubmiſſion. Between theſe there could be no heſitation. They cloſed in the appeal to arms. They declared themſelves Independent States. They confederated together in one great republic; thus ſecuring to every State the benefit of an union of their whole force. They fought—they conquered—and obtained an honourable and glorious peace.

KENTUCKY.

Though the war which took place between England and France in the year 1755, terminated ſo glorioufly to Great-Britain, and ſecurely for the then colonies, ſtill we remained ignorant of the whole of the fine country lying between the high hills, which riſe from Great Sandy River, approximate to the Allegany mountain, and extending down the Ohio to its confluence with the Miſſiſſippi, and back to thoſe ridges of mountains which traverſe America in a ſouth-weſt-by-weſt direction, until they are loſt in the flat lands of Weſt-Florida. However, certain men, called Long Hunters, from Virginia and North-Carolina, by penetrating theſe mountains, which ramify into a country two hundred miles over from eaſt to weſt, called the wilderneſs, were faſcinated with the beauty and luxuriance of the country on the weſtern ſide.

A grant had been ſold by the Six Nations of Indians to ſome Britiſh commiſſioners at Fort Stanwix, in 1768, which comprehended this country, and which afforded the Americans a pretext for a right to ſettle it; but thoſe Indian natives who were not concerned in the grant, became diſſatisfied with the proſpect of a ſettlement which might become ſo dangerous a thorn in their ſide, and committed ſome maſſacres upon the firſt explorers of the country. However, after the expedition of Lord Dunmore, in 1774, and the battle at the mouth of the Great Kanhaway, between the army of Colonel Lewes and the confederated tribes of Indians, they were in ſome meaſure quiet. The Aſſembly of Virginia began now to encourage the peopling that diſtrict of country called Kentucky, from the name of a river which runs nearly through the middle of it. This encouragement conſiſted in offering four hundred acres of land, to every perſon who engaged to build a cabin, clear a piece of land, and produce a crop of Indian corn. This was called a ſettlement right. Some hundreds of theſe ſettlements were made; but, in the mean time, Mr. Richard Henderſon, of North-Carolina, a man of conſiderable abilities, and more enterpriſe, had obtained a grant from the Cherokee tribe of Indians for this ſame tract of country; and though it was contrary to the laws of the land for any private citizen to make purchaſes of the Indians, ſtill Mr. Henderſon perſevered in his intention of eſtabliſhing a colony of his own. He actually took poſſeſſion of the country, with many of his followers, where he remained pretty quiet, making very little improvement, Virginia being at that time entirely occupied with the war, which had commenced between Great-Britain and the confederated States. Moſt of the young men from the back ſettlements of Virginia and Pennſylvania, who would have migrated to this country, having engaged in the war, formed that body of men, called Rifle-men; which not only checked the growth of the ſettlement, but ſo dried up the ſources of emigration, that it was near being annihilated by the fury of the ſavages.

The legality of Mr. Henderſon's claim was inveſtigated by the State of Virginia in 1781; and though, according to exiſting laws, there could be no ſort of equity in it, he having acted in contempt of the State, the legiſlature, to avoid feuds or diſturbances, for Mr. Henderſon had conſiderable influence, agreed, as an indemnification for the expenſe and trouble he had been at, that he ſhould be allowed a tract of country twelve miles ſquare, lying in the forks of the Ohio and Green rivers; a tract of his own chuſing.

Virginia gave a farther reward and enconragement at this time to the firſt ſettlers, for the perils they had undergone in the eſtabliſhment of their ſettlement, of a tract of one thouſand acres, called a pre-emption right, to be laid off adjoining to the ſettlement of four hundred acres, the grantee only paying office-fees for the ſame. After this period (i. e. 1781) a land office was opened by the State, granting warrants for any quantity of unlocated land, upon condition of certain ſums of the depreciated continental currency being paid into the treaſury, at ſo much for one hundred acres. The great plenty and little value of this money ſoon cauſed the whole country to be located, which was one of the material cauſes of its rapid population.

It was neceſſary, in the management of this buſineſs, that care ſhould be taken to prevent that perplexity and litigation, which the vague manner in which that buſineſs was executed in many inſtances would neceſſarily produce. For this purpoſe, three principal ſurveyors were appointed, who were to lay, or cauſe to be laid off, by their deputies, the different locations within the limits of their diſtricts: this being done, and recorded in the office, the orignal ſurvey was ſent to the deputy regiſter's office, there to be recorded; from thence it was ſent to the principal regiſter's office at Richmond, the ſeat of government, there to remain twelve months, in order that any perſon having a claim, by virtue of a prior location, might have an opportunity to enter a caveat, and prevent a ſurreptitious grant from iſſuing. Commiſſioners were alſo ſent to adjuſt the claims of ſettlement and pre-emption rights: by which means order was preſerved, and the government ſettled, of a diſtrict of country detached and ſeparated at that time, more than two hundred miles from any other ſettled country.

The years 1783 and 1784 brought out vaſt numbers of emigrants from all parts of America, particularly the latter year, when it was ſuppoſed that in Kentucky alone, not leſs than twelve thouſand perſons became ſettlers; ſeveral Europeans from France, England, and Ireland, were among the number. In 1783, 1784, and 1785, great part of the country was ſurveyed and patented, and the people in the interior ſettlements purſued their buſineſs in as much quiet and ſafety as they could have done in any part of Europe. Court-houſes were built in the different counties, and roads were opened for carriages, which ſeven years before had not been ſeen in the country. The roads prior to that time being barely ſufficient for ſingle horſes to travel on.

In 1785, the diſtrict had grown ſo conſiderable from the great number of emigrants which had arrived, and that reſpectability which it had acquired, that it produced a diſpoſition in the inhabtiants to become an independent State, and to be admitted as another link in the great federal chain. A convention was immediately formed by ſending deputies from the different counties, who met at Danville, for the purpoſe of taking the matter into conſideration; when it was determined, after ſome debating, to petition Virginia for that purpoſe. However, this buſineſs was procraſtinated; for finding, though they might ſeparate whenever they choſe, yet that it was optional with the legiſlature of Virginia to recommend them to be taken into the federal government, which they were not likely to do, and which it was certain could not be done without, they were content to remain as they were for that time.

The federal government in the courſe of the year 1785, undertook to lay off the country weſt of the Ohio, in ſuch a manner as would anſwer the purpoſe of ſelling the land, and ſettling the country; but owing to a variety of cauſes, their progreſs was very ſlow. However, ſome land was ſurveyed in 1786 and 1787, and in the latter year a ſettlement was formed upon the Muſkingum, which may be looked upon as the commencement of American ſettlements upon the weſtern ſide of the Ohio. In 1788 and 1789, ſome farther ſurveying was done; but little ſince has been tranſacted in thoſe parts, except wars between the Indians and ſettlers.

NORTH AND SOUTH-CAROLINA.

We give the hiſtory of the ſettlement of theſe States together, as for a very conſiderable period they formed but one colony. A few adventurers emigrated from the Maſſachuſetts, and ſettled round Cape Fear, about the time of the reſtoration. They conſidered mere occupancy, with a transfer from the natives, without any grant from the king, as a good title to the lands which they poſſeſſed. They deemed themſelves entitled to the ſame "civil privileges" as thoſe of the country whence they had emigrated. For years they experienced the complicated miſeries of want. They ſolicited the aid of their countrymen; and the general court, with an attention and humanity which did it the greateſt honour, ordered an extenſive contribution for their relief. But the final ſettlement of the province was effected equally through the rapacity of the courtiers of Charles II. and his own facility in rewarding thoſe, to whom he was

greatly indebted, with a liberality that coſt him little. The pretence, which had been uſed on former occaſions, of a pious zeal for the propagation of the goſpel among the Indians, was ſucceſsfully employed to procure a grant of the immenſe region lying between the 36° of north latitude, and the river St. Matheo under the 31°. March 24, 1663, this territory was erected into a province by the name of Carolina, and conferred on Lord Clarendon, the Duke of Albemarle, Lord Craven, Lord Berkley, Lord Aſhley, Sir George Carteret, Sir John Colleton, and Sir William Berkley, as abſolute lords proprietaries for ever, ſaving the ſovereign allegiance due to the crown. The charter ſeems to have been copied from that of Maryland, ſo extenſive in its powers, and ſo noble in its privileges. The noblemen held their firſt meeting in May; and, at the deſire of the New-England people above-mentioned, publiſhed propoſals to all that would plant in Carolina. They declared, that all perſons ſettling on Charles river, to the ſouthward of Cape Fear, ſhould have power to fortify its banks, taking the oath of allegiance to the king, and ſubmitting to the government of the proprietaries —that the emigrants might preſent to them thirteen perſons, in order that they might appoint a governor and council of ſix for three years—that an aſſembly, compoſed of the governor, the council, and delegates of the freemen, ſhould be called as ſoon as circumſtances would allow, with power to make laws, not contrary to thoſe of England, nor of any validity after the publication of the diſſent of the proprietaries—that every one ſhould enjoy the moſt perfect freedom in religion—that during five years, every freeman ſhould be allowed one hundred acres of land, and fifty for every ſervant, paying only an half-penny an acre—and that the ſame freedom from cuſtoms, which had been confirmed by the royal charter, ſhould be allowed to every one.

The proprietaries appointed Sir William Berkley, then Governor of Virginia, general ſuperintendent of the affairs of the county of Albermarle, within the boundaries of which, a ſmall plantation, of the New-Englanders probably, had been eſtabliſhed for ſome years, on the north-eaſtern ſhores of the river Chowan. Sir William Berkley repaired to the county, confirmed and granted lands on the conditions before mentioned, appointed Mr. Drummond, the firſt governor, and likewiſe other officers, and then returned to Virginia.

The aſſembly being diſſatisfied with the tenures by which they held their lands, petitioned the proprietaries, that the peo-

ple of Albemarle might hold their poſſeſſion on the ſame terms on which the Virginians enjoyed theirs, which was granted.

In 1665, the proprietaries appointed John Yeamans, a reſpectable planter of Barbadoes, commander in chief of Clarendon county, ſtretching from Cape Fear to the river St. Matheo, and he was at the ſame time created a baronet. To ſecure its proſperity, the ſame powers were conferred, and the ſame conſtitution eſtabliſhed, as thoſe which had made Albemarle happy.

A ſettlement was alſo projected to the ſouthward of Cape Romain, which acquired the name of Carteret. Thus a variety of ſeparate and independent colonies, each of which had its own government, its own aſſembly, its own cuſtoms and laws, were eſtabliſhed in Carolina.

In June the proprietaries obtained a ſecond charter, which recited and confirmed the former. They were enabled to make laws for the province, with the conſent of the freemen of their delegates; and likewiſe to grant titles of honour by the creation of a nobility. No one prerogative of the crown was reſerved, except the ſovereign dominion.

Samuel Stephens, Eſq. was appointed governor of Albemarle in October 1667, and was commanded to act agreeable to the advice of a council of twelve, the one half of which he was to appoint, the other was to be choſen by the aſſembly. The Aſſembly was to be compoſed of the governor, the council, and twelve delegates choſen annually by the freeholders. Various regulations provided for the ſecurity of property; and no taxes were to be impoſed without the conſent of the Aſſembly. The proprietaries might mean no more, than that neither they, nor the governor and council, ſhould impoſe taxes without the conſent of the Aſſembly; but the mode of expreſſion tended to confirm the people at large in the opinion of their being exempted from all taxes which had not the conſent of their own Aſſembly. The ſettlers had their lands confirmed, and granted to be now held by the free tenure of ſoccage, expreſſing a certain rent and independence. All men are declared entitled to equal privileges, on taking the oath of allegiance to the king, and of fidelity to the proprietaries.

It was not till 1669 that an Aſſembly conſtituted as above mentioned was convened; when it was enacted, "none ſhould be ſued during five years for any cauſe of action ariſing out of the country, and none ſhall accept a power of attorney, to receive the debts contracted abroad." Hence this colony

was long conſidered as the refuge of the criminal, and the aſylum of the fugitive debtor.

The proprietaries at length, diſſatisfied with every ſyſtem which they had hitherto deviſed for the government of their province, ſigned in July a body of fundamental conſtitutions compiled by the celebrated Locke, giving as a reaſon, "That we may eſtabliſh a government agreeable to the monarchy of which Carolina is a part, and may avoid making too numerous a democracy."

By this edict a palatine was to be choſen from among the proprietaries for life; who was to act as preſident of the palatine court, compoſed of the whole, which was intruſted with the execution of the powers of the charter. A body of hereditary nobility was created, and denominated landgraves and caciques; the former were to be inveſted with four baronies, each conſiſting of twelve thouſand acres, the latter to have two, containing one half of that quantity; and theſe eſtates were to deſcend with the dignities inſeparable. There were to be as many landgraves as counties, and twice as many caciques, but no more. Two fifths of the counties, ſtyled ſigniories and baronies, were to be poſſeſſed by the nobility; the other three fifths, called the colonies, were to be left among the people.

The provincial legiſlature, dignified with the name of Parliament, was to be biennial, and to conſiſt of the proprietaries or landgraves, or the deputy of each, of the cacique nobility and of the repreſentatives of the freeholders of every diſtrict, who were to meet in one apartment, and every member to enjoy an equal vote: but no buſineſs was to be propoſed till it had been debated in the grand council, whoſe duty it was to prepare bills for parliamentary conſideration. The Grand Council was to be compoſed of the governor, the nobility, and the deputies of the proprietaries (*theſe being abſent*,) and was inveſted with the executive of the province. The Church of England was alone to be allowed a public maintenance by Parliament; but every congregation might tax its own members for the ſupport of its own miniſters; and to every one was allowed, perfect freedom in religion. However the moſt degrading ſlavery was introduced, by inveſting in every man the property of his negro.*

* Locke's Works, vol. iv. p. 519, &c. 1779.

Theſe conſtitutions, conſiſting of one hundred and twenty articles, and containing a great variety of perplexing regulations, were declared to be the ſacred and unalterable rule of government in Carolina for ever: and yet they were never altogether adopted. The parties engaged in this act of legiſlation ſhould have reflected, that the inhabitants had ſettled on conditions which were no longer in their power to abrogate; and that in the forms of government which had been actually eſtabliſhed, the people had required an intereſt which could not be taken away without their conſent.

A number of emigrants were ſent over in January, 1670, under William Sayle, Eſq. appointed governor of that part of the coaſt which lies ſouth-weſt of Cape Carteret, to form a colony at Port Royal. They arrived ſafe; and as it was found impracticable to conform to the conſtitutions, it was determined to keep as cloſe to them as poſſible. Sayle dying, Sir John Yeamans had his command extended to and over this colony, in Auguſt, 1671. This year ſeveral planters reſorted from Clarendon on the north, and Port-Royal on the ſouth, to the banks of Aſhley river, for the convenience of paſture and tillage, and laid on the firſt high land the foundation of old Charleſton. The proprietors promulgated temporary laws, till through a ſufficient number of inhabitants, government could be adminiſtered according to the fundamental conſtitutions. The temporary laws were of no long duration, being derided by a people without whoſe conſent they had been eſtabliſhed.

In May, 1674, Joſeph Weſt, Eſq. was appointed governor of the ſouthern colony, in the room of Sir John Yeamans, with whoſe conduct the proprietaries were diſſatisfied. But the difficulty of eſtabliſhing the colony was not overcome for years; not till people repaired to it at their own expenſe, and men of eſtate ventured thither under the full perſuaſion of being fairly treated. In expectation of ſuch treatment, the Diſſenters being haraſſed by perſecutions in England, and dreading a Popiſh ſucceſſor, emigrated to Carolina in great numbers, and made a conſiderable part of the inhabitants. They acquired the honour of introducing religion into the province, while they ſtrengthened it alſo by their perſonal acceſſions. But the promiſing appearances of the country inviting over many of a very different ſtamp, after a while diſturbances followed.

The planters being informed that the Oyſter-Point, ſo delightfully formed by the confluence of the rivers Aſhley and Cooper, was more convenient than what was fixed upon eight years before,

and the proprietaries encouraging their inclination, they began to remove, and in the year 1680, laid the foundation of the preſent Charleſton, and built thirty houſes. It was inſtantly declared the port for the purpoſes of traffic, and the capital for the adminiſtration of government. It was long unhealthy; but the adjacent country being now cleared and cultivated, it is allowed to enjoy the moſt ſalubrious air of Carolina.

Though the province had been formed into manors and baronies, it was not till 1682 that it was divided into three counties. In the autumn of this year, Governor Weſt held a Parliament, and afterward immediately reſigned his adminiſtration to Mr. Joſeph Moreton. Thence commenced a reiterated change of governors. Kyrle, Weſt, Quarry, and Moreton, were ſucceſſively appointed. There was a ſimilar change of every public officer. Theſe changes produced turbulence and faction, and the ſcenes of anarchy produced by theſe meaſures were not changed, nor the condition of the colony mended, by the arrival of Governor Seth Sothel, in 1683, who was ſent in hope of quieting the diſorders by his authority, as he had purchaſed Lord Clarendon's ſhare of the province. He was guilty of ſuch bribery, extortion, injuſtice, rapacity, breach of truſt, and diſobedience of orders, for five years, that the inhabitants, driven almoſt to deſpair, ſeized him with a view of ſending him to England to anſwer to their complaints; but upon his entreaties, and offering to ſubmit their mutual accuſations to the next Aſſembly, they accepted his propoſal. The Aſſembly gave judgment againſt him in all the above-mentioned particulars, and compelled him to abjure the country for twelve months, and the government for ever.

Charleſton having been made the provincial port, the firſt collector was eſtabliſhed there in 1685. The governor and council were at the ſame time ordered, "Not to fail to ſhow their forwardneſs in aſſiſting the collection of the duty on tobacco tranſported to other colonies, and in ſeizing ſhips that preſumed to trade contrary to the acts of navigation." Little regard was paid to orders ſo contrary to the views of every one. An illicit trade was not only practiſed, but juſtified under a clauſe of the patent, which the people conſidered of ſuperior force to the law. Though the royal grant of 1665 was paſſed ſubſequent to the act of navigation, the preſent exemption was inſiſted upon with the ſame ſpirit, that it was contended during this reign, that a king of England may diſpenſe with the law.

The principle of the Carolinians, and the doctrine ſo faſhionable at the Court of James, were therefore exactly the ſame.

James Colleton, Eſq. a proprietary, was appointed governor in Auguſt, 1686. The next year he called an Aſſembly, in which he and his party took upon them to paſs ſuch laws as loſt him the affections of the people. During the ferments that followed, Seth Sothel, whom we have ſeen baniſhed from Albemarle, ſuddenly arrived at Charleſton. Countenanced by a powerful party, and preſuming on his powers as a proprietary, he ſeized the reins of government in 1690, notwithſtanding the oppoſition of the governor and council. A general return of members was procured, who readily ſanctioned by their votes whatever was dictated by thoſe who had thus acquired power. Colleton, whoſe conduct had been far from blameleſs, was inſtantly impeached of high crimes and miſdemeanors, diſabled from holding any office, and baniſhed. Others were fined, impriſoned, and expelled the province. The proprietaries appointed a new governor, and in the year, 1692, upon the requiſition of the Carolinians, abrogated Mr. Locke's ſyſtem of laws, the fundamental conſtitutions, which, from having anſwered their end, introduced only diſſatisfaction and diſorders, that were not cured till the final diſſolution of the proprietary government.* The operation and fate of Mr. Locke's ſyſtem may convince us of this truth, that a perſon "may defend the principles of liberty and the rights of makind, with great abilities and ſucceſs; and yet after all, when called upon to produce a plan of legiſlation, he may aſtoniſh the world with a ſignal abſurdity."†

Governor Archdale arrived at Carolina in Auguſt 1695: he managed with great prudence, and ſucceeded ſo well that the Aſſembly voted him an addreſs of thanks. He was ſucceeded by Joſeph Blake, Eſq. whoſe ſentiments were ſo liberal, that though a Diſſenter, he prevailed with the Aſſembly to ſettle one hundred and fifty pounds per annum upon the Epiſcopal miniſter at Charleſton, for ever, and likewiſe to furniſh him with a good houſe, a glebe, and two ſervants. A very different ſpirit wrought in the Earl of Bath, when he ſucceeded to the power of palatine, and became eldeſt proprietary, in 1701: being a zealot for the Church of England, he was ambitious of eſ-

* Chalmers' Political Annals, under the head of Carolina.

† Defence of the American Conſtitutions of Government, by John Adams, Eſq. p. 365.

tabliſhing its worſhip, and excluding non-epiſcopalians from a ſhare in the government of Carolina; a ſimilar principle was at that time too prevalent in England. His views were ſeconded by the pliability of Governor Moor, who was after a while ſucceeded by Sir Nathaniel Johnſon. Then the Aſſembly being convened, a bill was brought in for the more effectual preſervation of the government, by requiring all perſons choſen members of the Aſſembly, to conform to religious worſhip, and receive the ſacrement of the Lord's Supper, according to the uſage of the Church of England. By this act, all Diſſenters were diſqualified from ſitting in the Aſſembly, though legally elected, and the candidate who had the greateſt number of voices, after the diſqualified Diſſenter, was to be admitted. The paſſing of this act was unconſtitutional and oppreſſive. Another bill was paſſed for eſtabliſhing religious worſhip in the province, according to the Church of England, and alſo for the erecting of churches, the maintenance of miniſters, and the building of convenient parſonages. Both theſe acts were afterward ſigned and ſettled by John Lord Granville, then palatine, for himſelf and the other proprietors. In conſeqence of the laſt act, many oppreſſions were committed by the government againſt the Diſſenters, who laboured under theſe and other grievances, till the matter at length was brought before the Houſe of Lords, who, having fully weighed the ſame, addreſſed the Queen in favour of the Carolinians, and the laws complained of in 1706 were declared null and void.

About the year 1710, a number of Palatines from Germany, who had been reduced to circumſtances of great indigence by a calamitous war, took up their reſidence in this State. The proprietors of Carolina knowing that the value of their lands depended on the ſtrength of their ſettlements, determined to give every poſſible encouragement to ſuch emigrants. Ships were accordingly provided for their tranſportation, and inſtructions given to Governor Tynte, to allow one hundred acres of land for every man, woman, and child, free of quit rents for the firſt ten years; but at the expiration of that term, to pay one penny per acre annual rent, for ever, according to the uſages and cuſtoms of the province. Upon their arrival Governor Tynte granted them a tract of land in North-Carolina, ſince called Albemarle and Bath precincts, where they ſettled, and flattered themſelves with having found in the hideous wilderneſs, a happy retreat from the deſolations of a war which then raged in Europe.

In the year 1712, a dangerous conſpiracy was formed by the Coree and Tuſcorora tribes of Indians, to murder and expel this infant colony. The foundation for this conſpiracy is not known; probably they were offended at the incroachments upon their hunting ground. They managed their conſpiracy with great cunning and profound ſecrecy. They ſurrounded their principle town with a breaſt work to ſecure their families. Here the warriors convened to the number of twelve hundred. From this place of rendezvous they ſent out ſmall parties, by different roads, who entered the ſettlement under the maſk of friendſhip. At the change of the full moon all of them had agreed to begin their murderous operations the ſame night. When the night came, they entered the houſes of the planters, demanding proviſions; and pretending to be offended, fell to murdering men, women, and children, without mercy or diſtinction. One hundred and thirty-ſeven ſettlers, among whom were a Swiſs baron, and almoſt all the poor Palatines that had lately come into the country, were ſlaughtered the firſt night. Such was the ſecrecy and diſpatch of the Indians in this expedition, that none knew what had befallen his neighbour until the barbarians had reached his own door. Some few, however, eſcaped, and gave the alarm. The militia aſſembled in arms, and kept watch day and night until the news of the ſad diſaſter had reached the province of South-Carolina. Governor Craven loſt no time in ſending a force to their relief. The Aſſembly voted four thouſand pounds for the ſervice of the war. A body of ſix hundred militia, under the command of Colonel Barnwell, and three hundred and ſixty-ſix Indians of different tribes, with different commanders, marched with great expedition through a hideous wildernefs to their aſſiſtance. In their firſt encounter with the Indians they killed three hundred and took one hundred priſoners. After this defeat, the Tuſcororas retreated to their fortified town, which was ſhortly after ſurrendered to Colonel Barnwell. In this expedition it was computed that near a thouſand Tuſcororas were killed, wounded, and taken. The remainder of the tribe ſoon after abandoned their country, and joined the Five Nations, with whom they have ever ſince remained. After this, the infant colony remained in peace, and continued to flouriſh till about the year 1729, when ſeven of the proprietors, for a valuable conſideration, veſted their property and juriſdiction in the crown, and the colony was divided into two ſeparate provinces, by the name of North and South-Carolina, and their preſent limits eſtabliſhed by an order

of George II. From this period to the revolution in 1776, the hiſtory of North-Carolina is unpubliſhed, and of courſe, in a great meaſure, unknown, except to thoſe who have had acceſs to the records of the province. Some of the moſt important events that have ſince taken place, have, however, been already mentioned in the general hiſtory of the United States.

South-Carolina, from the period of its becoming a ſeparate colony, began to flouriſh. It was protected by a government, formed on the plan of the Engliſh conſtitution. Under the foſtering care of the Mother Country, its growth was aſtoniſhingly rapid. Between the years 1763 and 1775, the number of inhabitants was more than doubled. No one indulged a wiſh for a change in their political conſtitution, till the memorable ſtamp act paſſed in 1765.

From this period till 1775, as we have ſeen, various attempts were made by Great-Britain to tax her colonies, without their conſent; theſe attempts were invariably oppoſed. The Congreſs, who met at Philadelphia, unanimouſly approved the oppoſition, and on the 19th of April war commenced.

During the vigorous conteſt for independence this State was a great ſufferer. For three years it was the ſeat of war. It feels and laments the loſs of many reſpectable citizens, who fell in the glorious ſtruggle for the rights of man. Since the peace, it has been emerging from that melancholy confuſion and poverty, in which it was generally involved by the devaſtations of a relentleſs enemy. The inhabitants are faſt multiplying by emigrations from other States; the agricultural intereſts of the State are reviving; commerce is flouriſhing; economy is becoming more faſhionable; and ſcience begins to ſpread her ſalutary influences amongſt the citizens. And under the operation of the preſent government, this State, from her natural, commercial and agricultural advantages, and the abilities of her leading characters, promiſes to become one of the richeſt in the Union.*

TERRITORY S. OF THE OHIO.

The eaſtern parts of this diſtrict were explored by Colonels Wood, Patton, Buchanan, Captain Charles Campbell and Dr. T. Walker, each of whom were concerned in large grants of

* See Ramſay's Hiſtory of the Revolution in South-Carolina, and the Hiſtory of Carolina and Georgia, anonymous, ſuppoſed to be by Hewett.

lands from the government, as early as between the years of 1740 and 1750. In 1754, at the commencement of the French war, not more than fifty families had ſettled here, who were either deſtroyed or driven off by the Indians before the cloſe of the following year. It remained uninhabited till 1765, when the ſettlement of it re-commenced; and, in 1773, ſuch was the vaſt acceſſion of emigrants, that the country, as far weſt as the long iſland of Holſtein, an extent of more than one hundred and twenty miles in length from eaſt to weſt, was well peopled.

In 1774, a war broke out with the northern Indians over the Ohio, which iſſued in their ſuing for peace, which was granted them on eaſy terms.

The year 1776 was ſignalized by a formidable invaſion of the Cherokees, contrived by the Britiſh ſuperintendant, Mr. Steuart. Their intention was to depopulate the country as far as the Kanhawa, becauſe this brave people had rejected, with a noble firmneſs and indignation, the propoſals of Henry Steuart and Alexander Camerſon for joining the Britiſh ſtandard, and were almoſt unanimous in their reſolution to ſupport the meaſures of Congreſs. This invaſion terminated in a total defeat of the Indians.

In 1780, the *Tories* of the weſtern parts of North-Carolina and Virginia, emboldened by the reduction of Charleſton by the Britiſh, embodied in armed parties, and proceeded towards the lead mines on the Kanhawa, to take poſſeſſion of ſome lead ſtores at that place, but were defeated in their attempt by the vigilance of Colonel A. Campbell and Colonel Chockett.

Various other movements took place in the courſe of this year, but the moſt intereſting and brilliant was the battle of King's mountain, which was fought and won by about nine hundred mountaineers, as the veteran ſons of this diſtrict were called, commanded by the brave General William Campbell, againſt a party of the Britiſh under the command of Colonel Ferguſon. Upwards of one thouſand one hundred of the enemy were either killed, wounded, or taken; among the former was Colonel Ferguſon, an officer of diſtinguiſhed merit.* In arouſing the inhabitants, iſſuing orders, collecting the forces, and in arranging and animating the men, at the place of rendezvous, previous to this ſucceſsful expedition, much was

* See Ramſay's Revol. South Carolina, vol. ii. page 181.

done by the activity and deciſion of Colonel Arthur Campbell, the ſenior officer of ther diſtrict, to whom much praiſe is due.

Soon after this, to defeat a meditated invaſion of the Cherokee Indians, which was diſcovered by NANCY WARD, an Indian woman, called, from this circumſtance, the weſtern *Pocahonta*, Colonel A. Campbell, with ſeven hundred mountaineers, well mounted, penetrated far into the Cherokee country, introduced the new and ſucceſsful mode of fighting Indians, on horſeback, accompliſhed his deſigns, and returned in January, 1781.

In the celebrated battle at Guildford, March 15, 1781, the mountaineers, under General W. Campbell, who on that day commanded with great applauſe the left wing of the army, behaved with their uſual gallantry. This nearly cloſed the active part which the mountain men took in the American war.

In 1782, the legiſlature of North-Carolina appointed commiſſioners to explore the weſtern part of the State, by which is meant the lands included in Davidſon county, thoſe between the ſouth boundary of this county, and thoſe between the rivers Miſſiſſippi and Tenneſſee, and their orders were to report to the ſucceeding legiſlature, which part was beſt for the payment of the bounty promiſed to the officers and ſoldiers of the continental line of that State; and they accordingly did explore the before-deſcribed tract of country, and reported to the legiſlature in the ſpring of the year 1783. A few families had ſettled in this country in the year 1780, under the guidance of Colonel James Robertſon, on Cumberland river, and called the place Naſhville, in honour of Brigadier-general Francis Naſh, who fell at German town in the year 1777; but their numbers were trivial until the year 1783, after the peace had taken place, and after an act had paſſed, directing the military or bounty warrants of the officers and ſoldiers to be located in this county. Theſe circumſtances induced many officers and ſoldiers to repair immediately thither, to ſecure and ſettle their lands; and ſuch as did not chuſe to go, ſold their warrants to citizens who did go: in conſequence of this, many people from almoſt every State in the Union became purchaſers of theſe military warrants, and are ſince become reſidents of this county; and many valuable and opulent families have removed to it from the Natches. Colonel Robertſon, when he ſettled at Naſhville, was upwards of two hundred miles diſtant, to the weſt-ward, from any other ſettlement in his own State, and was equally diſtant from the then-ſettled parts of Kentucky. Hence it will

readily be ſupported, that himſelf and party were in danger every hour of being cut off by the Indians, againſt whom his principal ſecurity was, that he was as far diſtant from them as from the white people; and ſlender as this ſecurity may appear, his party never ſuſtained from them any damage, but what was done by parties of hunters, who happened to find out his ſettlement.

In 1785, in conformity to the reſolves of Congreſs of April 23, 1784, the inhabitants of this diſtrict eſſayed to form themſelves into a body politic, by the name of the "State of Frankland;" but, differing among themſelves as to the form of government, and about other matters, in the iſſue of which ſome blood was ſhed, and being oppoſed by ſome leading characters in the eaſtern parts, the ſcheme was given up, and the inhabitants remained in general peaceable until 1790, when Congreſs eſtabliſhed their preſent government. Since this period, ſome late incurſions of the Indians excepted, the inhabitants have been peaceable and proſperous.

GEORGIA.

The ſettlemsnt of a colony between the rivers Savannah and Alatamaha was meditated in England in 1732, for the accommodation of poor people in Great-Britain and Ireland, and for the farther ſecurity of Carolina. Private compaſſion and public ſpirit conſpired to promote the benevolent deſign. Humane and opulent men ſuggeſted a plan of tranſporting a number of indigent families to this part of America, free of expenſe. For this purpoſe they applied to the King, George the Second, and obtained from him letters patent, bearing date June 9, 1732, for legally carrying into execution what they had generouſly projected. They called the new province Georgia, in honour of the *King*, who encouraged the plan. A corporation, conſiſting of twenty-one perſons, was conſtituted by the name of the truſtees for ſettling and eſtabliſhing the colony of Georgia, which was ſeparated from Carolina by the river Savannah. The truſtees having at firſt ſet an example themſelves, by largely contributing to the ſcheme, undertook alſo to ſolicit benefactions from others, and to apply the money towards clothing, arming, purchaſing utenſils for cultivation, and tranſporting ſuch poor people as ſhould conſent to go over and begin a ſettlement. They did not confine their charitable views to the ſubjects of Britain alone, but wiſely opened a door for the

indigent and oppreſſed Proteſtants of other nations. To prevent a miſapplication of the money, it was depoſited in the Bank of England.

About the middle of July, 1732, the truſtees for Georgia held their firſt meeting, and choſe Lord Percival preſident of the corporation, and ordered a common ſeal to be made. In November following, one hundred and ſixteen ſettlers embarked for Georgia, to be conveyed thither free of expenſe, furniſhed with every thing requiſite for building and for cultivating the ſoil. James Oglethorpe, one of the truſtees, and an active promoter of the ſettlement, embarked as the head and director of theſe ſettlers. They arrived at Charleſton early in the next year, where they met with a friendly reception from the governor and council. Mr. Oglethorpe, accompanied by William Bull, ſhortly after his arrival viſited Georgia, and after reconnoitring the country, marked the ſpot on which Savannah now ſtands, as the fitteſt to begin a ſettlement. Here they accordingly began and built a ſmall fort, and a number of ſmall huts for their defence and accommodation. Such of the ſettlers as were able to bear arms were embodied, and well appointed with officers, arms and ammunition. A treaty of friendſhip was concluded between them and their neighbours, and the Creek Indians, and every thing wore the aſpect of peace and future proſperity.

In the mean time the truſtees of Georgia had been employed in framing a plan of ſettlement, and eſtabliſhing ſuch public regulations as they judged moſt proper for anſwering the great end of the corporation. In the general plan they conſidered each inhabitant both as a planter and as a ſoldier, who muſt be provided with arms and ammunition for defence, as well as with tools and utenſils for cultivation. As the ſtrength of the province was the object in view, they agreed to eſtabliſh ſuch tenures for holding lands in it, as they judged moſt favourable for military eſtabliſhment. Each tract of land granted was conſidered as a military fief, for which the poſſeſſor was to appear in arms, and take the field, when called upon for the public defence. To prevent large tracts from falling, in proceſs of time, to one perſon, they agreed to grant their lands in tail male, in preference to tail general. On the termination of the eſtate in tail male, the lands were to revert to truſt; and ſuch lands thus reverting were to be granted again to ſuch perſons, as the common council of the truſt ſhould judge moſt advantageous for the colony; only the truſtees in ſuch a caſe were to pay ſpecial regard to the daughters of ſuch perſons as had made

improvements on their lots, eſpecially when not already provided for by marriage. The wives of ſuch perſons as ſhould ſurvive them, were to be, during their lives, entitled to the manſion-houſe, and one half of the lands improved by their huſbands. No man was to be permitted to depart the province without licence. If any of the lands granted by the truſtees were not cultivated, cleared and fenced round about with a worm fence, or pales ſix feet high, within eighteen years from the date of the grant, ſuch part was to revert to the truſt, and the grant with reſpect to it to be void. All forfeitures for non-reſidences, high treaſons, felonies, &c. were to the truſtees, for the uſe and benefit of the colony. THE USE OF NEGROES TO BE ABSOLUTELY PROHIBITED, *and alſo*, THE IMPORTATION OF RUM. None of the coloniſts were to be permitted to trade with the Indians, but ſuch as ſhould obtain a ſpecial licence for that purpoſe.

Theſe were ſome of the fundamental regulations eſtabliſhed by the truſtees of Georgia, and perhaps the imagination could ſcarcely have framed a ſyſtem of rules, worſe adapted to the circumſtances and ſituation of the poor ſettlers, and of more pernicious conſequence to the proſperity of the province. Yet, although the truſtees were greatly miſtaken with reſpect to the plan of ſettlement, it muſt be acknowledged their views were generous. As the people ſent out by them were the poor and unfortunate, who were to be provided with neceſſaries at their public ſtore, they received their lands upon condition of cultivation, perſonal reſidance, and defence.

Silk and wine being the chief articles intended to be raiſed, they judged negroes were not requiſite for theſe purpoſes. As the colony was deſigned to be a barrier to South-Carolina againſt the Spaniſh ſettlement at Auguſtine, they imagined that negroes would rather weaken than ſtrengthen it, and that ſuch poor coloniſts would run in debt, and ruin themſelves by purchaſing them. Rum was judged pernicious to health, and ruinous to the infant ſettlement. A free trade with the Indians was a thing that might have had a tendency to have involved the people in quarrels and troubles with the powerful ſavages, and have expoſed them to danger and deſtruction. Such were, probably, the motives which induced the truſtees to impoſe ſuch fooliſh and ridiculous reſtrictions on the colony. For by granting their ſmall eſtates in tail male, they drove the ſettlers from Georgia, who ſoon found that abundance of lands could be obtained in America upon a larger ſcale, and on much better terms. By the prohibition of negroes, an act which

we muſt, however, have praiſed if it had originated in principles of humanity, they rendered it impracticable, in ſuch a climate, to make any impreſſion on the thick foreſts, Europeans being utterly unqualified for the heavy taſk. By diſcharging a trade with the Weſt-Indies, they deprived the coloniſts of an excellent and convenient market for their lumber, of which they had abundance on their lands. The truſtees, like other diſtant legiſlators, were liable to many errors and miſtakes; and however good their deſign, their rules were found improper and impracticable. The Carolinians plainly perceived that they would prove inſurmountable obſtacles to the progreſs and proſperity of the colony, and therefore, from motives of pity, began to invite the poor Georgians to come over Savannah river and ſettle into Carolina, being convinced that they could never ſucceed under ſuch impolitic and oppreſſive reſtrictions.

Beſides the large ſums of money which the truſtees had expended for the ſettlement of Georgia, the Parliament had alſo granted, during the two laſt years, thirty-ſix thouſand pounds towards carrying into execution the purpoſe of the corporation. But after the repreſentation and memorial from the legiſlature of Carolina reached Britain, the nation conſidered Georgia to be of the utmoſt importance to the Britiſh ſettlements in America, and began to make ſtill more vigorous efforts for its ſpeedy population. The firſt embarkations of poor people from England, being collected from towns and cities, were found equally as idle and uſeleſs members of ſociety abroad as they had been at home. An hardy and bold race of men, inured to rural labour and fatigue, they were perſuaded, would be much better adapted both for cultivation and defence. To find men poſſeſſed of theſe qualifications, they turned their eyes to Germany and the Highlands of Scotland, and reſolved to ſend over a number of Scotch and German labourers to their infant province. When they publiſhed their terms at Inverneſs, an hundred and thirty Highlanders immediately accepted them, and were tranſported to Georgia. A townſhip on the river Alatamaha, which was conſidered as the boundary between the Britiſh and Spaniſh territories, was allotted for the Higlanders, in which dangerous ſituation they ſettled, and built a town, which they called New-Inverneſs. About the ſame time an hundred and ſeventy Germans embarked with James Oglethorpe, and were fixed in another quarter; ſo that, in the ſpace of three years, Georgia received above four hundred Britiſh ſub-

jects, and about an hundred and ſeventy foreigners. Afterwards ſeveral adventurers both from Scotland and Germany, followed their countrymen, and added farther ſtrength to the province, and the truſtees flattered themſelves with the hope of ſoon ſeeing it in a promiſing condition.

Their hopes, however, were vain: their injudicious regulations and reſtrictions, the wars in which they were involved with the Spaniards and Indians, and the frequent inſurrections among themſelves, threw the colony into a ſtate of confuſion and wretchedneſs; their oppreſſed ſituation was repreſented to the truſtees by repeated complaints; till at length, finding that the province languiſhed under their care, and with the complaints of the people, they, in the year 1752, ſurrendered their charter to the King, and it was made a royal government. In conſequence of which, his Majeſty appointed John Reynolds, an officer of the navy, governor of the province, and a legiſlature, ſimilar to that of the other royal governments in America, was eſtabliſhed in it. Great had been the expenſe which the Mother Country had already incurred, beſides private benefactions, for ſupporting this colony; and ſmall had been the returns yet made by it. The veſtiges of cultivation were ſcarcely perceptable in the foreſts, and in England all commerce with it was neglected and deſpiſed. At this time the whole annual exports of Georgia did not amount to ten thouſand pounds ſterling. Though the people now poſſeſſed the ſame liberties and privileges which were enjoyed by their neighbours, yet ſeveral years elapſed before the value of the lands in Georgia was known, and that ſpirit of induſtry broke out in it, which afterwards diffuſed its happy influence over the country.

In the year 1740, the late Rev. George Whitefield founded an orphan houſe academy in Georgia, about twelve miles from Savannah. For the ſupport of this, he collected large ſums of money from all denominations of Chriſtians, both in England and America. A part of this money was expended in erecting proper buildings to accommodate the ſtudents, and a part in ſupporting them. In 1768 it was propoſed, that the orphan houſe ſhould be erected into a college; whereupon Mr. Whitefield applied to the Crown for a charter, but, in conſequence of ſome diſpute, the affair of a charter was given up, and Mr. Whitefield made his aſſignment of the orphan houſe, *in truſt*, to the late Counteſs of Huntingdon. Mr. Whitefield died at Newbury port, in New-England, September 30, 1770,

in the fifty-ſixth year of his age, and was buried under the Preſbyterian church in that place.

Soon after his death, a charter was granted to his inſtitution in Georgia, and the Rev. Mr. Piercy was appointed preſident of the college. Mr. Piercy accordingly went over to execute his office, but, unfortunately, on the 30th of May, 1775, the orphan houſe building caught fire, and was entirely conſumed, except the two wings, which are ſtill remaining. The American war ſoon after came on, and put every thing into confuſion, and the funds have ever ſince lain in an unproductive ſtate. It is probable, that the college eſtate may hereafter be ſo incorporated with the univerſity of Georgia, as to ſubſerve the original and pious purpoſes of its founder.

From the time Georgia became a royal government, in 1752, till the peace of Paris, in 1763, ſhe ſtruggled under many difficulties, ariſing from the want of credit from friends, and the frequent moleſtations of enemies. The good effects of the peace were ſenſibly felt in the province of Georgia. From this time it began to flouriſh, under the fatherly care of Governor Wright.

During the late war Georgia was over-run by the Britiſh troops, and the inhabitants were obliged to flee into the neighbouring States for ſafety. The ſufferings and loſſes of its citizens were as great, in proportion to their numbers and wealth, as in any of the States. Since the peace the progreſs of the population of this State has been rapid: its growth in improvement and population has, however, been checked by the hoſtile irruptions of the Creek Indians, which have been frequent, and very diſtreſſing to the frontier inhabitants.*

Having thus briefly ſketched the hiſtory of the ſettlement of the States comprehended in this diviſion, we now proceed to a more particular deſcription of them.

* For a more minute hiſtorical account of this State, ſee Hewitt's Hiſtory of South-Carolina and Georgia.

STATE OF

MARYLAND.

SITUATION, EXTENT, AND BOUNDARIES.

THIS State is ſituated between 37° 56′ and 39° 44′ north latitude, and 0° and 4° 30′ weſt longitude, from Philadelphia—its length is about one hundred and thirty-four miles, and its breadth one hundred and ten. It is bounded on the north by the State of Pennſylvania; on the eaſt by the State of Delaware; and on the ſouth-eaſt and ſouth by the Atlantic ocean; and a line drawn from the ocean over the peninſula (dividing it from Accomack county in Virginia) to the mouth of the Potomack river; thence up the Potomack to its ſource; thence by a north line till it interſects the ſouthern boundary of Pennſylvania, in latitude 39° 43′ 18″; ſo that it has Virginia on the ſouth, ſouth-weſt and weſt; it contains about fourteen thouſand ſquare miles, of which from one-ſixth to one-fourth it water.

AIR AND CLIMATE.

The climate of this State is in general mild and agreeable, ſuited to agricultural productions, and a great variety of fruit trees: the air in the interior of the country is ſalubrious, and favourable to the inhabitants, who, in the hilly parts, are as healthy as in any part of the Union; but in the flat lands, in the neighbourhood of marſhes and ſtagnant waters, as in the other Southern States, they are ſubject to intermittents and other complaints common to ſwampy ſituations.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, &c.

Eaſt of the blue ridge of mountains, which ſtretches acroſs the weſtern part of this State, the land, like that in all the Southern States, is generally level and free of ſtones; and ap-

pears to have been made much in the ſame way; of courſe the ſoil muſt be ſimilar, and the natural growth not remarkably different.

The ground is uniformly level and low in moſt of the counties on the eaſtern ſhore, and conſequently covered in many places with ſtagnant water, except where it is interſected by numerous creeks. Here alſo are large tracts of marſh, which, during the day, load the atmoſphere with vapour, that again falls in dew in the cloſe of the ſummer and fall ſeaſons.

Cheſapeak bay divides this State into the eaſtern and weſtern diviſions. This bay, which is the largeſt in the United States, has been already deſcribed.* It affords many good fiſheries, and is remarkable for the excellence of its crabs, and alſo for a particular ſpecies of wild duck, called CANVAS BACK. In a commercial view, this bay is of immenſe advantage to the State; it receives a number of large rivers. From the eaſtern ſhore in Maryland, among other ſmaller ones, it receives the Pocomoke, Nantikoke, Choptank, Cheſter and Elk rivers; from the north, the rapid Suſquehannah; and from the weſt, the Patapſco, Severn, Patuxent and Potomack, half of which is in Maryland, and half in Virginia. Except the Suſquehannah and Potomack, theſe are ſmall rivers. Patapſco river is but about thirty or forty yards wide at the ferry, juſt before it empties into the baſon upon which Baltimore ſtands; its ſource is in York county, in Pennſylvania; its courſe is ſouthwardly till it reaches Elk-ridge landing, about eight miles weſtward of Baltimore; it then turns eaſtward, in a broad bay-like ſtream, by Baltimore, which it leaves on the north, and paſſes into the Cheſapeak.

The entrance into Baltimore harbour, about a mile below Fell's Point, is hardly piſtol ſhot acroſs, and of courſe may be eaſily defended againſt naval force.

Severn is a ſhort, inconſiderable river, paſſing by Annapolis, which it leaves to the ſouth, emptying, by a broad mouth, into the Cheſapeak.

Patuxent is a larger river than the Patapſco; it riſes in Ann-Arundel connty, and runs ſouth-eaſtwardly, and then eaſt into the bay, fifteen or twenty miles north of the mouth of the Potomack. There are alſo ſeveral ſmall rivers, ſuch as the Wighcomico, Eaſtern Branch, Monocaſy and Conegocheague, which empty into the Potomack from the Maryland ſide.

* Page 195, Vol. I.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

The ſoil of the good land in Maryland is of ſuch a nature and quality as to produce from twelve to ſixteen buſhels of wheat, or from twenty to thirty buſhels of Indian corn per acre. Ten buſhels of wheat, and fifteen buſhels of corn per acre, may be the annual average crops in the State at large.

Wheat and tobacco are the ſtaple commodities. Tobacco is generally cultivated in ſets, by negroes, in the following manner: The ſeed is ſown in beds of fine mould, and tranſplanted the beginning of May; the plants are ſet at the diſtance of three or four feet from each other, and are hilled and kept continually free of weeds: when as many leaves have ſhot out as the ſoil will nouriſh to advantage, the top of the plant is broken off, which prevents its growing higher; it is carefully kept clear of worms, and the ſuckers, which put out between the leaves, are taken off at proper times, till the plant arrives at perfection, which is in Auguſt; when the leaves turn of a browniſh colour, and begin to be ſpotted, the plant is cut down and hung up to dry, after having ſweated in heaps one night. When it can be handled without crumbling, which is always in moiſt weather, the leaves are ſtripped from the ſtalk, and tied in bundles, and packed for exportation in hogſheads, containing eight or nine hundred pounds. No ſuckers nor ground leaves are allowed to be merchantable. An induſtrious perſon may manage ſix thouſand plants of tobacco, which yield a thouſand pounds, and four acres of Indian corn.

In the interior country, on the uplands, conſiderable quantities of hemp and flax are raiſed. As long ago as 1751, in the month of October, no leſs than ſixty waggons loaded with flax ſeed came down to Baltimore from the back country.

Two articles are ſaid to be peculiar to Maryland, viz. the genuine *white* wheat, which grows in Kent, Queen Ann's and Talbot counties, on the eaſtern ſhore, and which degenerates in other places, and the bright *kite's foot* tobacco, which is produced at Elkridge, on the Patuxent, on the weſtern ſhore.

Among other kinds of timber is the oak, of ſeveral kinds, which is of a ſtraight grain, and eaſily rives into ſtaves, for exportation. The black walnut is in demand for cabinet, tables and other furniture. The apples of this State are large, but

mealy; the peaches plenty and good: from theſe the inhabitants diſtil cyder and peach brandy.

In Worceſter county a ſpecies of grape vine, of a peculiar kind, has been diſcovered by a Mr. Jones, of Indian river. The bark is of a grey colour, very ſmooth, and the wood of a firm texture. They delight in the high ſandy ſoil, but will thrive very well in the Cyprus ſwamps. The leaf is very much like that of the Engliſh grape vine, ſuch as is propagated in the gardens near Philadelphia for table uſe.

The grape is much larger than the Engliſh, of an oval ſhape, and, when quite ripe, is black, adorned with a number of pale red ſpecks, which, on handling, rub off. The pulp is a little like the fox grape, but in taſte more delicious. Theſe grapes are ripe in October, and yield an incredible quantity of juice, which, with proper management, would no doubt make a valuable wine.

Mr. Jones employed a perſon to gather about three buſhels and one peck of them when ripe, and immediately had them preſſed; which, to his ſurpriſe, yielded twelve gallons of pure juice, though a good quantity muſt have been loſt in the preſſing.

In about twelve hours after putting the juice in a keg it began to ferment, and he ſuffered it to go on till it got to be ſo violent, that it might be heard all over a large room. It continued in that ſtate for three days. He then checked it, fearing it might turn acid, though, he ſays, he was afterwards convinced, that if he had ſuffered it to ferment as long again, it would have ſeparated the vinous parts from the fleſhy, and given greater fineneſs to the liquor.

After this it was racked off, and before cold weather buried in the garden, the top about ſix inches under ground; where having continued till the ſummer following, he could not diſcover that it had in the leaſt altered, either in taſte or colour. He obſerves farther, that, after eating a quantity of them, or drinking the juice, they leave an aſtringency, as claret is apt to do.

There is an immenſe quantity of theſe vines growing on the beach, open to the ſea; and they are alſo found in great plenty upon the ridges and in the ſwamps. Since their diſcovery Mr. Jones has tranſplanted a number of them into his vineyard, from which, in a year or two more, he expects to make a wine much better than is commonly imported.

The foreſts abound with nuts of various kinds, which are collectively called *maſt*; on this maſt great numbers of ſwine are fed, which run wild in the woods: theſe ſwine, when fated,

are caught, killed, barrelled, and exported in great quantities. This traffic formerly was carried on to a very conſiderable extent. Mines of iron ore are found in ſeveral parts of this State, of a ſuperior quality.

CIVIL DIVISIONS AND CHIEF TOWNS.

This State is divided into nineteen counties, eleven of which are on the weſtern ſhore of Cheſapeak bay, viz. Hartford, Baltimore, Ann-Arundel, Frederick, Allegany, Waſhington, Montgomery, Prince George, Calvert, Charles and St. Mary's; and eight on the eſtern ſhore, viz. Cecil, Kent, Queen Ann, Caroline, Talbot, Somerſet, Dorcheſter and Worceſter. The principal towns in this State are as follows:

ANNAPOLIS.

Annapolis (city) is the capital of Maryland, and the wealthieſt town of its ſize in America; it is ſituated at the mouth of Severn River, and was originally known by that name, which was changed for its preſent one in 1694, when it was made a port town, and the reſidence of a collector and naval officer: it ſtands on a healthy ſpot, thirty miles ſouth of Baltimore, in north latitude 29° 25′; it is a place of but little note in the commercial world. The houſes, about two hundred and ſixty in number, are generally large and elegant, indicative of great wealth; the number of inhabitants does not exceed two thouſand. The deſign of thoſe who planned the city was to have the whole in the form of a circle, with the ſtreets like radii, beginning at the center where the State Houſe ſtands, and thence diverging in every direſtion. The principal part of the buldings are arranged agreeably to this aukward and ſtupid plan. It has a State Houſe, which is an elegant building.

BALTIMORE.

Baltimore has had the moſt rapid growth of any town on the continent, and is the fourth in ſize and the fifth in trade in the United States.* It lies in latitude 39° 21′, on the north ſide of Patapſco River, around what is called the Baſon, in which the water at common tides, is about five or ſix feet deep. Baltimore is divided into the town and Fell's Point by a creek, over which are two bridges. At Fell's Point the water is deep enough

* In point of ſize, the towns in the United States may be ranked in this order—Philadelphia, New-York, Boſton, Baltimore, Charleſton, &c. In point of trade, New-York, Philadelphia, Boſton, Charleſton, Baltimore, &c.

for ſhips of burden; but ſmall veſſels only go up to the town. The ſituation of the town is low, and was formerly unhealthy; but the increaſe of houſes, and, of courſe, of ſmoke, the tendency of which is to deſtroy or diſpel damp and unwholeſome vapours, and the improvements that have been made, particularly that of paving the ſtreets, have rendered it tolerably healthy. The houſes were numbered in 1787, and found to be one thouſand nine hundred and fifty-five, about twelve hundred of which were in the town, and the reſt at Fell's Point; the preſent number is about two thouſand three hundred. The number of warehouſes and ſtores are from one hundred and eighty to two hundred, and of churches nine, which belong to German Calviniſts and Lutherans, Epiſcopalians, Preſbyterians, Roman Catholics, Baptiſts, Methodiſts, Quakers and Nicolites, or New Quakers. The number of inhabitants in the town and precincts, according to the cenſus of 1790, was thirteen thouſand five hundred and three; they have greatly increaſed ſince that time.

Market-ſtreet is the principal ſtreet in the town, and runs nearly eaſt and weſt a mile in length, parallel with the water: this is croſſed by ſeveral other ſtreets leading from the water, a number of which, particularly Calvert, South and Gay ſtreets, are well built. North and eaſt of the town the land riſes and affords a fine proſpect of the town and bay. Belvidera, the ſeat of Colonel Howard, exhibits a fine landſcape—the town—the point—the ſhipping, both in the baſon and at Fell's Point—the bay, as far as the eye can reach—the riſing ground on the right and left of the harbour—a grove of trees on the declivity at the right—a ſtream of water breaking over the rocks at the foot of the hill on the left—all conſpire to complete the beauty and grandeur of the proſpect.

GEORGE-TOWN.

George-town ſtands on the bank of the Potomack river, about an hundred an ſixty miles from its entrance into Cheſapeak bay. The ground on which it ſtands is very broken, being a cluſter of little hills, which though at preſent elevated conſiderably above the ſurface of the river, were, probably, at ſome former period overflowed, as at the depth of eight or ten feet below the ſurface marine ſhells having been found. Dr. Martin concludes an account of the climate and diſeaſes of this town in the following words:

"Upon the whole, George-town and its vicinity may be conſidered as a healthy part of America; and in any diſputes

about the propriety of the ſeat of the general government being fixed here, no objection can be urged againſt it on account of its diſeaſes."

FREDERICK-TOWN.

Frederick-town is a fine flouriſhing inland town, of upwards of three hundred houſes, built principally of brick and ſtone, and moſtly on one broad ſtreet: it is ſituated in a fertile country, about four miles ſouth of Catokton mountain, and is a place of conſiderable trade; it has four places for public worſhip; one for Preſbyterians, two for Dutch Lutherans and Calvaniſts, and one for Baptiſts; beſides a public goal and a brick market-houſe.

HAGARS-TOWN.

Hagars-town is but little inferior to Frederick-town, and is ſituated in the beautiful and well-cultivated valley of Conego-cheague, and carries on a conſiderable trade with the weſtern country.

ELKTON.

Elkton is ſituated near the head of Cheſapeak bay, on a ſmall river which bears the name of the town. It enjoys great advantages from the carrying-trade between Baltimore and Philadelphia, and the tides ebb and flow up to the town.

POPULATION.

In 1782 the number of inhabitants in this State, including ſlaves, was two hundred and fifty-four thouſand and fifty. According to the cenſus of 1790 it was as follows:

MARYLAND.

COUNTIES AND TOWNS.	Free white males of 16 years and upwards.	Free white males under 16 years.	Free white females.	All other free persons	Slaves.	Total.
Harford County,	2872	2812	5100	775	3417	14976
Baltimore do.	5184	4668	9101	604	5877	25434
Baltimore Town and Precincts	3866	2556	5503	323	1255	13503
Ann-Arundel county	3142	2850	5672	804	10130	22598
Frederick do.	7010	7016	12911	213	3641	30791
Allegany do.	1068	1283	2188	12	258	4809
Waſhington do.	3738	3863	6871	64	1281	15822
Montgomery do.	3284	2746	5649	29[illegible]	603c	18003
Prince George do.	2653	2503	4848	16[illegible]	1117[illegible]	21344
Calvert do.	1091	1109	2011	136	430[illegible]	8652
Charles do.	2565	2399	5160	404	10085	20613
St. Mary's do.	2100	1943	4173	342	6985	15544
Cecil do.	2847	2377	4831	161	3407	13625
Kent do.	1876	1547	3325	65	5433	12836
Queen Ann's do.	2158	1974	4039	618	6674	15463
Caroline do.	1812	1727	3489	421	2057	9506
Talbot do.	1938	1712	3581	1076	4777	13084
Somerſet do.	2185	1908	4179	268	7070	15610
Dorcheſter do.	2541	2430	5039	528	5337	15875
Worceſter do.	1985	1916	3725	178	3836	11640
	55915	51339	101395	8043	103036	319728

By comparing theſe two accounts, the increaſe appears to be ſixty-five thouſand ſix hundred and ſeventy-eight in eight years, or eight thouſand two hundred and ſix per annum—reckoning, therefore, only on the ſame proportion of increaſe, the preſent number of inhabitants in this State cannot be leſs than three hundred and fifty thouſand.

RELIGION AND CHARACTER.

The Roman Catholics, who were the firſt ſettlers in Maryland, are the moſt numerous religious ſect. Beſides theſe, there are Proteſtant Epiſcopalians, Engliſh, Scotch, and Iriſh Preſby-

terians, German Calviniſts, German Lutherans, Friends, Baptiſts, Methodiſts, Menoniſts and Nicolites, or new Quakers, who all enjoy liberty of conſcience.

There are many very reſpectable families in Baltimore who live genteelly, are hoſpitable to ſtrangers, and maintain a friendly and improving intercourſe with each other; but the bulk of the inhabitants, recently collected from almoſt all quarters of the world, bent on the purſuit of wealth, varying in their habits, their manners, and their religions, have yet their general character to form.

The inhabitants, except in the populous towns, live on their plantations, often ſeveral miles diſtant from each other. To an inhabitant of the middle, and eſpecially of the eaſtern States, which are thickly populated, they appear to live very retired unſocial lives. The effects of this comparative ſolitude are viſible in the countenances, as well as in the manners and dreſs of many of the country people. You obſerve comparatively little of that cheerful ſprightlineſs of look and action, which is the invariable and genuine offspring of ſocial intercourſe; nor do you find that attention paid to dreſs which is common, and which cuſtom has rendered neceſſary among people who are liable to receive company almoſt every day: unaccuſtomed, in a great meaſure, to frequent and friendly viſits, they often ſuffer too much negligence in their dreſs. As the negroes perform all their manual labour, their maſters are left to ſaunter away life in ſloth, and too often in ignorance. Theſe obſervations, however, muſt, in juſtice, be limited to the people in the country, and to thoſe particularly whoſe poverty or parſimony prevents their ſpending a part of their time in populous towns, or otherwiſe mingling with the world; and with theſe limitations, they will equally apply to all the ſouthern States. The inhabitants of the populous towns, and thoſe from the country who have intercourſe with them, are, in their manners and cuſtoms, genteel and agreeable.

That pride which grows on ſlavery, and is habitual to thoſe who, from their infancy, are taught to believe and feel their ſuperiority, is a viſible characteriſtic of the inhabitants of Maryland; but with this characteriſtic we muſt not fail to connect that of hoſpitality to ſtrangers, which is equally univerſal and obvious. Many of the women poſſeſs all the amiable, and many of the elegant accompliſhments of their ſex.

The inhabitants are made up of various nations of many different religious ſentiments; few general obſervations, therefore, of a characteriſtical kind will apply: it may be ſaid, how-

ever, with great truth, that they are in general very federal, and friends to good government. They owe little money as a State, and are willing and able to diſcharge their debts: their credit is very good; and although they have ſo great a proportion of ſlaves, yet a number of influential perſons evinced their humanity and their diſpoſition to aboliſh ſo curſed and diſreputable a traffic, by forming themſelves into "a ſociety for the abolition of negro ſlavery." What pleaſure muſt it afford theſe exalted characters, as well as every other friend of humanity, to reflect, that what they undertook as individuals, has been at length fully approved of, and completely accompliſhed by the federal government, who by an act that will reflect honour upon it to the lateſt period of time, have ſet bounds to the infamous diſtinction between men WHOSE ONLY REAL DIFFERENCE IS COLOUR, and who have ſecured, without injuſtice or injury to any individual, at an early period, the entire abolition of ſlavery in name and practice. We join the general wiſh of thoſe whoſe object is the general happineſs of the human race—that the ſpirit of philanthropic liberty in the breaſt of every individual in the Union, may ſecond and cheriſh the efforts of the government in extending the knowledge and enjoyment of the rights of man to an hitherto enſlaved world.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.

Furnaces for running iron ore into pigs and hollow ware, and forges to refine pig iron into bars, are numerous, and worked to great extent and profit. This is the only manufacture of importance carried on in the State, except it be that of wheat into flour and curing tobacco.

The trade of Maryland is principally carried on from Baltimore, with the other States; with the Weſt-Indies, and with ſome parts of Europe. To theſe places they ſend annually about thirty thouſand hogſheads of tobacco, beſides large quantities of wheat, flour, pig iron, lumber, and corn; beans, pork, and flax ſeed in ſmaller quantities; and receive in return, clothing for themſelves and negroes, and other dry goods, wines, ſpirits, ſugars, and other Weſt-India commodities. The balance is generally in their favour.

	Dols.	Cts.
The total amount of exports from Baltimore from Oct. 1, 1789, to Sept. 30, 1790, was	2,027,777	64
Value of imports for the ſame time - - -	1,945,899	55
Exports from Oct. 1, 1790, to Sept. 30, 1791	3,131,227	55

During the laſt mentioned period, the quantity of wheat exported was two hundred five thouſand five hundred and ſeventy-one buſhels; Indian corn, two hundred five thouſand ſix hundred and forty-three ditto; buck wheat, four thouſand two hundred and eighty-ſix ditto; peas, ten thouſand ſix hundred and nineteen ditto; beſides one hundred and fifty-one thouſand four hundred and forty-five barrels of wheat flour; four thouſand three hundred and twenty-five ditto, Indian meal; ſix thouſand ſeven hundred and ſixty-one ditto, bread; and three thouſand one hundred and four kegs of crackers.

SEMINARIES OF LEARNING, &c.

Waſhington academy, in Somerſet county, was inſtituted by law in 1779: it was founded, and is ſupported, by voluntary ſubſcriptions, and private donations, and is authorized to receive gifts and legacies, and to hold two thouſand acres of land. A ſupplement to the law, paſſed in 1784, increaſed the number of truſtees from eleven to fifteen.

In 1782, a college was inſtituted at Charleſton, in Kent county, and was honoured with the name of WASHINGTON COLLEGE, after Preſident Waſhington. It is under the management of twenty-four viſitors of governors, with power to ſupply vacancies and hold eſtates, whoſe yearly value ſhall not exceed ſix thouſand pounds current money. By a law enacted in 1787, a permanent fund was granted to this inſtitution of one thouſand two hundred and fifty pounds a year, currency, out of the monies ariſing from marriage licenſes, fines, and forfeitures on the eaſtern ſhore.

St. John's college was inſtituted in 1785, to have alſo twenty-four truſtees, with power to keep up the ſucceſſion by ſupplying vacancies, and to receive an annual income of nine thouſand pounds. A permanent fund is aſſigned this college, of one thouſand ſeven hundred and fifty pounds a year, out of the monies ariſing from marriage licenſes, ordinary licenſes, fines and forfeitures, on the weſtern ſhore. This college is at Annapolis, where a building has been prepared for it. Very liberal ſubſcriptions have been obtained towards founding and carrying on theſe ſeminaries. The two colleges conſtitute one univerſity, by the name of "the Univerſity of Maryland," whereof the governor of the State for the time being is chancellor, and the principal of one of them vice-chancellor, either by ſeniority or by election, as may hereafter be provided for by rule or by law. The chancellor is empowered to call a meeting of the

truſtees, or a repreſentation of ſeven of each, and two of the members of the faculty of each, the principal being one, which meeting is ſtiled, "The Convocation of the Univerſity of Maryland," who are to frame the laws, preſerve uniformity of manners and literature in the colleges, confer the higher degrees, determine appeals, &c.

The Roman Catholics have alſo erected a college at Georgetown, on the Potomack river, for the promotion of general literature.

In 1785, the Methodiſts inſtituted a college at Abingdon, in Harford county, by the name of Cokeſbury college, after Thomas Coke, and Francis Aſhbury, *biſhops* of the Methodiſt Epiſcopal Church. The college edifice is of brick, handſomely built on a healthy ſpot, enjoying a fine air, and a very extenſive proſpect.

The ſtudents, who are to conſiſt of the ſons of travelling preachers, of annual ſubſcribers, of the members of the Methodiſt ſociety and orphans; are inſtructed in Engliſh, Latin, Greek, Logic, Rhetoric, Hiſtory, Geography, Natural Philoſophy and Aſtronomy; and when the finances of the college will admit, they are to be taught the Hebrew, French, and German languages.

The college was erected and is ſupported wholly by ſubſcription and voluntary donations.

The ſtudents have regular hours for riſing, for prayers, for their meals, for ſtudy, and for recreation: they are all to be in bed preciſely at nine o'clock. Their recreations, (for they are to be "indulged in nothing which the world calls *play*,") are gardening, walking, riding, and bathing, without doors; and within doors, the carpenters, joiners, cabinet-makers, or turner's buſineſs. Suitable proviſion is made for theſe ſeveral occupations, which are to be conſidered, not as matters of drudgery and conſtraint, but as pleaſing and healthful recreations both for the body and mind. Another of their rules, which though new and ſingular, is favourable to the health and vigour of the body and mind, is, that the ſtudents ſhall not ſleep on feather beds but on mattreſſes, and each one by himſelf. Particular attention is paid to the morals and religion of the ſtudents.

There are a few other literary inſtitutions, of inferior note, in different parts of the State, and proviſion is made for free ſchools in moſt of the counties; though ſome are entirely neglected and very few carried on with any ſucceſs: ſo that a great proportion of the lower claſs of people are ignorant; and there

are not a few who cannot write their names. But the revolution, among other happy effects, has roused the spirit of education, which is fast spreading its salutary influences over this and the other southern States.

CONSTITUTION.

DECLARATION OF RIGHTS.

The Parliament of Great-Britain, by a declaratory act, having assumed a right to make laws to bind the Colonies in all cases whatsoever, and in pursuance of such claim endeavoured by force of arms to subjugate the United Colonies to an unconditional submission to their will and power, and having at length constrained them to declare themselves independent States, and to assume government under the authority of the people; therefore, we, the delegates of Maryland, in free and full Convention assembled, taking into our most serious consideration the best means of establishing a good constitution in this State, for the sure foundation and more permanent security thereof, declare,

I. That all government of right originates from the people, is founded in compact only, and instituted solely for the good of the whole.

II. That the people of this State ought to have the sole and exclusive right of regulating the internal government and police thereof.

III. That the inhabitants of Maryland are entitled to the common law of England, and the trial by jury according to the course of that law, and to the benefit of such of the English statutes as existed at the time of their first emigration, and which by experience have been found applicable to their local and other circumstances, and of such others as have been since made in England, or Great-Britain, and have been introduced, used, and practised by the courts of law or equity: and also to all acts of Assembly in force on the first of June, seventeen hundred and seventy-four, except such as may have since expired, or have been, or may be altered by acts of Convention, or this Declaration of Rights; subject nevertheless to the revision of, and amendment or repeal by the legislature of this State; and the inhabitants of Maryland are also entitled to all property derived to them from or under the charter granted by his Majesty Charles I. to Cæcilius Calvert, Baron of Baltimore.

IV. That all perſons inveſted with the legiſlative or executive powers of government are the truſtees of the public, and as ſuch accountable for their conduct: wherefore, whenever the ends of government are perverted, and public liberty manifeſtly endangered, and all other means of redreſs are ineffectual, the people may, and of right ought to reform the old, or eſtabliſh a new government. The doctrine of non-reſiſtance againſt arbitrary power and oppreſſion is abſurd, ſlaviſh, and deſtructive of the good and happineſs of mankind.

V. That the right in the people to participate in the legiſlature is the beſt ſecurity of liberty, and the foundation of all free government. For this purpoſe, elections ought to be free and frequent, and every man having property in, a common intereſt with, and attachment to the community, ought to have a right of ſuffrage.

VI. That the legiſlative, executive, and judicial powers of government ought to be for ever ſeparate and diſtinct from each other.

VII. That no power of ſuſpending laws, or the execution of laws, unleſs by, or derived from the legiſlature, ought to be exerciſed or allowed.

VIII. That freedom of ſpeech and debates, or proceedings in the legiſlature, ought not to be impeached in any other court of judicature.

IX. That a place for the meeting of the legiſlature ought to be fixed, the moſt convenient to the members thereof, and to the depoſitory of public records; and the legiſlature ought not to be convened or held at any other place, but from evident neceſſity.

X. That for redreſs of grievances, and for amending, ſtrengthening and preſerving the laws, the legiſlature ought to be frequently convened.

XI. That every man hath a right to petition the legiſlature for the redreſs of grievances, in a peaceable and orderly manner.

XII. That no aid, charge, tax, fee or fees, ought to be ſet, rated, or levied under any pretence, without conſent of the legiſlature.

XIII. That the levying taxes by the poll is grievous and oppreſſive and ought to be aboliſhed; that paupers ought not to be aſſeſſed for the ſupport of government; but every other

perſon in the State ought to contribute his proportion of public taxes for the ſupport of government, according to his actual worth in real or perſonal property within the State; yet fines, duties, or taxes, may properly and juſtly be impoſed or laid with a political view for the good government and benefit of the community.

XIV. That ſanguinary laws ought to be avoided, as far as is conſiſtent with the ſafety of the State; and no law to inflict cruel and unuſual pains and penalties ought to be made in any caſe, or at any time hereafter.

XV. That retroſpective laws, puniſhing facts committed before the exiſtence of ſuch laws, and by them only declared criminal, are oppreſſive unjuſt, and incompatible with liberty, wherefore no *ex poſt facto* law ought to be made.

XVI. That no law to attaint particular perſons of treaſon or felony ought to be made in any caſe, or at any time hereafter.

XVII. That every freemen, for any injury done him in his perſon or property, ought to have remedy by the courſe of the law of the land, and ought to have juſtice and right, freely without ſale, fully without any denial, and ſpeedily without delay, acording to the law of the land.

XVIII. That the trial of facts where they ariſe, is one of the greateſt ſecurities of the lives, liberties, and eſtates of the people.

XIX. That in all criminal proſecutions, every man hath a right to be informed of the accuſation againſt him, to have a copy of the indictment or charge in due time, if required, to prepare for his defence, to be allowed council, to be confronted with the witneſſes againſt him, to have proceſs for his witneſſes, to examine the witneſſes for and againſt him on oath, and to a ſpeedy trial by an impartial jury, without whoſe unanimous conſent he ought not to be found guilty.

XX. That no man ought to be compelled to give evidence againſt himſelf in a court of common law, or in any other court, but in ſuch caſes as have been uſually practiſed in this State, or may hereafter be directed by the legiſlature.

XXI. That no freemen ought to be taken or impriſoned, or diſſeiſed of his freehold, liberties or privileges, or outlawed, or exiled, or in any manner deſtroyed, or deprived of his life, liberty, or property, but by the judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land.

XXII. That exceſſive bail ought not to be required, nor exceſſive fines impoſed, nor cruel or unuſual puniſhments inflicted by the courts of law.

XXIII. That all warrants without oath or affirmation, to ſearch ſuſpected places, or to ſeize any perſon or property, are grievous and oppreſſive; and all general warrants to ſearch ſuſpected places or to apprehend ſuſpected perſons, without naming or deſcribing the place or the perſon in ſpecial, are illegal, and ought not to be granted.

XXIV. That there ought to be no forfeiture of any part of the eſtate of any perſon for any crime, except murder, or treaſon againſt the States, and then only on conviction and attainder.

XXV. That a well-regulated militia is the proper and natural defence of a free government.

XXVI. That ſtanding armies are dangerous to liberty, and ought not to be raiſed or kept without conſent of the legiſlature.

XXVII. That in all caſes and at all times the military ought to be under ſtrict ſubordination to, and controul of the civil power.

XXVIII. That no ſoldier ought to be quartered in any houſe in time of peace, without the conſent of the owner; and in time of war, in ſuch manner only as the legiſlature ſhall direct.

XXIX. That no perſon, except regular ſoldiers, mariners, and marines in the ſervice of this State, or militia, when in actual ſervice, ought in any caſe to be ſubject to, or puniſhable by martial law.

XXX. That the independency and uprightneſs of judges are eſſential to the impartial adminiſtration of juſtice, and a great ſecurity to the rights and liberties of the people; wherefore the chancellor and judges ought to hold their commiſſions during good behaviour; and the ſaid chancellor and judges ſhall be removed for miſbehaviour, on a conviction in a court of law, and may be removed by the governor, upon the addreſs of the General Aſſembly, provided that two-thirds of all the members of each Houſe concur in ſuch addreſs. That ſalaries liberal, but not profuſe, ought to be ſecured to the chancellor and the judges during the continuance of their commiſſions, in ſuch manner and at ſuch times as the legiſlature ſhall hereafter direct, upon conſideration of the circumſtances of this State: no chancellor or judge ought to hold any other office, civil or military, or receive fees or perquiſites of any kind.

XXXI. That a long continuance in the firſt executive departments of power or truſt is dangerous to liberty; a rotation,

therefore, in thoſe departments, is one of the beſt ſecurities of permanent freedom.

XXXII. That no perſon ought to hold at the ſame time more than one office of profit, nor ought any perſon in public truſt to receive any preſent from any foreign prince or ſtate, or from the United States, or any of them, without the approbation of this State.

XXXIII. That as it is the duty of every man to worſhip God in ſuch manner as he thinks moſt acceptable to him, all perſons profeſſing the Chriſtian religion are equally entitled to protection in their religious liberty; wherefore no perſon ought by any law to be moleſted in his perſon or eſtate, on account of his religious perſuaſion or profeſſion, or for his religious practice, unleſs, under colour of religion, any man ſhall diſturb the good order, peace, or ſafety of the State, or ſhall infringe the laws of morality, or injure others in their natural, civil, or religious rights; nor ought any perſon to be compelled to frequent, or maintain, or contribute, unleſs on contract, to maintain any particular place of worſhip, or any particular miniſtry: yet the legiſlature may in their diſcretion lay a general and equal tax for the ſupport of the Chriſtian religion; leaving to each individual the power of appointing the payment of the money collected from him, to the ſupport of any particular place of worſhip or miniſter, or for the benefit of the poor of his own denomination, or the poor in general of any particular county; but the churches, chapels, glebes, and all the property now belonging to the Church of England, ought to remain to the Church of England for ever. And all acts of Aſſembly lately paſſed for collecting monies for building or repairing particular churches or chapels of eaſe, ſhall continue in force and be executed, unleſs the legiſlature ſhall by act ſuperſede or repeal the ſame; but no county court ſhall aſſeſs any quantity of tobacco or ſum of money hereafter, on the application of any veſtry-men, or church-wardens; and every incumbent of the Church of England who hath remained in his pariſh, and performed his duty, ſhall be entitled to receive the proviſion and ſupport eſtabliſhed by the act, entitled, "An act for the ſnpport of the clergy of the Church of England in this province," till the November court of this preſent year, to be held for the county in which his pariſh ſhall lie, or partly lie, for ſuch time as he hath remained in his pariſh, and performed his duty.

XXXIV. That every gift, ſale or deviſe of lands to any miniſter, public teacher, or preacher of the goſpel, as ſuch, or to

any religious ſect, order, or denomination, or to, or for the ſupport, uſe, or benefit of, or in truſt for any miniſter, public teacher, or preacher of the goſpel, as ſuch, or any religious ſect, order, or denomination; and every gift or ſale of goods or chattels to go in ſucceſſion, or to take place after the death of the ſellor or donor, or to or for ſuch ſupport, uſe or benefit; and alſo every deviſe of goods or chattels to, or for the ſupport, uſe or benefit of any miniſter, public teacher, or preacher of the goſpel, as ſuch, or any religious ſect, order or denomination, without the leave of the legiſlature, ſhall be void; except always any ſale, gift, leaſe or deviſe of any quantity of land not exceeding two acres, for a church, meeting, or other houſe of worſhip, and for a burying ground, which ſhall be improved, enjoyed, or uſed only for ſuch purpoſe, or ſuch ſale, gift, leaſe, or deviſe, ſhall be void.

XXXV. That no other teſt or qualification ought to be required on admiſſion to any office of truſt or profit, than ſuch oath of ſupport and fidelity to this State, and ſuch oath of office as ſhall be directed by this Convention, or the legiſlature of this State, and a declaration of a belief in the Chriſtian religion.

XXXVI. That the manner of adminiſtering an oath to any perſon, ought to be ſuch as thoſe of the religious perſuaſion, profeſſion, or denomination, of which ſuch perſon is one, generally eſteem the moſt effectual confirmation by the atteſtation of the Divine Being. And that the people called Quakers, thoſe called Dunkers, and thoſe called Menoniſts, holding it unlawful to take an oath on any occaſion, ought to be allowed to make their ſolemn affirmation in the manner that Quakers have been heretofore allowed to affirm, and to be of the ſame avail as an oath in all ſuch caſes as the affirmation of Quakers hath been allowed and accepted within this State, inſtead of an oath. And farther, on ſuch affirmation, warrants to ſearch for ſtolen goods, or for the apprehenſion or commitment of offenders, ought to be granted, or ſecurity for the peace awarded; and Quakers, Dunkers, or Menoniſts, ought alſo, on their ſolemn affirmation as aforeſaid, to be admitted as witneſſes in all criminal caſes not capital.

XXXVII. That the city of Annapolis ought to have all its rights, privileges, and benefits, agreeable to its charter, and the acts of Aſſembly confirming and regulating the ſame; ſubject nevertheleſs to ſuch alterations as may be made by this Convention, or any future legiſlature.

XXXVIII. That the liberty of the preſs ought to be inviolably preſerved.

XXXIX. That monopolis are odious, contrary to the ſpirit of a free government and the principles of commerce, and ought not to be ſuffered.

XL. That no title of nobility or hereditary honours ought to be granted in this State.

XLI. That the ſubſiſting reſolves of this and the ſeveral Conventions held for this colony, ought to be in force as laws, unleſs altered by this Convention, or the legiſlature of this State.

XLII. That this declaration of rights, or the form of government to be eſtabliſhed by this Convention, or any part of either of them, ought not to be altered, changed or aboliſhed by the legiſlature of this State, but in ſuch manner as this Convention ſhall preſcribe and direct.

FRAME OF GOVERNMENT.

I. That the legiſlature conſiſt of two diſtinct branches, a Senate and a Houſe of Delegates, which ſhall be ſtiled, THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY OF MARYLAND.

II. That the Houſe of Delegates ſhall be choſen in the following manner: all freemen above twenty-one years of age, having a freehold of fifty acres of land in the county in which they offer to vote, and reſiding therein; and all freemen having property in this State above the value of thirty pounds current money, and having reſided in the county in which they offer to vote, one whole year next preceding the election, ſhall have a right of ſuffrage in the election of delegates for ſuch county; and all freemen ſo qualified ſhall, on the firſt Monday of October, ſeventeen hundred and ſeventy-ſeven, and on the ſame day in every year thereafter, aſſemble in the counties in which they are reſpectively qualified to vote, at the court-houſe in the ſaid counties, or at ſuch other place as the legiſlature ſhall direct, and when aſſembled, they ſhall proceed to elect, *viva voce*, four delegates for their reſpective counties, of the moſt wiſe, ſenſible, and diſcreet of the people, reſidents in the county where they are to be choſen one whole year next preceding the election, above twenty-one years of age, and having in the State real or perſonal property above the value of five hundred pounds current money; and upon the final caſting of the polls, the four perſons who ſhall appear to have the greateſt number of legal votes, ſhall be declared and returned duly elected for their reſpective counties.

III. That the ſheriff of each county, or, in caſe of ſickneſs, his deputy, ſummoning two juſtices of the county, who are required

to attend for the preſervation of the peace, ſhall be the judge of the election, and may adjourn from day to day, if neceſſary, till the ſame be finiſhed, ſo that the whole election ſhall be concluded in four days, and ſhall make his return thereof, under his hand, to the chancellor of this State for the time being.

IV. That all perſons qualified by the charter of the city of Annapolis to vote for burgeſſes, ſhall on the ſame firſt Monday of October, ſeventeen hundred and ſeventy-ſeven, and on the ſame day in every year for ever thereafter, elect *vivâ voce*, by a majority of votes, two delegates, qualified agreeable to the ſaid charter; that the mayor, recorder, and aldermen of the ſaid city, or any three of them, be judges of the election, appoint the place in the ſaid city for holding the ſame, and may adjourn from day to day as aforeſaid, and ſhall make return thereof as aforeſaid; but the inhabitants of the ſaid city ſhall not be entitled to vote for delegates for Ann-Arundel county, unleſs they have a freehold of fifty acres of land in the county, diſtinct from the city.

V. That all perſons, inhabitants of Baltimore town, and having the ſame qualifications as electors in the county, ſhall on the ſame firſt Monday in October, ſeventeen hundred and ſeventy-ſeven, and the ſame day in every year forever thereafter, at ſuch place in the ſaid town as the judges ſhall appoint, elect *vivâ voce*, by a majority of votes, two delegates, qualified as aforeſaid; but if the ſaid inhabitants of the town ſhall ſo decreaſe, as that the number of perſons having a right of ſuffrage therein, ſhall have been for the ſpace of ſeven years ſucceſſively, leſs than one half the number of voters in ſome one county in this State, ſuch town thenceforward ſhall ceaſe to ſend two delegates or repreſentatives to the Houſe of Delegates, until the ſaid town ſhall have one half of the number of voters in ſome one county in this State.

VI. That the commiſſioners of the ſaid town, or any three or more of them, for the time being, ſhall be judges of the ſaid election, and may adjourn as aforeſaid, and ſhall make return thereof as aforeſaid; but the inhabitants of the ſaid town ſhall not be entitled to vote for, or be elected delegates for Baltimore county; neither ſhall the inhabitants of Baltimore county, out of the limits of Baltimore town, be entitled to vote for, or be elected delegates for the ſaid town.

VII. That on refuſal, death, diſqualification, reſignation or

removal out of this State, of any delegate, or on his becoming governor or member of the council, a warrant of election ſhall iſſue by the ſpeaker, for the election of another in his place, of which ten days notice at leaſt, excluding the day of notice and day of election, ſhall be given.

VIII. That not leſs than a majority of delegates, with their ſpeaker, to be choſen by them by ballot, conſtitute an Houſe for the tranſaction of any buſineſs, other than that of adjourning.

IX. That the Houſe of Delegates ſhall judge of the elections and qualifications of delegates.

X. That the Houſe of Delegates may originate all money bills, propoſe bills to the Senate, or receive thoſe offered by that body, and aſſent, diſſent, or propoſe amendments: that they may inquire, on the oath of witneſſes, into all complaints, grievances, and offences, as the grand inqueſt of this State, and may commit any perſon for any crime to the public goal, there to remain till he be diſcharged by due courſe of law. They may expel any member for a great miſdemeanor, but not a ſecond time for the ſame cauſe. They may examine and paſs all accounts of the State, relating either to the collection or expenditure of the revenue, or appoint auditors to ſtate or adjuſt the ſame. They may call for all public or official papers and records, and ſend for perſons whom they may judge neceſſary, in the courſe of their inquiries, concerning affairs relating to the public intereſt; and may direct all office bonds, which ſhall be made payable to the State, to be ſued for on any breach of duty.

XI. That the Senate may be at full and perfect liberty to exerciſe their judgment in paſſing laws, and that they may not be compelled by the Houſe of Delegates either to reject a money bill which the emergency of affairs may require, or to aſſent to ſome other act of legiſlation, in their conſcience and judgment injurious to the public welfare, the Houſe of Delegates ſhall not, on any occaſion, or under any pretence annex to, or blend with a money bill, any matter, clauſe, or thing, not immediately relating to, and neceſſary for the impoſing, aſſeſſing, levying, or applying the taxes or ſupplies to be raiſed for the ſupport of government, or the current expenſes of the State: and to prevent altercation about ſuch bills, it is declared, that no bill impoſing duties or cuſtoms for the mere regulation of commerce, or inflicting fines for the reformation of morals, or

to enforce the execution of the laws, by which an incidental revenue may ariſe, ſhall be accounted a money bill; but every bill aſſeſſing, levying or applying taxes or ſupplies for the ſupport of government, or the current expenſes of the State, or appropriating money in the treaſury, ſhall be deemed a money bill.

XII. That the Houſe of Delegates may puniſh, by impriſonment, any perſon who ſhall be guilty of a contempt in their view, by any diſorderly or riotous behaviour, or by threats to or abuſe of their members, or by any obſtruction to their proceedings. They may alſo puniſh, by impriſonment, any perſon who ſhall be guilty of a breach of privilege, by arreſting on civil proceſs, or by aſſaulting any of their members during their ſitting, or on their way to, or return from the Houſe of Delegates; or by any aſſault of, or obſtruction to their officers, in the execution of any order or proceſs; or by aſſaulting or obſtructing any witneſs, or any other perſon, attending on, or on their way to, or from the Houſe; or by reſcuing any perſon committed by the Houſe, and the ſenate may exerciſe the ſame power in ſimilar caſes.

XIII. That the treaſurers (one for the weſtern and another for the eaſtern ſhore) and the commiſſioners of the Loan Office, may be appointed by the Houſe of Delegates during their pleaſure and in caſe of refuſal, death, reſignation, diſqualification, or removal out of the State, of any of the ſaid commiſſioners or treaſurers, in the receſs of the General Aſſembly, the governor, with the advice of the council, may appoint and commiſſion a fit and proper perſon to ſuch vacant office, and to hold the ſame until the Meeting of the next General Aſſembly.

XIV. That the ſenate be choſen in the following manner:— All perſons, qualified as aforeſaid to vote for county delagates, ſhall, on the firſt day of September, 1781, and on the ſame day in every fifth year for ever thereafter, elect *vivâ voce*, by a majority of votes, two perſons for their reſpectively counties, qualified as aforeſaid to be elected county delegates, to be electors of the ſenate; and the ſheriff of each county, or, in caſe of ſickneſs, his deputy, (ſummoning two juſtices of the county, who are required to attend for the preſervation of the peace) ſhall hold and be judge of the ſaid election, and make return thereof as aforeſaid. And all perſons qualified as aforeſaid to vote for delegates for the city of Annapolis and Baltimore town, ſhall, on the ſame firſt Monday of September, 1781,

and on the ſame day in every fifth year for ever thereafter, elect, *vivâ voce*, by a majority of votes, one perſon for the ſaid city and town reſpectively, qualified as aforeſaid, to be elected a delegate for the ſaid city and town reſpectively; the ſaid election to be held in the ſame manner as the election of delegate for the ſaid city and town; the right to elect the ſaid elector with reſpect to Baltimore town to continue as long as the right to elect delegates for the ſaid town.

XV. That the ſaid electors of the ſenate meet at the city of Annapolis, or ſuch other place as ſhall be appointed for convening the legiſlature, on the third Monday in September, 1781, and on the ſame day in every fifth year for ever thereafter, and they, or any twenty-four of them ſo met, ſhall proceed to elect, by ballot, either out of their own body, or the people at large, fifteen ſenators, (nine of whom to be reſidents on the weſtern, and ſix to be reſidents on the eaſtern ſhore) men of the moſt wiſdom, experience and virtue, above twenty-five years of age, reſidents of the State above three whole years next preceding the election, and having real and perſonal property above the value of one thouſand pounds current money.

XVI. That the ſenators ſhall be balloted for at one and the ſame time; and out of the Gentlemen reſidents of the weſtern ſhore who ſhall be propoſed as ſenators, the nine who ſhall, on ſtriking the ballots, appear to have the greateſt number in their favour, ſhall be accordingly declared and returned duly elected; and out of the gentlemen reſidents of the eaſtern ſhore who ſhall be propoſed as ſenators, the ſix who ſhall, on ſtriking the ballots, appear to have the greateſt number in their favour, ſhall be accordingly declared and returned duly elected: and if two or more, on the ſame ſhore, ſhall have an equal number of ballots in their favour, by which the choice ſhall not be determined on the firſt ballot, then the electors ſhall again ballot before they ſeparate, in which they ſhall be confined to the perſons who, on the firſt ballot, ſhall have had an equal number; and they who ſhall have the greateſt number in their favour on the ſecond ballot, ſhall be accordingly declared and returned duly elected; and if the whole number ſhould not thus be made up, becauſe of an equal number on the ſecond ballot ſtill being in favour of two or more perſons, then the election ſhall be determined by lot between thoſe who have equal numbers; which proceedings of the electors ſhall be certified under their hands, and returned to the chancellor for the time being.

XVII. That the electors of ſenators ſhall judge of the qualifications and elections of members of their body, and on a conteſted election ſhall admit to a ſeat, as an elector, ſuch qualified perſon as ſhall appear to them to have the greateſt number of legal votes in his favour.

XVIII. That the electors immediately on their meeting, and before they proceed to the election of ſenators, take ſuch oath of ſupport and fidelity to this State, as this Convention or the legiſlature ſhall direct; and alſo an oath, "to elect, without favour, affection, partiality or prejudice, ſuch perſons for ſenators as they, in their judgment and conſcience, believe beſt qualified for the office."

XIX. That in caſe of refuſal, death, reſignation, diſqualification, or removal out of this State, of any ſenator, or on his becoming governor, or a member of the council, the ſenate ſhall immediately thereupon, or at their next meeting thereafter, elect by ballot, in the ſame manner as the electors are above directed to chuſe ſenators, another perſon in his place for the reſidue of the ſaid term of five years.

XX. That not leſs than a majority of the ſenate, with their preſident (to be choſen by them by ballot) ſhall conſtitute an Houſe for the tranſacting any buſineſs, other than that of adjourning.

XXI. That the ſenate ſhall judge of the elections and qualifications of ſenators.

XXII. That the ſenate may originate any other except money bills, to which their aſſent or diſſent only ſhall be given; and may receive any other bills from the Houſe of Delegates, and aſſent, diſſent or propoſe amendments.

XXIII. That the General Aſſembly meet annually, on the firſt Monday of November, and if neceſſary oftener.

XXIV. That each Houſe ſhall appoint its own officers, and ſettle its own rules of proceeding.

XXV. That a perſon of wiſdom, experience, and virtue, ſhall be choſen governor, on the ſecond Monday of November, ſeventeen hundred and ſeventy-ſeven, and on the ſecond Monday in every year for ever thereafter, by the joint ballot of both Houſes, to be taken in each Houſe reſpectively, depoſited in a conference-room; the boxes to be examined by a joint committee of both Houſes, and the numbers ſeverally reported, that the appointment may be entered; which mode of taking the joint ballot of both Houſes ſhall be adopted in all caſes. But if two or more ſhall have an equal number of ballots in their

favour, by which the choice ſhall not be determined on the firſt ballot, then a ſecond ballot ſhall be taken, which ſhall be confined to the perſons who on the firſt ballot ſhall have had an equal number; and if the ballots ſhould again be equal between two or more perſons, then the election of the governor ſhall be determined by lot, between thoſe who have equal numbers; and if the perſon choſen governor ſhall die, reſign, remove out of the State, or refuſe to act (ſitting the General Aſſembly) the Senate and Houſe of Delegates ſhall immediately thereupon proceed to a new choice in manner aforeſaid.

XXVI. That the ſenators and delegates, on the ſecond Tueſday of November, one thouſand ſeven hundred and ſeventy-ſeven, and annually on the ſecond Tueſday of November for ever thereafter, elect by joint ballot, in the ſame manner as ſenators are directed to be choſen, five of the moſt ſenſible, diſcreet and experienced men, above twenty-five years of age, reſidents in the State above three years next preceding the election, and having therein a freehold of lands and tenements above the value of one thouſand pounds current money, to be the council to the governor; whoſe proceedings ſhall be always entered on record, to any part whereof any member may enter his diſſent; and their advice, if ſo required by the governor or any member of the council, ſhall be given in writing, and ſigned by the members giving the ſame reſpectively; which proceedings of the council ſhall be laid before the Senate or Houſe of Delegates, when called for by them, or either of them. The council may appoint their own clerk, who ſhall take ſuch oath of ſupport and fidelity to this State as this Convention or the legiſlature ſhall direct, and of ſecrecy, in ſuch matters as he ſhall be directed by the Board to keep ſecret.

XXVII. That the delegates to Congreſs from this State ſhall be choſen annually, or ſuperſeded in the mean time by the joint ballot of both Houſes of Aſſembly, and that there be a rotation in ſuch manner that at leaſt two of the number be annually changed; and no perſon ſhall be capable of being a delegate to Congreſs for more than three in any term of ſix years; and no perſon who holds any office of profit in the gift of Congreſs ſhall be eligible to ſit in Congreſs, but if appointed to any ſuch office his ſeat ſhall be thereby vacated. That no perſon unleſs above twenty-one years of age and a reſident in the State more than five years next preceding the election, and having real and perſonal eſtate in this State above the value of one thouſand pounds current money, ſhall be eligible to ſit in Congreſs.

XXVIII. That the ſenators and delegates, immediately on their annual meeting, and before they proceed to any buſineſs, and every perſon hereafter elected a ſenator or delegate, before he acts as ſuch, ſhall take an oath of ſupport and fidelity to this State as aforeſaid; and before the election of a governor, or member of the council, ſhall take an oath, "to elect without favour, affection, partiality or prejudice, ſuch perſon as governor, or member of the council, as they in their judgment and conſcience believe beſt qualified for the office."

XXIX. That the ſenate and delegates may adjourn themſelves reſpectively: but if the two Houſes ſhould not agree on the ſame time, but adjourn to different days, then ſhall the governor appoint and notify one of thoſe days, or ſome day between, and the Aſſembly ſhall then meet and be held accordingly; and he ſhall, if neceſſary, by advice of the council, call them before the time to which they ſhall in any manner be adjourned, on giving not leſs than ten days notice thereof; but the governor ſhall not adjourn the Aſſembly otherwiſe than as aforeſaid, nor prorogue or diſſolve it at any time.

XXX. That no perſon, unleſs above twenty-five years of age, a reſident in this State above five years next preceding the election, and having in the State real and perſonal property above the value of five thouſand pounds current money, one thouſand pounds whereof at leaſt to be freehold eſtate, ſhall be eligible as governor.

XXXI. That the governor ſhall not continue in that office longer than three years ſucceſſively, nor be eligible as governor until the expiration of four years after he ſhall have been out of that office.

XXXII. That upon the death, reſignation, or removal out of this State, of the governor, the firſt named of the council, for the time being, ſhall act as governor, and qualify in the ſame manner; and ſhall immediately call a meeting of the General Aſſembly, giving not leſs than fourteen days notice of the meeting, at which meeting a governor ſhall be appointed, in manner aforeſaid, for the reſidue of the year.

XXXIII. That the governor, by and with the advice and conſent of the council, may embody the militia, and when embodied ſhall alone have the direction thereof, and ſhall alſo have the direction of all the regular land and ſea forces under the laws of this State; but he ſhall not command in perſon, unleſs adviſed thereto by the council, and then only ſo long as they

ſhall approve thereof; and may alone exerciſe all other the executive powers of government, where the concurrence of the council is not required, according to the laws of this State; and grant reprieves or pardons for any crime, except in ſuch caſes where the law ſhall otherwiſe direct; and may, during the receſs of the General Aſſembly, lay embargoes to prevent the departure of any ſhipping, or the exportation of any commodities, for any time not exceeding thirty days in any one year, ſummoning the General Aſſembly to meet within the time of the continuance of ſuch embargo; and may alſo order and compel any veſſel to ride quarantine, if ſuch veſſel, or the port from which ſhe may have come, ſhall, on ſtrong grounds, be ſuſpected to be infected with the plague; but the governor ſhall not, on any pretence, exerciſe any power or prerogative by virtue of any law, ſtatute or cuſtom, of England or Great-Britain.

XXXIV. That the members of the council, or any three or more of them, when convened, ſhall conſtitute a Board for the tranſacting of buſineſs. That the governor for the time being ſhall preſide in the council, and be entitled to a vote on all queſtions in which the council ſhall be divided in opinion; and in the abſence of the governor, the firſt named of the council ſhall preſide, and as ſuch ſhall alſo vote in all caſes where the other members diſagree in their opinion.

XXXV. That in caſe of refuſal, death, reſignation, diſqualification, or removal out of the State, of any perſon choſen a member of the council, the members thereof, immediately thereupon, or at their next meeting thereafter, ſhall elect, by ballot, another perſon qualified as aforeſaid, in his place, for the reſidue of the year.

XXXVI. That the council ſhall have power to make the great ſeal of this State, which ſhall be kept by the chancellor for the time being, and affixed to all laws, commiſſions, grants and other public teſtimonials, as has been heretofore practiſed in this State.

XXXVII. That no ſenator, delegate of Aſſembly, or member of the council, if he ſhall qualify as ſuch, ſhall hold or execute any office of profit, or receive the profits of any office exerciſed by any other perſon, during the time for which he ſhall be elected; nor ſhall any governor be capable of holding any other office of profit in this State, while he act as ſuch; and no perſon holding a place of profit, or receiving any part of the profits thereof, or receiving the profits, or any part of the profits, ariſing on any agency for the ſupply of cloathing

or proviſions for the army or navy, or holding any office under the United States, or any of them, or a miniſter or preacher of the goſpel of any denomination, or any perſon employed in the regular land ſervice, or marine, of this or the United States, ſhall have a ſeat in the General Aſſembly, or the council of this State.

XXXVIII. That every governor, ſenator, delegate to Congreſs or Aſſembly, and member of the council, before he acts as ſuch, ſhall take an oath, "That he will not receive, directly or indirectly, at any time, any part of the profits of any office held by any other perſon during his acting in his office of governor, ſenator, delegate to Congreſs or Aſſembly, or member of the council, or the profits, or any part of the profits, ariſing on any agency for the ſupply of cloathing or proviſions for the army or navy."

XXXIX. That if any ſenator, delegate to Congreſs or Aſſembly, or member of the council, ſhall hold or execute any office of profit, or receive, directly or indirectly, at any time, the profits, or any part of the profits, of any office exerciſed by any other perſon, during his acting as ſenator, delegate to Congreſs or Aſſembly, or member of the council, his ſeat, on conviction in a court of law, by the oath of two credible witneſſes, ſhall be void, and he ſhall ſuffer the puniſhment for wilful and corrupt perjury, or be baniſhed this State for ever, or diſqualified for ever from holding any office or place of truſt or profit, as the court may judge.

XL. That the chancellor, all judges, the attorney-general, clerks of the General Court, the clerks of the county courts, the regiſters of the land office, and regiſters of wills, ſhall hold their commiſſions during good behaviour, removeable only for miſbehaviour, on conviction in a court of law.

XLI. That there be a regiſter of wills appointed for each county, who ſhall be commiſſioned by the governor, on the joint recommendation of the Senate and Houſe of Delegates; and that upon the death, reſignation, diſqualification, or removal out of the county, by any regiſter of wills, in the receſs of the General Aſſembly, the governor, with the advice of the council may appoint and commiſſion a fit and proper perſon to ſuch vacant office, to hold the ſame until the meeting of the General Aſſembly.

XLII. That ſheriffs ſhall be elected in each county, by ballot, every third year, that is to ſay, two perſons for the office of ſheriff for each county, the one of whom having

the majority of votes, or if both have an equal number either of them, at the diſcretion of the governor, to be commiſſioned by the governor for the ſaid office, and having ſerved for three years, ſuch perſon ſhall be ineligible for the four years next ſucceeding, bond with ſecurity to be taken every year as uſual, and no ſheriff ſhall be qualified to act before the ſame is given. In caſe of death, refuſal, reſignation, diſqualification, or removal out of the county, before the expiration of the three years, the other perſon, choſen as aforeſaid, ſhall be commiſſioned by the governor to execute the ſaid office for the riſidue of the ſaid three years, the ſaid perſon giving bond with ſecurity as aforeſaid: and in caſe of his death, refuſal, reſignation, diſqualification, or removal out of the county, before the expiration of the ſaid three years, the governor, with the advice of the council, may nominate and commiſſion a fit and proper perſon to execute the ſaid office for the reſidue of the ſaid three years, the ſaid perſon giving bond and ſecurity as aforeſaid. The election ſhall be held at the ſame time and place appointed for the election of delegates: and the juſtices there ſummoned to attend for the preſervation of the peace, ſhall be judges thereof, and of the qualification of candidates, who ſhall appoint a clerk to take the ballots. All freemen above the age of twenty-one years, having a freehold of fifty acres of land in the county in which they offer to ballot, and reſiding therein; and all freemen above the age of twenty-one years, and having property in the State above the value of thirty pounds current money, and having reſided in the county in which they offer to ballot, one whole year next preceding the election, ſhall have a right of ſuffrage; no perſon to be eligible to the office of ſheriff for a county, but an inhabitant of the ſaid county above the age of twenty-one years, and having real and perſonal property in the State above the value of one thouſand pounds current money. The juſtices aforeſaid ſhall examine the ballots, and the two candidates properly qualified, having in each county the majority of legal ballots, ſhall be declared duly elected for the office of ſheriff for ſuch county, and returned to the governor and council, with a certificate of the number of ballots for each of them.

XLIII. That every perſon who ſhall offer to vote for delegates, or for the election of the ſenate, or for the ſheriff, ſhall (if required by any three perſons qualified to vote) before he be admitted to poll, take ſuch oath or affirmation of ſupport and fidelity to this State, as this Convention or the legiſlature ſhall direct.

XLIV. That a juſtice of the peace may be eligible as a ſenator, delegate, or member of the council, and may continue to act as a juſtice of the peace.

XLV. That no field officer of the militia be eligible as a ſenator, delegate, or member of the council.

XLVI. That all civil officers hereafter to be appointed for the ſeveral counties of this State, ſhall have been reſidents of the county reſpectively, for which they ſhall be appointed, ſix months next before their appointment, and ſhall continue reſidents of their county reſpectively, during their continuance in office.

XLVII. That the judges of the General Court, and juſtices of the county courts, may appoint the clerks of their reſpective courts, and in caſe of refuſal, death, reſignation, diſqualification, or removal out of the county, of any of the ſaid county clerks, in the vacation of the county court of which he is clerk, the governor, with the advice of the council, may appoint and commiſſion a fit and proper perſon to ſuch vacant office reſpectively, to hold the ſame until the meeting of the next General Court, or county court, as the caſe may be.

XLVIII. That the governor for the time being, with the advice and conſent of the council, may appoint the chancellor, and all judges and juſtices, the attorney-general, naval officers, officers in the regular land and ſea ſervice, officers of the militia, regiſters of the land office, ſurveyors, and all other civil officers of government, (aſſeſſors, conſtables and overſeers of the roads only excepted) and may alſo ſuſpend or remove any civil officer who has not a commiſſion during good behaviour; and may ſuſpend any militia officer for one month; and may alſo ſuſpend or remove any regular officer in the land or ſea ſervice; and the governor may remove or ſuſpend any militia officer in purſuance of the judgment of a court martial.

XLIX. That all civil officers of the appointment of the governor and council, who do not hold commiſſions during good behaviour, ſhall be appointed annually in the third week of November; but if any of them ſhall be re-appointed, they may continue to act without any new commiſſion or qualification; and every officer, though not re-appointed, ſhall continue to act until the perſon who ſhall be appointed and commiſſioned in his ſtead ſhall be qualified.

L. That the governor, every member of the council, and every judge and juſtice, before they act as ſuch, ſhall reſpectively take an oath, "That he will not, through favour, affection or

partiality, vote for any perſon to office, and that he will vote for ſuch perſon as in his judgment and conſcience he believes moſt fit and beſt qualified for the office; and that he has not made, nor will make any promiſe or engagement to give his vote or intereſt in favour of any perſon."

LI. That there be two regiſters of the land office, one upon the weſtern and one upon the eaſtern ſhore; that ſhort extracts of the grant, and certificates of the land on the weſtern and eaſtern ſhores reſpectively be made in ſeparate books, at the public expenſe, and depoſited in the offices of the ſaid regiſters in ſuch manner as ſhall hereafter be provided by the General Aſſembly.

LII. That every chancellor, judge, regiſter of wills, commiſſioner of the loan office, attorney-general, ſheriff, treaſurer, naval officer, regiſter of the land office, regiſter of the chancery court and every clerk of the common law courts, ſurveyor, and auditor of the public accounts, before he acts as ſuch, ſhall take an oath, "that he will not, directly or indirectly, receive any fee or reward for doing his office of
but what is or ſhall be allowed by law: nor will directly or indirectly receive the profits, or any part of the profits of any office held by any other perſon: and that he does not hold the ſame office in truſt, or for the benefit of any other perſon."

LIII. That if any governor, chancellor, judge, regiſter of wills, attorney-general, regiſter of the land office, regiſter of the chancery court, or any clerk of the common law courts, treaſurer, naval officers, ſheriff, ſurveyor or auditor of public accounts, ſhall receive, directly or indirectly, at any time, the profits, or any part of the profits, of any office held by any other perſon, during his acting in the office to which he is appointed, his election, appointment and commiſſion, on conviction in a court of law, by oath of two credible witneſſes, ſhall be void, and he ſhall ſuffer the puniſhment for wilful and corrupt perjury, or be baniſhed this State for ever, or diſqualified for ever from holding any office or place of truſt or profit, as the court may adjudge,

LIV. That if any perſon ſhall give any bribe, preſent or reward, or any promiſe, or any ſecurity for the payment or delivery of any money, or any other thing, to obtain or procure a vote to be governor, ſenator, Delegate to Congreſs or Aſſembly, member of the council, or judge, or to be appointed to any of the ſaid offices, or to any office of profit or truſt, now

created or hereafter to be created in this State; the perſon giving, and the perſon receiving the ſame, on conviction in a court of law, ſhall be for ever diſqualified to hold any office of truſt or profit in this State.

LV. That every perſon appointed to any office of profit or truſt ſhall, before he enters on the execution thereof, take the following oath, to wit, "I A. B. do ſwear, That I do not hold myſelf bound in allegiance to the King of Great-Britain, and that I will be faithful, and bear true allegiance to the State of Maryland," and ſhall alſo ſubſcribe a declaration of his belief in the Chriſtian religion.

LVI. That there be a court of appeals, compoſed of perſons of integrity and ſound judgment in the law, whoſe judgment ſhall be final and concluſive in all caſes of appeal from the General Court, Court of Chancery, and Court of Admiralty: that one perſon of integrity and ſound judgment in the law be appointed chancellor: that three perſons of integrity and ſound judgment in the law be appointed judges of the court now called the Provincial Court; and that the ſame court be hereafter called and known by the name of THE GENERAL COURT; which court ſhall ſit on the weſtern and eaſtern ſhores for tranſacting and determining the buſineſs of the reſpective ſhores, at ſuch times and places as the future legiſlature of this State ſhall direct and appoint.

LVII. That the ſtile of all laws runs thus, *Be it enacted, by the General Aſſembly of Maryland;* that all public commiſſions and grants run thus, *The State of Maryland*, &c. and ſhall be ſigned by the governor, and atteſted by the chancellor, with the ſeal of the State annexed, except military commiſſions, which ſhall not be atteſted by the chancellor, or have the ſeal of the State annexed: that all writs ſhall run in the ſame ſtile, and be teſted, ſealed and ſigned as uſual: that all indictments ſhall conclude, *Againſt the Peace, Government, and Dignity of the State.*

LVIII. That all penalties and forfeitures, heretofore going to the King or proprietary, ſhall go to the State, ſave only ſuch as the General Aſſembly may aboliſh or otherwiſe provide for.

LIX. That this Form of Government, and the Declaration of Rights, and no part thereof, ſhall be altered, changed or aboliſhed, unleſs a bill ſo to alter, change or aboliſh the ſame, ſhall paſs the General Aſſembly, and be publiſhed at leaſt three months before a new election, and ſhall be confirmed by the General Aſſembly after a new election of delegates, in the firſt ſeſſion after ſuch new election: provided, that nothing in this Form

of Government which relates to the eaſtern ſhore particularly, ſhall at any time hereafter be altered, unleſs for the alteration and confirmation there of at leaſt two-thirds of all the members of each branch of the General Aſſembly ſhall concur.

LX. That every bill paſſed by the General Aſſembly, when engroſſed, ſhall be preſented by the ſpeaker of the Houſe of Delegates, in the ſenate, to the governor for the time being, who ſhall ſign the ſame, and thereto affix the great ſeal, in the preſence of the members of both Houſes. Every law ſhall be recorded in the General Court-Office of the weſtern ſhore, and in due time printed, publiſhed, and certified under the great ſeal, to the ſeveral county courts, in the ſame manner as hath been heretofore uſed in this State.

This Declaration of Rights and Frame of Government was aſſented to, and paſſed in Convention of the Delegates of the freemen of Maryland, begun and held at the city of Annapolis, the 14th of Auguſt, A. D. 1776.

EXPENSES OF GOVERNMENT AND TAXES.

The annual expenſes of government are eſtimated at about twenty thouſand pounds currency. The revenue ariſes chiefly from taxes on real and perſonal property.

CITY OF

WASHINGTON,

IN THE TERRITORY OF COLUMBIA.

THE territory of Columbia was ceded to the United States by the States of Maryland and Virginia, for the purpoſe of eſtabliſhing a federal city, that might become the permanent ſeat of the Federal Government. This city, now building, is called after the name of that brave defender of American liberty and ſupporter of the rights of mankind, GEORGE WASHINGTON, who having vindicated the rights of his countrymen, and contributed to the eſtabliſhment of his country's independence, has been called by the voice of gratitude and affection to fill the higheſt office a generous and brave people had to beſtow—this city will therefore ſtand as the moſt honourable monument of his worth and the people's gratitude that could poſſibly be erected; and we truſt that when it becomes the ſeat of government, which it is to be after 1800, that it will recall to the minds of future legiſlators his virtues, and the principles on which American liberty is founded, and its government eſtabliſhed. This city ſtands at the junction of the rivers Potomack and the Eaſtern Branch, in latitude 38° 53′ north, extending about four miles up each, including a tract of territory, exceeded in point of convenience, ſalubrity, and beauty, by none in America, if any in the world: for although the land is apparently level, yet by gentle and gradual ſwellings, a variety of elegant proſpects are produced, while there is a ſufficient deſcent to convey off the water occaſioned by rain.

Within the limits of the city are twenty-five ſprings of excellent water; and by digging wells, water of the beſt quality is readily had; beſides theſe, the ſtreams that now run through that territory, are alſo to be collected for the uſe of the city.

The waters of Reedy branch and of Tiber creek may alſo be conveyed to the Preſident's houſe; for the ſource of Tiber creek

is elevated about two hundred and thirty-ſix feet above the level of the tide in the ſaid creek, and the perpendicular height of the ground on which the capital is to ſtand, is ſeventy-eight feet above the level of the tide in the ſame; the water of Tiber creek may, therefore, be conveyed to the capital, and after watering that part of the city, may be deſtined to other uſeful purpoſes.

The Eaſtern Branch is one of the ſafeſt and moſt commodious harbours in America, being ſufficiently deep for the largeſt ſhips for about four miles above its mouth; while the channel lies cloſe along the edge of the city, and affords a large and capacious harbour.

The Potomack, although only navigable for ſmall craft, for a conſiderable diſtance from its banks next to the city, excepting about half a mile above the junction of the rivers, will nevertheleſs afford a capacious ſummer harbour; as an immenſe number of ſhips may ride in the great channel, oppoſite to and below the city.

The city, being ſituated upon the great poſt road, exactly equi-diſtant from the northern and ſouthern extremities of the Union, and nearly ſo from the Atlantic ocean to the Ohio river, upon the beſt navigation, in the midſt of the richeſt commercial territory in America, and commanding the moſt extenſive internal reſources, is by far the moſt eligible ſituation for the reſidence of Congreſs; and as it is now preſſing forward, by the public ſpirited enterpriſe of the people of the United States, and by foreigners, it will grow up with a degree of rapidity, hitherto unparalleled in the annals of cities, and will probably ſoon become the admiration of the world, and one of the principal emporiums of American commerce.

The inland navigation of the Potomack is ſo far advanced, that craft loaded with produce now come down that river and its ſeveral branches, from upwards of one hundred and eighty miles to the great falls, which are within fourteen miles of the new city. The canals at the great and little falls are nearly completed, and the locks in ſuch forwardneſs, that in the courſe of the preſent year, the navigation will be entirely opened between tide water and the head branches of the Potomack, which will produce a communication by water between the city of Waſhington and the interior parts of Virginia and Maryland, by means of the Potomack, the Shannandoah, the South Branch, Opecan, cape Capon, Patterſon's creek, Conoocheague, and Monocaſy, for upwards of two hundred miles, through one of the moſt healthy, pleaſant, and fertile regions in

in America, producing, in vaſt abundance, tobacco of ſuperior quality, hemp, Indian corn, wheat and other ſmall grain, with fruit and vegetables peculiar to America, in vaſt abundance, and equal in quality to any in the United States.

The lands upon the Potomack above the city of Waſhington, all around it, and for ſixty miles below, are high and dry, abounding with innumerable ſprings of excellent water, and are well covered with large timber of various kinds. A few miles below the city, upon the banks of the Potomack, are inexhauſtible mountains of excellent free-ſtone, of the white and red Portland kinds, of which the public edifices in the city are now building. Above the city, alſo upon the banks of the river, are immenſe quantities of excellent coal, lime-ſtone, and marble, with blue ſlate of the beſt quality.

The founding of this city in ſuch an eligible ſituation, and upon ſuch a liberal and elegant plan, will by future generations be conſidered as a high proof of the judgment and wiſdom of the preſent government of the United States, and whilſt its name will keep freſh in mind to the end of time, the many virtues and amiable qualities of the Preſident, the city itſelf will be a ſtanding monument of their public ſpirit.

The plan of this city agreeably to the directions of the Preſident of the United States, was deſigned and drawn by the celebrated Major L'Enfant, and is an inconceivable improvement upon all others, combining not only convenience, regularity, elegance of proſpect, and a free circulation of air, but every thing grand and beautiful that can poſſibly be introduced into a city.

The city is divided into ſquares or grand diviſions, by the ſtreets running due north, ſouth, eaſt and weſt, which form the ground-work of the plan. However, from the capitol, the Preſident's Houſe, and ſome of the important areas in the city, run tranſverſe avenues or diagonal ſtreets, from one material object to another, which not only produce a variety of charming proſpects, but remove that inſipid ſameneſs that renders ſome other great cities unpleaſing. Theſe great leading ſtreets are all one hundred and ſixty feet wide, including a pavement of ten feet, and a gravel walk of thirty feet planted with trees on each ſide, which will leave eighty feet of paved ſtreet for carriages. The reſt of the ſtreets are in general one hundred and ten feet wide, with a few only ninety feet, except North, South, and Eaſt Capitol ſtreets, which are one hundred and ſixty feet. The diagonal ſtreets are named after the reſpective States compoſing the Union, while thoſe running north and

ſouth are, from the capitol eaſtward, named, Eaſt Firſt Street, Eaſt Second Street, &c. and thoſe weſt of it in the ſame manner called Weſt Firſt Street, Weſt Second Street, &c. thoſe running eaſt and weſt are from the capitol northward named, North A Street, North B Street, &c. and thoſe ſouth of it are called South A Street, South B Street, &c.

The ſquares, or diviſions of the city, have their numbers inſerted in the plan, and amount to eleven hundred and fifty. The rectangular ſquares generally contain from three to ſix acres, and are divided into lots of from forty to eighty feet front, and their depth from about one hundred and ten to three hundred feet, according to the ſize of the ſquare.

The irregular diviſions produced by the diagonal ſtreets are ſome of them ſmall, but are generally invaluable ſituations. Their accute points are all to be cut off at forty feet, ſo that no houſe in the city will have an acute corner. The lots in theſe irregular ſquares will all turn at a right angle with the reſpective ſtreets, although the backs of the houſes upon them will not ſtand parallel to one another, which is a matter of little or no conſequence.

By the rules declared and publiſhed by the Preſident of the United States, for regulating the buildings within the city, all houſes muſt be of ſtone or brick—their walls muſt be parallel to the ſtreets, and either placed immediately upon them, or withdrawn therefrom at pleaſure. The walls of all houſes upon ſtreets one hundred and ſixty feet wide muſt be at leaſt thirty feet high; but there is no obligation impoſed to build or improve in any limited time.

The area for the capitol, or houſe for the legiſlative bodies, is ſituated upon the moſt beautiful eminence in the city, about a mile from the Eaſtern Branch, and not much more from the Potomack, commanding a full and complete view of every part of the city, as well as a conſiderable extent of the country around. The Preſident's houſe will ſtand upon a riſing ground, not far from the banks of the Potomack, poſſeſſing a delightful water proſpect, together with a commanding view of the capitol, and ſome other material parts of the city.

Due ſouth from the Preſident's houſe, and due weſt from the capitol, run two great pleaſure parks or malls, which interſect and terminate upon the banks of the Potomack, and are to be ornamented at the ſides by a variety of elegant buildings, and houſes for foreign miniſters, &c.

Interſperſed through the city, where the moſt material ſtreets croſs one another, are a variety of open areas, formed in vari-

ous regular figures, which in great cities are extremely uſeful and ornamental.

Fifteen of the beſt of theſe areas are to be appropriated to the different States compoſing the Union; not only to bear their reſpective names, but as proper places for them to erect ſtatues, obeliſks, or colums, to the memory of their favourite eminent men. Upon the ſmall eminence, where a line due weſt from the capitol, and due ſouth from the Preſident's houſe would interſect, is to be erected an equeſtrain ſtatue of GENERAL WASHINGTON. The building where Maſſachuſetts and Georgia ſtreet meets, is intended for a *Marine Hoſpital*, with its gardens.

The area at the ſouth end of Eaſt Eight Street is for the general exchange, and its public walks, &c.—The broad black line, which runs along part of North B ſtreet, and, ſeparating, joins the Eaſtern Branch at two places, is a canal, which is to be eighty feet wide, and eight feet deep. The area, where South G ſtreet croſſes the canal, is intended to contain a city hall, and a baſon of water; there being a very large ſpring in the middle of it.

The area, at the junction of the rivers, is for a fort, magazines, and arſenals.

At the eaſt end of Eaſt Capitol Street is to be a bridge, and the preſent ferry is at the lower end of Kentucky ſtreet, where the great road now croſſes the Eaſtern Branch. The Tiber, which is the principal ſtream that paſſes through the city, is to be collected in a grand reſervoir beſide the capitol, from whence it will be carried in pipes to different parts of the city; while its ſurplus will fall down in beautiful caſcades, through the public gardens weſt of the capitol into the canal. In various parts of the city, places are allotted for market houſes, churches, colleges, theatres, &c. In order to execute the plan a true meridional line was drawn by celeſtial obſervation, which paſſes through the area intended for the capitol. This line was croſſed by another, running due eaſt and weſt, which paſſes through the ſame area. Theſe lines were accurately meaſured, and made the baſis on which the whole plan was executed. All the lines were ran by a tranſit inſtrument, and the acute angles determined by actual meaſurement, thus leaving nothing to the uncertainty of the compaſs.

The Preſident of the United States in locating the ſeat of the city, prevailed upon the proprietors of the ſoil to cede a certain portion of the lots in every ſituation, to be ſold by his direction, and the proceeds to be ſolely applied to the public buildings,

and other works of public utility within the city. This grant will produce about fifteen thouſand lots, and will be ſufficient, not only to erect the public buildings, but to dig the canal, conduct water through the city, and to pave and light the ſtreets, which will ſave a heavy tax that ariſes in other cities, and conſequently render the lots conſiderably more valuable.

The grants of money made by Virginia and Maryland being ſufficient, few of the public lots were ſold, till the 17th day of September, 1793, when the demand was conſiderable, as the monied men in Europe and America had turned their attention to this great national object.

At the cloſe of the year 1792, moſt of the ſtreets were run, and the ſquares divided into lots. The canal was partly dug, and the greateſt part of the materials provided for the public buildings, which are entirely of free-ſtone poliſhed, and are now carrying on with all poſſible expedition. Several private houſes were erected, and a great many proprietors of lots were preparing to build. The city now makes a noble appearance, many of the public buildings being in great forwardneſs, or finiſhed, and a great number of houſes built. In the month of June laſt, eleven thouſand artificers, beſides labourers, were employed in the different works.

The public lots in the city of Waſhington open a large field for ſpeculation in America, and there is every probability of their being run up to an enormous price, as the public buildings are advanced; for although lands in America, from their quantity, are leſs valuable than thoſe in Britain, yet lots in cities generally ſell high.

STATE OF

VIRGINIA.

SITUATION, EXTENT, &c.

THIS State is ſituated between 0° and 8° weſt longitude from Philadelphia, and 36° 30′, and 40° 30′ north latitude. Its length is about four hundred and forty-ſix miles, and its breadth two hundred and twenty-four. It is bounded on the eaſt by the Atlantic, on the north by a line of latitude, croſſing the eaſtern ſhore through Watkins's Point, being about 37° 57′ north latitude; from thence by a ſtraight line to Cinquac, near the mouth of the Potomack; thence by the Potomack, which is common to Virginia and Maryland, to the firſt fountain of its northern branch; thence by a meridian line, paſſing through that fountain till it interſects a line running eaſt and weſt, in latitude 39° 43′ 42 4″ which divides Maryland from Pennſylvania, which was marked by Meſſrs. Maſon and Dixon; thence by that line, and a continuation of it weſtwardly to the completion of five degrees of longitude from the eaſtern boundary of Pennſylvania, in the ſame latitude, and thence by a meridian line to the Ohio; on the weſt by the Ohio and Miſſiſſippi, to latitude 36° 30′ north; and on the ſouth by the line of latitude laſt-mentioned. By admeaſurements through nearly the whole of this laſt line, and ſupplying the unmeaſured parts from good data, the Atlantic and Miſſiſſippi are found in this latitude to be ſeven hundred and fifty-eight miles diſtant, equal to 13° 38′ of longitude, reckoning fifty-five miles and three thouſand one hundred and forty-four feet to the degree. This being our comprehenſion of American longitude, that of their latitude, taken between this and Maſon and Dixon's line is 3° 13′ 42 4″, equal to about two hundred and twenty-three miles,

ſuppoſing a degree of a great circle to be ſixty-nine miles, eight hundred and ſixty-four feet as computed by Caſſini. Theſe boundaries include an area ſomewhat triangular, of one hundred and twenty-one thouſand five hundred and twenty-five ſquare miles, whereof, ſeventy-nine thouſand ſix hundred and fifty lie weſtward of the Allegany mountains, and fifty-ſeven thouſand and thirty-four weſtward of the meridian of the mouth of the Great Kanhawa. This State is therefore one third larger than the iſlands of Great-Britain and Ireland, which are reckoned at eighty-eight thouſand three hundred and fifty-ſeven ſquare miles.

Theſe limits reſult from, 1ſt, The antient charters from the crown of England. 2d, The grant of Maryland to Lord Baltimore, and the ſubſequent determinations of the Britiſh court as to the extent of that grant. 3d, The grant of Pennſylvania to William Penn, and a compact been the General Aſſemblies of the Commonwealth of Virginia and Pennſylvania as to the extent of that grant. 4th, The grant of Carolina, and actual location of its northern boundary, by conſent of both parties. 5th, The treaty of Paris of 1763. 6th, The confirmation of the charters of the neighbouring States by the Convention of Virginia at the time of conſtituting their Commonwealth. 7th, The ceſſion made by Virginia to Congreſs of all the lands to which they had title on the north ſide of the Ohio.

CLIMATE.

In an extenſive country, it will be expected that the climate is not the ſame in all its parts. It is remarkable that, proceeding on the ſame parallel of latitude weſterly, the climate becomes colder in like manner as when you proceed northwardly. This continues to be the caſe till you attain the ſummit of the Allegany, which is the higheſt land between the ocean and the Miſſiſſippi. From thence, deſcending in the ſame latitude to the Miſſiſſippi, the change reverſes; and, if we may believe travellers, it becomes warmer there than it is in the ſame latitude on the ſea ſide. Their teſtimony is ſtrengthened by the vegetables and animals which ſubſiſt and multiply there naturally, and do not on the ſea coaſt. Thus catalpas grow ſpontaneouſly on the Miſſiſſippi, as far as the latitude of 37°, and reeds as far as 38°. Parroquets even winter on the Scioto, in the 39th degree of latitude.

The ſouth-weſt winds, eaſt of the mountains, are moſt predominant. Next to theſe, on the ſea coaſt, the north-eaſt, and at the mountains, the north-weſt winds prevail. The difference between theſe winds is very great. The north-eaſt is loaded with vapour, inſomuch that the ſalt manufacturers have found that their chryſtals would not ſhoot while that blows; it occaſions a diſtreſſing chill, and a heavineſs and depreſſion of the ſpirits. The north-weſt is dry, cooling, elaſtic, and animating. The eaſt and ſouth-eaſt breezes come on generally in the afternoon. They have advanced into the country very ſenſibly within the memory of people now living. Mr. Jefferſon reckons the extremes of heat and cold to be 98° above and 6° below o, in Fahrenheit's thermometer.

That fluctuation between heat and cold, ſo deſtructive to fruit, in the ſpring ſeaſon, prevails leſs in Virginia than in Pennſylvania; nor is the overflowing of the rivers in Virginia ſo extenſive or ſo frequent at that ſeaſon, as thoſe of the New-England States; becauſe the ſnows in the former do not lie accumulating all winter, to be diſſolved all at once in the ſpring, as they do ſometimes in the latter. In Virginia, below the mountains, ſnow ſeldom lies more than a day or two, and ſeldom a week; and the large rivers ſeldom freeze over. The fluctuation of weather, however, is ſufficient to render the winters and ſprings very unwholeſome, as the inhabitants during thoſe ſeaſons have to walk in almoſt perpetual mire.

The months of June and July, though often the hotteſt, are the moſt healthy in the year. The weather is then dry and leſs liable to change than in Auguſt and September, when the rain commences, and ſudden variations take place.

On the ſea coaſt, the land is low, generally within twelve feet of the level of the ſea, interſected in all directions with ſalt creeks and rivers, the heads of which form ſwamps and marſhes, and fenny ground, covered with water in wet ſeaſons. The uncultivated lands are covered with large trees and thick underwood. The vicinity of the ſea, and ſalt creeks and rivers, occaſion a conſtant moiſture and warmth of the atmoſphere, ſo that although under the ſame latitude, one hundred or one hundred and fifty miles in the country, deep ſnows, and frozen rivers frequently happen, for a ſhort ſeaſon, yet here ſuch occurrences are conſidered as phenomena; for theſe reaſons, the trees are often in bloom as early as the laſt of February; from this period, however, till the end of April,

the inhabitants are incommoded by cold rains, piercing winds, and ſharp froſts, which ſubject them to the inflammatory diſeaſes, known here under the names of pleuriſy and peripneumony.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, &c.

The whole country below the mountains, which are about one hundred and fifty, ſome ſay two hundred miles from the ſea, is level, and ſeems from various appearances to have been once waſhed by the ſea. The land between York and James rivers is very level, and its ſurface about forty feet above high water mark. It appears, from obſervation, to have ariſen to its preſent height, at different periods far diſtant from each other, and that at theſe periods it was waſhed by the ſea; for near York-town, where the banks are perpendicular, you firſt ſee a *ſtratum*, intermixed with ſmall ſhells, reſembling a mixture of clay and ſand, and about five feet thick; on this lies horizontally, ſmall white ſhells, cockle, clam, &c. an inch or two thick; then a body of earth ſimilar to that firſt mentioned, eighteen inches thick; then a layer of ſhells and another body of earth; on this a layer of three feet of white ſhells mixed with ſand, on which lay a body of oyſter ſhells ſix feet thick, which are covered with earth to the ſurface. The oyſter ſhells are ſo united by a very ſtrong cement that they fall, only when undermined, and then in large bodies, from one to twenty tons weight. They have the appearance on the ſhore of large rocks.*

Theſe appearances continue in a greater or leſs degree in the banks of James river, one hundred miles from the ſea; the appearances then vary, and the banks are filled with ſharks, teeth, bones of large and ſmall fiſh petrified, and many other petrifactions, ſome reſembling the bones of land and other animals, and alſo vegetable ſubſtances. Theſe appearances are not confined to the river banks, but are ſeen in various places in gullies at conſiderable diſtances from the rivers. In one part of the State for ſeventy miles in length, by ſinking a well, your apparently come to the bottom of what was formerly a water-courſe. And even as high up as Botetourt county, among the Allegany mountains, there is a tract of land, judged to be forty thouſand acres, ſurrounded on every ſide by mountains, which is entirely

* General Lincoln.

covered with oyſter and cockle ſhells, and, by ſome gullies, they appear to be of conſiderable depth. A plantation at Day's Point, on James river, of as many as one thouſand acres, appears at a diſtance as if covered with ſnow, but on examination the white appearance is found to ariſe from a bed of clam ſhells, which by repeated plowing have become fine and mixed with the earth.

It is worthy notice, that the mountains in this State are not ſolitary and ſcattered confuſedly over the face of the country; but commence at about one hundred and fifty miles from the ſea coaſt, are diſpoſed in ridges one behind another, running nearly parallel with the ſea coaſt, though rather approaching it as they advance north-eaſtwardly. To the ſouth-weſt, as the tract of country between the ſea coaſt and the Miſſiſſippi becomes narrower, the mountains converge into a ſingle ridge: which, as it approaches the gulph of Mexico, ſubſides into plain country, and gives riſe to ſome of the waters of that gulph, and particularly to a river called Apalachicola, probably from the Apalachies, an Indian nation formerly reſiding on it. Hence the mountains giving riſe to that river, and ſeen from its various parts, were called the Apalacian mountains, being in fact the end or termination only of the great ridges paſſing through the continent. European geographers, however, have extended the ſame north-wardly as far as the mountains extended; ſome giving it after their ſeparation into different ridges, to the Blue Ridge, others to the North mountains, others to the Allegany, others to the Laurel Ridge, as may be ſeen in their different maps. But none of theſe ridges were ever known by that name to the inhabitants, either native or emigrant, but as they ſaw them ſo called in European maps. In the ſame direction generally are the veins of lime-ſtone, coal, and other minerals hitherto diſcovered; and ſo range the falls of the great rivers. But the courſes of the great rivers are at right angles with theſe. James and the Potomack penetrate through all the ridges of mountains eaſtward of the Allegany, which is broken by no water-courſe. It is in fact the ſpine of the country between the Atlantic on one ſide, and the Miſſiſſippi and St. Lawrence on the other. The paſſage of the Potomack through the Blue Ridge is perhaps one of the moſt ſtupendous ſcenes in nature. You ſtand on a very high point of land. On your right comes up the Shenandoah, having ranged along the foot of the mountain an hundred miles to ſeek a vent; on your left approaches the Potomack, in queſt of a paſſage alſo; in the

moment of their junction, they ruſh together againſt the mountain, rend it aſunder, and paſs off to the ſea. The firſt glance of this ſcene hurries our ſenſes into the opinion, that this earth has been created in time, that the mountains were formed firſt, that the rivers began to flow afterwards; that in this place particularly they have been dammed up by the Blue Ridge of mountains, and have formed an ocean which filled the whole valley; that continuing to riſe, they have at length broken over at this ſpot, and have torn the mountain down from its ſummit to its baſe. The piles of rock on each hand, but particularly on the Shenandoah, the evident marks of their diſruption and avulſion from their beds by the moſt powerful agents of nature, corroborate the impreſſion; but the diſtant finiſhing which nature has given to the picture, is of a very different character. It is a true contraſt to the fore ground; it is as placid and delightful, as that is wild and tremendous. For the mountain, being cloven aſunder, preſents to the eye, through the cleft, a ſmall catch of ſmooth blue horizon, at an infinite diſtance, in the plain country, inviting you, as it were, from the riot and tumult roaring around, to paſs through the breach and participate of the calm below. Here the eye ultimately compoſes itſelf; and that way too, the road actually leads. You croſs the Potomack above the junction, paſs along its ſide through the baſe of the mountain for three miles, its terrible precipices hanging in fragments over you, and within about twenty miles reach Frederick-town and the fine country round that. This ſcene is worth a voyage acroſs the Atlantic. Yet here, as in the neighbourhood of the Natural Bridge, are people who have paſſed their lives within half a dozen miles, and have never been to ſurvey thoſe monuments of a war between rivers and mountains, which muſt have ſhaken the earth itſelf to its center. The height of the mountains has not yet been eſtimated with any degree of exactneſs. The Allegany being the great ridge which divides the waters of the Atlantic from thoſe of the Miſſiſſippi, its ſummit is doubtleſs more elevated above the ocean than that of any other mountain. But its relative height compared with the baſe on which it ſtands, is not ſo great as that of ſome others, the country riſing behind the ſucceſſive ridges like the ſteps of ſtairs. The mountains of the Blue Ridge, and theſe the peaks of Otter are thought to be of a greater height meaſured from their baſe than any others in Virginia, and perhaps in North-America. From data, which may be found a tolerable conjecture, we

ſuppoſe the higheſt peak to be about four thouſand feet perpendicular, which is not a fifth part of the height of the mountains of South-America, nor one third of the height which would be neceſſary in our latitude to preſerve ice in the open air unmelted through the year. The ridge of mountains next beyond the Blue Ridge, called the North mountain, is of the greateſt extent: for which reaſon they are named by the Indians the Endleſs mountains.

The Ouaſioto mountains are fifty or ſixty miles wide at the Gap. Theſe mountains abound in coal, lime, and free-ſtone; the ſummits of them are generally covered with a good ſoil, and a variety of timber; and the low, intervale lands are rich and remarkably well watered.

An inſpection of the map of Virginia will give a better idea of the geography of its rivers, than any deſcription in writing. Their navigation, however, may be imperfectly noted.

Roanoke, ſo far as it lies within this State, is no where navigable but for canoes, or light batteaux; and even for theſe, in ſuch detached parcels as to have prevented the inhabitants from availing themſelves of it at all.

James river, and its waters, afford navigation as follows: the whole of Elizabeth river, the loweſt of thoſe which run into James river, is a harbour, and would contain upwards of three hundred ſhips. The channel is from one hundred and fifty to two hundred fathoms wide, and at common flood tide, affords eighteen feet water to Norfolk. The Strafford, a ſixty gun ſhip, went there, lightening herſelf acroſs the bar at Sowell's Point. The Fier Rodrigue, pierced for ſixty-four guns, and carrying fifty, went there without lightening. Craney Iſland, at the mouth of this river, commands its channel tolerably well.

Nanſemond river is navigable to Sleepy Hole, for veſſels of two hundred and fifty tons: to Suffolk, for thoſe of one hundred tons; and to Milner's for thoſe of twenty-five. Pagan creek affords eight or ten feet water to Smithfield, which admits veſſels of twenty tons. Chickahominy has at its mouth a bar on which is only twelve feet water at common flood tide. Veſſels paſſing that, may go eight miles up the river; thoſe of ten feet draught may go four miles farther, ond thoſe of ſix tons burthen twenty mils farther.

The Appamattox may be navigated as far as Broadways, by any veſſel which has croſſed Harriſon's bar in James river; it

keeps eight or nine feet water a mile or two higher up to Fiſher's bar, and four feet on that and upwards to Peterſburgh, where all navigation ceaſes.

James river itſelf affords harbour for veſſels of any ſize at Hampton road, but not in ſafety through the whole winter; and there is navigable water for them as far as Mulberry Iſland. A forty gun ſhip goes to James-town, and, lightening herſelf, may paſs to Harriſon's bar, on which there is only fifteen feet water. Veſſels of two hundred and fifty tons may go to Warwick; thoſe of one hundred and twenty-five go to Rocket's, a mile below Richmond; from thence is about ſeven feet water to Richmond; and about the center of the town, four feet and a half, where the navigation is interrupted by falls, which in a courſe of ſix miles deſcend about eighty feet perpendicular: above theſe it is reſumed in canoes and batteaux, and is proſecuted ſafely and advantageouſly to within ten miles of the Blue Ridge; and even through the Blue Ridge a ton weight has been brought; and the expenſe would not be great, when compared with its object, to open a tolerable navigation up Jackſon's river and Carpenter's creek, to within twenty-five miles of Howard's creek of Green Briar, both of which have then water enough to float veſſels into the Great Kanhawa. In ſome future ſtate of population, it is poſſible that its navigation may alſo be made to interlock with that of Potomak, and through that to communicate by a ſhort portage with the Ohio. It is to be noted, that this river is called in the maps James river, only to its confluence with the Rivanna; thence to the Blue Ridge it is called the Fluvanna; and thence to its ſource, Jackſon's river. But in common ſpeech it is called James river to its ſource.

The Rivanna, a branch of James river, is navigable for canoes and batteaux to its interſection with the ſouth-weſt mountains which is about twenty-two miles; and may eaſily be opened to navigation through thoſe mountains, to its fork above Charlotteſville.

York river, at York-town, affords the beſt harbour in the State for veſſels of the largeſt ſize. The river there narrows to the width of a mile, and is contained within very high banks, cloſe under which the veſſels may ride. It holds four fathom water at high tide for twenty-five miles above York to the mouth of Poropotank, where the river is a mile and a half wide, and the channel only ſeventy-five fathom, and paſſing under a high bank.

At the confluence of Pamunkey and Mattapony it is reduced to three fathom depth, which continues up Pamunkey to Cumberland, where the width is one hundred yards, and up Mattapony to within two miles of Frazier's ferry, where it becomes two and a half fathom deep, and holds that about five miles. Pamunkey is then capable of navigation for loaded flats to Brockman's bridge, fifty miles above Hanover-town, and Mattapony to Downer's bridge, seventy miles above its mouth.

Piankatank, the little rivers making out of Mobjack bay, and those of the eastern shore, receive only very small vessels, and these can but enter them. Rappahannock affords four fathom water to Hobbe's Hole, and two fathoms from thence to Fredericksburg, one hundred and ten miles.

The Potomack is seven and a half miles wide at the mouth; four and a half at Nomony bay; three at Aquia; one and a half at Hallooing point; one and a quarter at Alexandria. Its soundings are seven fathom at the mouth; five at St. George's island; four and a half at Lower Matchodic; three at Swan's point, and thence up to Alexandria; thence ten feet water to the falls, which are thirteen miles above Alexandria. The tides in the Potomack are not very strong, excepting after great rains, when the ebb is pretty strong, then there is little or no flood; and there is never more than four or five hours flood, except with long and strong south winds.

The distance from the capes of Virginia to the termination of the tide water in this river is above three hundred miles, and navigable for ships of the greatest burthen, nearly that distance. From thence this river, obstructed by four considerable falls, extends through a vast tract of inhabited country towards its source. These falls are, 1st, The Little Falls, three miles above tide water, in which distance there is a fall of thirty-six feet; 2d, The Great Falls, six miles higher, where is a fall of seventy-six feet in one mile and a quarter; 3d, The Seneca Falls, six miles above the former, which form short, irregular rapids, with a fall of about ten feet; and 4th, The Shenandoah Falls, sixty miles from the Seneca, where is a fall of about thirty feet in three miles: from which last, fort Cumberland is about one hundred and twenty miles distant. The obstructions which are opposed to the navigation above and between these falls are of little consequence.

Early in the year 1785, the legiſlatures of Virginia and Maryland paſſed acts to encourage opening the navigation of this river. It was eſtimated that the expenſe of the works would amount to fifty thouſand pounds ſterling, and ten years were allowed for their completion: but the preſident and directors of the incorporated company have ſince ſuppoſed that forty-five thouſand pounds would be adequate to the operation, and that it would be accompliſhed in a ſhorter period than was ſtipulated. Their calculations are founded on the progreſs already made, and the ſummary mode eſtabliſhed for enforcing the collection of the dividends, as the money may become neceſſary.

As ſoon as the proprietors ſhall begin to receive toll, they will doubtleſs find an ample compenſation for their pecuniary advances. By an eſtimate made many years ago, it was calculated that the amount in the commencement would be at the rate of eleven thouſand eight hundred and ſeventy-five pounds, Virginia currency, per annum. The toll muſt every year become more productive; as the quantity of articles for exportation will be augmented in a rapid ratio, with the increaſe of population and the extenſion of ſettlements. In the mean time the effect will be immediately ſeen in the agriculture of the interior country; for the multitude of horſes now employed in carrying produce to market, will then be uſed altogether for the purpoſes of tillage. But in order to form juſt conceptions of the utility of this inland navigation, it would be requiſite to notice the long rivers which empty into the Potomack, and even to take a ſurvey of the geographical poſition of the weſtern waters.

The Shenandoah, which empties juſt above the Blue mountains, may, according to report, be made navigable, at a trifling expenſe, more than one hundred and fifty miles from its confluence with the Potomack; and will receive and bear the produce of the richeſt part of the State. Commiſſioners have been appointed to form a plan, and to eſtimate the expenſe of opening the channel of this river, if on examination it ſhould be found practicable. The South Branch, ſtill higher, is navigable in its actual condition nearly or quite one hundred miles, through exceedingly fertile lands. Between theſe on the Virginia ſide are ſeveral ſmaller rivers, that may with eaſe be improved, ſo as to afford a paſſage for boats. On the Maryland ſide are the Monocaſy, Antietam, and Conegocheague, ſome of which paſs through the State of Maryland, and have their ſources in Pennſylvania.

From fort Cumberland, or Wills' creek, one or two good waggon roads may be had, where the diſtance is from thirty-five to forty miles, to the Youghiogany, a large and navigable branch of the Monongahela, which laſt forms a junction with the Allegany at Fort Pitt.

But by paſſing farther up the Potomack than fort Cumberland, which may very eaſily be done, a portage by a good waggon road to Cheat river, another large branch of the Monongahela, can be obtained through a ſpace which ſome ſay is twenty, others twenty-two, others twenty-five, and none more than thirty miles.

When arrived at either of theſe weſtern waters, the navigation through that immenſe region is opened by a thouſand directions, and to the lakes in ſeveral places by portages of leſs than ten miles; and by one portage, it is aſſerted, of not more than a ſingle mile.

Notwithſtanding it was ſneeringly ſaid by ſome foreigners, at the beginning of this undertaking, that the Americans were fond of engaging in ſplendid projects which they could never accompliſh, yet it is hoped the ſucceſs of this firſt eſſay towards improving their inland navigation, will reſcue them from the reproach intended to have been fixed upon their national character, by the unmerited imputation.

The Great Kanhawa is a river of conſiderable note for the fertility of its land, and ſtill more, as leading towards the head waters of James river. Nevertheleſs, it is doubtful whether its great and numerous rapids will admit a navigation, but at an expenſe to which it will require ages to render its inhabitants equal. The great obſtacles begin at what are called the Great Falls, ninety miles above the mouth, below which are only five or ſix rapids, and theſe paſſable, with ſome difficulty, even at low water. From the falls to the mouth of Green Briar is one hundred miles, and thence to the lead mines one hundred and twenty. It is two hundred and eighty yards wide at its mouth.

The Little Kanhawa is one hundred and fifty yards wide at the mouth. It yields a navigation of ten miles only. Perhaps its northern branch, called Junius's creek, which interlocks with the weſtern waters of Monongahela, may one day admit a ſhorter paſſage from the latter into the Ohio.

Beſides the rivers we have now mentioned, there are many others of leſs note, nevertheleſs the State does not abound with good fiſh; ſturgeon, ſhad and herring are the moſt plenty; perch, ſheepſhead, drum, rock fiſh, and trout, are common; beſides theſe, they have oyſters, crabs, ſhrimps, &c. in abundance. The ſprings in this State are almoſt innumerable. In Auguſta there is a remarkable caſcade, it bears the name of the Falling Spring. It is a water of James river, where it is called Jackſon's river, riſing in the warm ſpring mountains about twenty miles ſouth-weſt of the warm ſpring, and flowing into that valley. About three quarters of a mile from its ſource it falls over a rock two hundred feet into the valley below. The ſheet of water is broken in its breadth by the rock in two or three places, but not at all in its height. Between the ſheet and rock, at the bottom, you may walk acroſs dry. This cataract will bear no compariſon with that of Niagara, as to the quantity of water compoſing it, the ſheet being only twelve for fifteen feet wide above, and ſomewhat more ſpread below; but it is half as high again.

SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, &c.

The ſoil below the mountains ſeems to have acquired a character for goodneſs which it by no means deſerves. Though not rich, it is well ſuited to the growth of tobacco and Indian corn, and parts of it for wheat. Good crops of cotton, flax and hemp are alſo raiſed; and in ſome counties they have plenty of cyder, and exquiſite brandy, diſtilled from peaches, which grow in great abundance upon the numerous rivers of the Cheſapeak.

The planters, before the war, paid their principal attention to the culture of tobacco, of which there uſed to be exported, generally, fifty-five thouſand hogſheads a year. Since the revolution they are turning their attention more to the cultivation of wheat, Indian corn, barley, flax and hemp. It is expected that this State will add the article of rice to the liſt of exports; as it is ſuppoſed a large body of ſwamp, in the caſternmoſt counties, is capable of producing it.

Horned or neat cattle are bred in great numbers in the weſtern counties of Virginia, as well as the States ſouth of it, where they have an extenſive range, and mild winters, without any permanent ſnows. They run at large, are not houſed, and

multiply very faſt. "In the lower parts of the State a diſeaſe prevails among the neat cattle which proves fatal to all that are not bred there. The oxen from the more northern States, which were employed at the ſiege of York-town, in October 1781, almoſt all died, ſometimes forty of them in a night, and often ſuddenly dropped down dead in the roads. It is ſaid that the ſeeds of this diſeaſe were brought from the Havannah to South Carolina or Georgia in ſome hides, and that the diſeaſe has made a progreſs northward to Virginia. Lord Dunmore imported ſome cattle from Rhode-Iſland, and kept them confined in a ſmall paſture, near his ſeat, where no cattle had been for ſome years, and where they could not intermix with other cattle, and yet they ſoon died."

The gentlemen of this State being fond of pleaſure, have taken much pains to raiſe a good breed of horſes, and have ſucceeded in it beyond any of the other States in the Union. They will give one thouſand pounds ſterling for a good ſeed horſe. Horſe-racing has had a great tendency to encourage the breeding of good horſes, as it affords an opportunity of putting them to the trial of their ſpeed. They are more elegant, and will perform more ſervice than the horſes of the northern States.

With reſpect to the ſubterraneous productions, Virginia is the moſt pregnant with minerals and foſſils of any State in the Union. Mr. Jefferſon mentions a lump of gold ore of about four pounds weight found near the falls of Rappahanock river, which yielded ſeventeen penny-weights of gold, of extraordinary ductility; but no other indication of gold has been diſcovered in its neighbourhood.

On the great Kanhawa, oppoſite to the mouth of Cripple creek, and alſo about twenty-five miles from the ſouthern boundary of the State, in the county of Montgomery, are mines of lead. The metal is mixed, ſometimes with earth, and ſometimes with rock, which requires the force of gunpowder to open it; and is accompanied with a portion of ſilver, but too ſmall to be worth ſeparation under any proceſs hitherto attempted there. The proportion yielded is from fifty to eighty pounds of pure lead from an hundred pounds of waſhed ore. The moſt common is that of ſixty to the hundred pounds. The veins are ſometimes moſt flattering; at others they diſappear ſuddenly and totally. They enter the ſide of the hill, and proceed horizontally. Two of them have been wrought by the pub-

lic. Theſe would employ about fifty labourers to advantage. Thirty men, who have at the ſame time raiſed their own corn, have produced ſixty tons of lead in the year; but the general quantity is from twenty to twenty-five tons. The preſent furnace is a mile from the ore bank and on the oppoſite ſide of the river. The ore is firſt waggoned to the river, a quarter of a mile, then laden on board of canoes and carried acroſs the river, which is there about two hundred yards wide, and then again taken into waggons and carried to the furnace. This mode was originally adoped, that they might avail themſelves of a good ſituation on a creek, for a pounding mill; but it would be eaſy to have the furnace and pounding mill on the ſame ſide of the river, which would yield water, without any dam, by a canal of about half a mile in length. From the furnace the lead is tranſported one hundred and thirty miles along a good road, leading through the peaks of Otter to Lynch's Ferry, or Winſton's, on James river, from whence it is carried by water about the ſame diſtance to Weſtham. This land carriage may be greatly ſhortened, by delivering the lead on James river, above the Blue Ridge, from whence a ton weight has been brought in two canoes. The great Kanhawa has conſiderable falls in the neighbourhood of the mines. About ſeven miles below are three falls, of three or four feet perpendicular each; and three miles above is a rapid of three miles continuance, which has been compared in its deſcent to the great fall of James river; yet it is the opinion, that they may be laid open for uſeful navigation, ſo as to reduce very much the portage between the Kanhawa and James river.

A valuable lead mine is ſaid to have been diſcovered in Cumberland, below the mouth of Red river. The greateſt, however, known in the weſtern country are on the Miſſiſſippi, extended from the mouth of Rock river an hundred and fifty miles upwards. Theſe are not wrought, the lead uſed in that country being from the banks on the Spaniſh ſide of the Miſſiſſippi, oppoſite to Kaſkaſkia.

A mine of copper was opened in the county of Amherſt, on the north ſide of James river, and another in the oppoſite county, on the ſouth ſide. However, either from bad management or the poverty of the veins, they were diſcontinued. There are ſeveral iron mines in this State; a few years ago there were ſix worked; two furnaces made about one hundred and fifty tons of bar iron each; four others made each from

ſix hundred to one thouſand ſix hundred tons of pig iron annually. Beſides theſe, a forge at Frederickſburgh made about three hundred tons a year of bar iron, from pigs imported from Maryland; and a forge on Neapſco of Potomack worked in the ſame way. The indications of iron in other places are numerous, and diſperſed through all the middle country. The toughneſs of the caſt iron of ſome of the furnaces is very remarkable. Pots and other utenſils, caſt thinner than uſual, of this iron, may be ſafely thrown into or out of the waggons in which they are tranſported. Salt pans made of the ſame, and no longer wanted for that purpoſe, cannot be broken up in order to be melted again, unleſs previouſly drilled in many parts.

In the weſtern part of the State, we are informed, there are likewiſe iron mines on Cheſnut creek, a branch of the great Kanhawa, near where it croſſes the Carolina line; and in other places.

Conſiderable quantities of black lead are taken occaſionally for uſe from Winterham, in the county of Amelia. There is no work eſtabliſhed at it, thoſe who want go and procure it for themſelves.

The country on both ſides of James river, from fifteen to twenty miles above Richmond, and for ſeveral miles northward and ſouthward is replete with mineral coal of a very excellent quality. Being in the hands of many proprietors, pits have been opened and worked to an extent equal to the demand. The pits which have been opened lie one hundred aud fifty or two hundred feet above the bed of the river, and have been very little incommoded with water. The firſt diſcovery of the coal is ſaid to have been made by a boy digging after a cray-fiſh; it has alſo been found on the bottom of trees blown up. In many places it lies within three or four feet of the ſurface of the ground. It is conjectured, that five hundred thouſand buſhels might be raiſed from one pit in twelve months.

In the weſtern country, coal is known to be in ſo many places, as to have induced an opinion, that the whole tract between the Laurel mountain, Miſſiſſippi and Ohio, yields coal. It is alſo known in many places on the north ſide of the Ohio. The coal at Pittſburgh is of a very ſuperior quality; a bed of it at that place has been on fire ſince the year 1765. Another coal hill on the Pike Run of Monongahela has been on fire for ſeveral years.

Mr. Jefferſon informs us, that he has know one inſtance of an emerald found in this country. Amethyſts have been frequent, and chryſtals common; yet not in ſuch numbers any of them as to be worth ſeeking.

There is very good marble, and in very great abundance, on James river, at the mouth of Rockfiſh; ſome white and as pure as one might expect to find on the ſurface of the earth; but generally variegated with red, blue and purple. None of it has ever been worked: it forms a very large precepice, which hangs over a navigable part of the river.

But one vain of lime-ſtone is known below the Blue Ridge; its firſt appearance is in Prince William, two miles below the Pignut ridge of mountains; thence it paſſes on nearly parallel with that, and croſſes the Rivanna about five miles below it, where it is called the South-weſt ridge; it then croſſes Hardware, above the mouth of Hudſon's creek, James river, at the mouth of Rockfiſh, at the Marble Quarry before ſpoken of, probably runs up that river to where it appears again at Roſs's iron works, and ſo paſſes off ſouth-weſtwardly by Flat creek of the river Ottor; it is never more than an hundred yards wide. From the Blue Ridge weſtwardly the whole country ſeems to be founded on a rock of lime-ſtone, beſides infinite quantities on the ſurface, both looſe and fixed; this is cut into beds, which range, as the mountains and ſea coaſt do, from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, the lamina of each bed declining from the horizon towards a paralleliſm with the axis of the earth. Mr. Jefferſon, being ſtruck with this obſervation, made, with a quadrant, a great number of trials on the angles of their declination, and found them to vary from 22° to 60°; but averaging all his trials, the reſult was within one-third of a degree of the elevation of the pole or latitude of the place, and much the greateſt part of them taken ſeparately were little different from that; by which it appears, that theſe lamina are, in the main, parallel with the axis of the earth. In ſome inſtances, indeed, he found them perpendicular, and even reclining the other way; but theſe were extremely rare, and always attended with ſigns of convulſion, or other circumſtances of ſingularity, which admitted a poſſibilty of removal from their original poſition. Theſe trials were made between Madiſon's cave and the Potomack.

Near the eaſtern foot of the north mountain are immenſe bodies of *Schiſt*, containing impreſſions of ſhells in a variety of

forms. Mr. Jefferſon received petrified ſhells of very different kinds, from the firſt ſources of the Kentucky, which bore no reſemblance to any he had ever ſeen on the tide waters. It is ſaid, that ſhells are found in the Andes, in South-America, fifteen thouſand feet above the level of the ocean. This is conſidered by many, both of the learned and unlearned, as a proof of an univerſal deluge.

There is great abundance, more eſpecially when you approach the mountains, of ſtone of white, blue, brown, and other colours, fit for the chiſſel, good mill-ſtone, ſuch alſo as ſtands the fire, and ſlate-ſtone. We are told of flint, fit for gun-flints, on the Meherrin in Brunſwick, on the Miſſiſſippi, between the Ohio and Kaſkaſkia, and on others of the weſtern waters. Iſinglaſs, or mica, is in ſeveral places; loadſtone alſo, and an aſbeſtos of a ligneous texture, is ſometimes to be met with.

Marble abounds generally. A clay, of which, like the Sturbridge in England, bricks are made, which will reſiſt long the action of fire, has been found on Tukahoe creek of James river, and no doubt will be found in other places. Chalk is ſaid to be in Botetourt and Bedford. In the latter county is ſome earth, believed to be gypſeous. Ochres are found in various parts.

In the lime-ſtone country are many caves, the earthly floors of which are impregnated with nitre. On Rich creek, a branch of the Great Kanhawa, about ſixty miles below the lead mines, is a very large one, about twenty yards wide, and entering a hill a quarter or half a mile. The vault is of rock, from nine to fifteen or twenty feet above the floor. A Mr. Lynch, who gives this account, undertook to extract the nitre. Beſides a coat of the ſalt which had formed on the vault and floor, he found the earth highly impregnated to the depth of ſeven feet in ſome places, and generally of three, every buſhel yielding on an average three pounds of nitre. Mr. Lynch having made about a thouſand pounds of the ſalt from it, conſigned it to ſome others, who have ſince made large quantities. They have done this by purſuing the cave into the hill, never trying a ſecond time the earth they have once exhauſted, to ſee how far or ſoon it receives another impregnation. At leaſt fifty of theſe caves are worked on the Greenbriar, and there are many of them known on Cumberland river.

An intelligent gentleman, an inhabitant of Virginia, ſuppoſes, that the caves lately diſcovered yield it in ſuch abundance, that he judges five hundred thouſand pounds of ſaltpetre might be collected annually.

MEDICINAL SPRINGS.

There are ſeveral medicinal ſprings, ſome of which are indubitably efficacious, while others ſeem to owe their reputation as much to fancy, and change of air and regimen, as to their real virtues. None of them have undergone a chemical analyſis in ſkilful hands, nor been ſo far the ſubject of obſervation, as to have produced a reduction into claſſes, of the diſorders which they relieve; it is in our power to give little more than an enumeration of them.

The moſt efficacious of theſe are two ſprings in Auguſta, near the ſources of James river, where it is called Jackſon's river. They riſe near the foot of the ridge of mountains, generally called the Warm Spring mountain, but in the maps Jackſon's mountains. The one is diſtinguiſhed by the name of the Warm Spring, and the other of the Hot Spring. The Warm Spring iſſues with a very bold ſtream, ſufficient to work a griſt mill, and to keep the waters of its baſon, which is thirty feet in diameter, at the vital warmth, viz. 96° of Fahrenheit's thermometer. The matter which theſe waters is allied to is very volatile; its ſmell indicates it to be ſulphureous, as alſo does the circumſtance of turning ſilver black: they relieve rheumatiſms: other complains alſo of very different natures have been removed or leſſened by them. It rains here four or or five days in every week.

The hot ſpring is about ſix miles from the warm, is much ſmaller, and has been ſo hot as to have boiled an egg. Some believe its degree of heat to be leſſened: it raiſes the mercury in Fahrenheit's thermometer to 112°, which is fever heat; it ſometimes relieves where the warm ſpring fails. A fountain of common water, iſſuing within a few inches of its margin, gives it a ſingular appearance. Comparing the temperature of theſe with that of the hot ſprings of Kamſcatka, of which Krachininnikow, gives an account, the difference is very great, the latter raiſing the mercury to 200°, which is within 12° of boiling water. The ſprings are very much reſorted to, in ſpite of a total want of accommodation for the ſick. Their waters are ſtrongeſt in the hotteſt months, which occaſions their being viſited in July and Auguſt principally.

The ſweet ſprings are in the county of Botetourt, at the eaſtern foot of the Allegany, about forty-two miles from the warm ſprings. They are ſtill leſs known. Having been found

to relieve caſes in which the others had been ineffectually tried, it is probable their compoſition is different; they are different alſo in their temperature, being as cold as common water; which is not mentioned, however, as a proof of a diſtinct impregnation. This is among the firſt ſources of James river.

On the Potomack river, in Berkeley county, above the North mountain, are medicinal ſprings, much more frequented than thoſe of Auguſta: their powers, however, are leſs, the waters weakly mineraliſed, and ſcarcely warm. They are more viſited, becauſe ſituated in a fertile, plentiful and populous country, provided with better accommodations, always ſafe from the Indians, and neareſt to the more populous States.

In Louiſa county, on the head waters of the South Anna branch of York river, are ſprings of ſome medicinal virtue; they are, however, not much uſed. There is a weak chalybeate at Richmond, and many others in various parts of the country, which are of too little worth, or too little note to be enumerated after thoſe before mentioned.

We are told of a ſulphur ſpring on Howard's creek of Greenbriar.

In the low grounds of the Great Kanhawa, ſeven miles above the mouth of Elk river, and ſixty-ſeven above that of the Kanhawa itſelf, is a hole in the earth of the capacity of thirty or forty gallons, from which iſſues conſtantly a bituminous vapour, in ſo ſtrong a current, as to give to the ſand about its orifice the motion which it has in a boiling ſpring. On preſenting a lighted candle or torch within eighteen inches of the hole, it flames up in a column of eighteen inches diameter, and four or five feet in height, which ſometimes burns out in twenty minutes, and at other times has been known to continue three days, and then has been left burning. The flame is unſteady, of the denſity of that of burning ſpirits, and ſmells like burning pit coal. Water ſometimes collects in the baſon, which is remarkably cold, and is kept in ebullition by the vapour iſſuing through it; if the vapour be fired in that ſtate, the water ſoon becomes ſo warm, that the hand cannot bear it, and evaporates wholly in a ſhort time. This, with the circumjacent lands, is the property of Preſident Waſhington and of General Lewis.

There is a ſimilar one on Sandy river, the flame of which is a column of about twelve inches diameter and three feet high. General Clarke kindled the vapour, ſtaid about an hour, and left it burning.

The mention of uncommon ſprings leads to that of Syphon fountains: there is one of theſe near the interſection of the Lord Fairfax's boundary with the North mountain, not far from Brock's gap, on the ſtream of which is a griſt mill, which grinds two buſhels of grain at every flood of the ſpring. Another near the Cow Paſture river, a mile and a half below its confluence with the Bull Paſture river, and ſixteen or ſeventeen miles from the hot ſprings, which intermits once in every twelve hours. One alſo near the mouth of the North Holſton.

After theſe may be mentioned, the Natural Well on the lands of a Mr. Lewis, in Frederick county; it is ſomewhat larger than a common well; the water riſes in it as near the ſurface of the earth as in the neighbouring artificial wells, and is of a depth as yet unknown. It is ſaid, there is a current in it tending ſenſibly downwards; if this be true, it probably feeds ſome fountain, of which it is the natural reſervoir, diſtinguiſhed from others, like that of Madiſon's cave, by being acceſſible; it is uſed with a bucket and windlaſs as an ordinary well.

CAVERNS AND CURIOSITIES.

In the lime-ſtone country there are many caverns of very conſiderable extent. The moſt noted is called Madiſon's cave, and is on the north ſide of the Blue ridge, near the interſection of the Rockingham and Auguſta line with the ſouth fork of the ſouthern river of Shenandaoh. It is in a hill of about two hundred feet perpendicular height, the aſcent of which, on one ſide, is ſo ſteep, that you may pitch a biſcuit from its ſummit into the river which waſhes its baſe. The entrance of the cave is, in this ſide, about two-thirds of the way up. It extends into the earth about three hundred feet, branching into ſubordinate caverns, ſometimes aſcending a little, but more generally deſcending, and at length terminates in two different places, at baſons of water of unknown extent, and which appear to be nearly on a level with the water of the river. The water in theſe baſons is always cool, it is never turbid, nor does it riſe or fall in times of flood or drought. It is probably one of the many reſervoirs with which the interior parts of the earth are ſuppoſed to abound, and which yield ſupplies to the fountains of

water, diſtinguiſhed from others only by its being acceſſible. The vault of this cave is of ſolid lime-ſtone, from twenty to forty or fifty feet high, through which water is continually percolating. This, trickling down the ſides of the cave, has incruſted them over in the form of elegant drapery; and dripping from the top of the vault, generates on that, and on the baſe below, ſtalactites of a conical form, ſome of which have met and formed maſſive columns.

Another of theſe caves is near the North mountain, in the county of Frederick. The entrance into this is on the top of an extenſive ridge. You deſcend thirty or forty feet, as into a well, from whence the cave then extends, nearly horizontally, four hundred feet into the earth, preſerving a breadth of from twenty to fifty feet, and a height of from five to twelve feet. Mr. Jefferſon obſerves, that after entering this cave a few feet, the mercury, which in the open air was at 50°, roſe to 57° of Fahrenheit's thermometer, anſwering to 11° of Reaumur's, and it continued at that to the remoteſt parts of the cave. The uniform temperature of the cellars of the obſervatory of Paris, which are ninety feet deep, and of all ſubterranean cavities of any depth, where no chymical agents may be ſuppoſed to produce a factitious heat, has been found to be 10° of Reaumur, equal to 54½° of Fahrenheit. The temperature of the cave above mentioned ſo nearly correſponds with this, that the difference may be aſcribed to a difference of inſtruments.

At the Panther gap, in the ridge which divides the waters of the Cow and Calf paſture, is what is called the Blowing Cave. It is in the ſide of a hill, is of about an hundred feet diameter, and emits conſtantly a current of air of ſuch force, as to keep the weeds proſtrate to the diſtance of twenty yards before it. This current is ſtrongeſt in dry froſty weather, and weakeſt in long periods of rain. Regular inſpirations and expirations of air, by caverns and fiſſures, have been probably enough accounted for, by ſuppoſing them combined with intermitting fountains, as they muſt of courſe inhale the air while the reſervoirs are emptying themſelves, and again emit it while they are filling. But a conſtant iſſue of air, only varying in its force as the weather is drier or damper, will require a new hypotheſis. There is another blowing cave in the Cumberland mountain, about a mile from where it croſſes the Carolina line. All we know of this is, that it is not conſtant, and that a fountain of water iſſues from it.

The Natural Bridge is the moſt ſublime of nature's works. It is on the aſſent of a hill, which ſeems to have been cloven through its length by ſome great convulſion. The fiſſure, juſt at the bridge, is by ſome admeaſurements two hundred and ſeventy feet deep, by others only two hundred and five. It is about forty-five feet wide at the bottom, and ninety feet at the top; this of courſe determines the length of the bridge, and its height from the water. Its breadth in the middle is about ſixty feet, but more at the ends, and the thickneſs of the maſs at the ſummit of the arch about forty feet, but more at the ends, and ninety feet at the top. A part of this thickneſs is conſtituted by a coat of earth, which gives growth to many large trees. The reſidue, with the hill on both ſides, is ſolid rock of lime-ſtone. The arch approaches the ſemi-elliptical form; but the larger axis of the ellipſis, which would be the chord of the arch, is many times longer than the tranſverſe. Though the ſides of this bridge are provided in ſome parts with a parapet of fixed rocks, yet few men have reſolution to walk to them and look over into the abyſs. You involuntarily fall on your hands and feet, creep to the parapet and peep over it. If the view from the top be painful and intolerable, that from below is delightful in an equal extreme. It is impoſſible for the emotions ariſing from the ſublime, to be felt beyond what they are here; ſo beautiful an arch, ſo elevated, ſo light, and ſpringing as it were up to Heaven, the rapture of the ſpectator is really indeſcribable! The fiſſure continuing narrow, deep and ſtraight, for a conſiderable diſtance above and below the bridge, opens a ſhort but very pleaſing view of the North mountain on one ſide, and Blue ridge on the other, at the diſtance each of them of about five miles. This bridge is in the county of Rockbridge, to which it has given name, and affords a public and commodious paſſage over a valley, which cannot be croſſed elſewhere for a conſiderable diſtance.* The ſtream paſſing under it is called Cedar creek. It is a water of James river, and ſufficient in the drieſt ſeaſons to turn a griſt mill, though its fountain is not more than two miles above. There is a natural bridge ſimi-

* Don Ulloa mentions a break, ſimilar to this, in the province of Angarez, in South-America. It is from ſixteen to twenty-two feet wide, one hundred and eleven deep, and of one mile and three-quarters continuance, Engliſh meaſure. Its breadth at top is not ſenſibly greater than at bottom.

lar to the above, over Stock creek, a branch of Peleſon river, in Waſhington county.

CIVIL DIVISIONS.

This State is divided into eighty-two counties, and by another diviſion is formed into pariſhes, many of which are commenſurate with the counties; but ſometimes a county comprehends more than one pariſh, and ſometimes a pariſh more than one county. This diviſion had relation to the religion of the State, a miniſter of the Anglican church, with a fixed ſalary, having been heretofore eſtabliſhed in each pariſh. The names and ſituations of theſe counties are as follow:

WEST OF THE BLUE RIDGE.

Ohio,	Botetourt,	Frederick,
Monongala,	Greenbriar,	Shenándoah,
Waſhington,	Kanhawa,	Rockingham,
Montgomery,	Hampſhire,	Auguſta,
Wythe,	Berkley,	Rockbridge.

BETWEEN THE BLUE RIDGE AND THE TIDE WATERS.

Loudoun,	Albemarle,	Prince Edward,
Fauquier,	Amherſt,	Cumberland,
Culpepper,	Buckingham,	Powhatan,
Spotſylvania,	Bedford,	Amelia,
Orange,	Henry,	Nottaway
Louiſa,	Pittſylvania,	Lunenburgh,
Goochland,	Halifax,	Mecklenburgh,
Flavania,	Charlotte,	Brunſwick.

BETWEEN JAMES RIVER AND CAROLINA.

Greenſville,	Surry,	Nanſemond,
Dinwiddie,	Suſſex,	Norfolk,
Cheſterfield,	Southampton,	Princeſs Ann.
Prince George,	Iſle of Wight,	

BETWEEN JAMES AND YORK RIVERS.

Henrico,	Charles City,	York,
Hanover,	James City,	Warwick,
New-Kent,	Williamſburgh,	Elizabeth City.

BETWEEN YORK AAD RAPPAHANNOCK RIVERS.

Caroline,	King and Queen,	Middleſex,
King William,	Eſſex,	Glouceſter.

BETWEEN RAPPAHANNOCK AND POTOMACK RIVERS.

Fairfax,	King George,	Northumberland,
Prince William,	Richmond,	Lancaſter.
Stafford,	Weſtmoreland,	

EAST SHORE.

Accomac,	Northampton.

THE FOLLOWING ARE NEW COUNTIES.

Campbell,	Randolph,	Pendleton,
Franklin,	Hardy,	Ruſſel.
Harriſon,		

CHIEF TOWNS.

There are no townſhips in this State, nor any towns of conſequence, owing, probably, to the interſection of the country by navigable rivers, which brings the trade to the doors of the inhabitants, and prevents the neceſſity of their going in queſt of it to a diſtance. Williamſburgh, which, till the year 1780, was the ſeat of government, never contained above eighteen hundred inhabitants, and Norfolk, the moſt populous town they ever had in Virginia, contained but ſix thouſand. The towns, or more properly villages or hamlets, are as follow:

On James river and its waters—Norfolk, Portſmouth, Hampton, Suffolk, Smithfield, Williamſburgh, Peterſburgh, Richmond, the ſeat of government, Manchester, Charlotteſville, New London.—On York river and its waters, York, Newcaſtle, Hanover.—On Rappahannock, Urbanna, Port Royal, Frederickſburgh, Falmouth.—On Potomack and its waters, Dumfries, Colcheſter, Alexandria, Wincheſter, Staunton.

There are places at which, like ſome of the foregoing, the laws have ſaid there ſhall be towns, but nature has ſaid there ſhall not; and they remain unworthy of enumeration. Norfolk will probably become the emporium for all the trade of the Cheſapeak bay and its waters; and a canal of eight or ten miles, which will probably ſoon be completed, will bring to it all that of Albemarle ſound and its waters. Secondary to this place, are the towns at the head of the tide waters, to wit, Peterſburgh on Appamattox, Richmond on James river, Newcaſtle on York river, Frederickſburgh on the Rappahannock, and Alexandria on the Potomack. From theſe the diſtribution will be to ſubordinate ſituations of the country. Accidental circumſtances, however, may controul the indications of nature, and in no inſtances do they do it more frequently than in the riſe and fall of towns.

To the foregoing general account, we had the following more particular deſcriptions:

ALEXANDRIA.

Alexandria ſtands on the ſouth bank of Potomack river in Fairfax county; its ſituation is elevated and pleaſant; the ſoil is clay. The original ſettlers, anticipating its future growth and importance, laid out the ſtreets upon the plan of Philadelphia. It contains about ſix hundred houſes, many of which are handſomely built, and about ſix thouſand inhabitants. This town, upon opening the navigation of Potomack river, and in conſequence of its vicinity to the city of Waſhington, will probably be one of the moſt thriving commercial places on the continent.

MOUNT VERNON.

Mount Vernon, the celebrated ſeat of Preſident Waſhington, is pleaſantly ſituated on the Virginia bank of the Potomack, where it is nearly two miles wide, and is about two hundred and eighty miles from the ſea, and one hundred and twenty-ſeven from Point Look-out, at the mouth of the river. It is nine miles below Alexandria, and four miles above the beautiful ſeat of the late Col. Fairfax, called Bellevoir. The area of the mount is two hundred feet above the ſurface of the river, and, after furniſhing a lawn of five acres in front, and about the ſame in rear of the buildings, falls off rather abruptly on thoſe two quarters. On the north end it ſubſides gradually into extenſive paſture grounds; while on the ſouth it ſlopes more ſteeply in

a ſhorter diſtance, and terminates with the coach-houſe, ſtables, vineyard, and nurſeries. On either wing is a thick grove of different flowering foreſt trees. Parallel with them, on the land ſide, are two ſpacious gardens, into which one is led by two ſerpentine gravel walks, planted with weeping willows and ſhady ſhrubs. The manſion houſe itſelf (though much embelliſhed by, yet not perfectly ſatisfactory to the chaſte taſte of the preſent poſſeſſor) appears venerable and convenient. The ſuperb banquetting room has been finiſhed ſince he returned home from the army. A lofty portico, ninety-ſix feet in length, ſupported by eight pillars, has a pleaſing effect when viewed from the water; the whole aſſemblage of the green-houſe, ſchool-houſe, offices and ſervants halls, when ſeen from the land-ſide, bears a reſemblance to a rural village; eſpecially as the lands on that ſide are laid out ſomewhat in the form of Engliſh gardens, in meadows and graſs grounds, ornamented with little copſes, circular clumps and ſingle trees. A ſmall park on the margin of the river, where the Engliſh fallow-deer and the American wild deer are ſeen through the thickets, alternately with the veſſels as they are ſailing along, add a romantic and pictureſque appearance to the whole ſcenery. On the oppoſite ſide of a ſmall creek to the northward, an extenſive plain, exhibiting corn fields and cattle grazing, affords in ſummer a luxuriant landſcape; while the blended verdure of woodlands and cultivated declivities, on the Maryland ſhore, variegates the proſpect in a charming manner. Such are the philoſophic ſhades to which the late commander in chief of the American armies retired from the tumultuous ſcenes of a buſy world, and which he has ſince left to dignify, by his unequalled abilities, the moſt important office in the gift of his fellow citizens.

FREDERICKSBURGH.

Frederickſburgh, in the county of Spotſylvania, is ſituated on the ſouth ſide of Rappahannock river, one hundred and ten miles from its mouth, and contains about two hundred houſes, principally on one ſtreet, which runs nearly parallel with the river, and one thouſand five hundred inhabitants.

RICHMOND.

Richmond, in the county of Henrico, is the preſent ſeat of government, and ſtands on the north ſide of James river, juſt at the foot of the falls, and contains between five and ſix hundred

houſes, and from five to ſix thouſand inhabitants. Part of the houſes are built upon the margin of the river, convenient for buſineſs; the reſt are upon a hill which overlooks the lower part of the town, and commands an extenſive proſpect of the river and adjacent country. The new houſes are well built. A large ſtate-houſe, or capitol, has lately been erected on the hill. The lower part of the town is divided by a creek, over which is a convenient bridge. A bridge between three and four hundred yards in length has lately been thrown acroſs James river, at the foot of the fall, by Colonel Mayo. That part from Mancheſter to the iſland is built on fifteen boats. From the iſland to the rocks was formerly a floating bridge of rafts, but Colonel Mayo has now built it of framed log piers, filled with ſtone. From the rocks to the landing at Richmond, the bridge is continued on framed piers filled with ſtone. This bridge connects Richmond with Mancheſter; and as the paſſengers pay toll, it produces a conſiderable revenue to Colonel Mayo, who is the ſole proprietor.

The falls above the bridge are ſeven miles in length. A noble canal is nearly, if not quite completed, on the north ſide of the river, which is to terminate in a baſon of about two acres, in the town of Richmond. From this baſon to the wharfs in the river will be a land carriage of about a mile. This canal is cutting under the direction of a company, who have calculated the expenſe at thirty thouſand pounds Virginia money; this they have divided into five hundred ſhares of ſixty pounds each. The opening of this canal promiſes the addition of much wealth to Richmond.

PETERSBURGH.

Peterſburgh, twenty-five miles ſouthward of Richmond, ſtands on the ſouth ſide of Appamattox river, and contains upwards of three hundred houſes in two diviſions; one is upon a clay cold ſoil, and is very dirty, the other upon a plain of ſand or loam. There is no regularity and very little elegance in Peterſburgh, it is merely a place of buſineſs. The Free Maſons have a hall tolerably elegant. It is very unhealthy, being ſhut out from the acceſs of the winds by high hills on every ſide.* This confined ſituation has ſuch an effect upon the conſtitutions of the inhabitants, that they very nearly reſemble thoſe of hard

* It is aſſerted, as an undoubted fact, by a number of gentlemen well acquainted with this town, that, in 1781, "one child only born in it had arrived to manhood, and he was a cripple."

drinkers; hence, in the opinion of phyſicians, they require a conſiderable quantity of ſtimulating aliments and vinous drinks, to keep up a balance between the ſeveral functions of the body.

About two thouſand two hundred hogſheads of tobacco are inſpected here annually. Like Richmond, Williamſburgh, Alexandria, and Norfolk, it is a corporation; and Peterſburgh city comprehends a part of three counties. The celebrated Indian queen, Pocahonta, from whom deſcended the Randolph and Bowling families, formerly reſided at this place. Peterſburgh and its ſuburbs contain about three thouſand inhabitants.

WILLIAMSBURGH.

Williamſburgh,* formerly the ſeat of government in Virginia, ſtands upon an elevated, but level ſpot, between York and James river. Queen's creek on one ſide, and Archer's hope creek on the other, are navigable for ſmall veſſels within a mile of the town: during the regal government it was propoſed to unite them by a canal paſſing through the center of the town; but the removal of the ſeat of government rendered it no longer an object of importance: the town is nearly a mile in length, yet I believe it never could boaſt of more than two hundred houſes, or, eighteen hundred inhabitants. Many of the houſes were pleaſantly ſituated and though neither elegant, nor in general built of durable materials, were neat and comfortable; moſt of them had gardens; the main ſtreet running from eaſt to weſt is terminated by the capitol, and the college; neither of them elegant ſtructures, though perhaps eaſily diſtinguiſhable from 'common brick-kilns.'---Near the center of the town there is a pleaſant ſquare of about ten acres, which is generally covered with a delightful verdure; not far from this at the extremity of a ſmall plain ſtretching to the north, ſtood the governor's houſe, or palace, as it was called: though not very handſome it was ſpacious and commoditious; and in every reſpect pleaſantly ſituated: it was burnt to the ground during the war, whilſt it was occupied as an hoſpital for the American army.

The houſe of the preſident of the College ſhared the ſame fate, being alſo occupied as an hoſpital by the French army. The latter has been rebuilt at the expence of the French government. The capitol has haſtened to decay from the moment of removing the ſeat of government. A late act of Aſſembly authoriſes the pulling down one half of it, to defray the charge of keeping the other half (which is ſtill occupied as a diſtrict court houſe, both for the ſtate, and the United States) in repair. The hoſpital for

* By a citizen of Williamſburgh in a letter addreſſed to the publiſhers of the American edition of Winterbotham's Hiſtory of America.

lunaties, a church, the town and county court houſe, and a magazine now occupied as a market houſe, complete the liſt of public edifices: neither of them appears to have been conſtructed with any view to architectural fame.—The hoſpital for lunatics is calculated to accommodate between twenty and thirty patients in ſeparate rooms or cells. They have, I believe, never been all filled at the ſame time; the houſe is neatly kept, and the patients well attended; but convaleſcents have not ſufficient room for free air and exerciſe, without danger of making their eſcape. The college, though diveſted of three fourths of its revenues at the revolution, and wholly diſorganized at that period, by the removal or reſignation of moſt of the profeſſors, has, ſince the peace, been ſucceſsfully revived and generally the reſort of from thirty to forty ſtudents, in philoſophy, or in law. Their number appears to be encreaſing at preſent, and as the ſtudents of law are by no means ſo numerous as formerly, it creates a preſumption that ſcience begins to be more generally cultivated among the citizens at large. The grammar ſchool, which was for a time diſcontinued has been revived in the college; there are about fifty or ſixty boys in this ſchool, who are inſtructed by two profeſſors, and an uſher. The ſtudents in philoſophy and law, board and lodge in the town. Grammar ſcholars, if their parents chooſe it, are boarded and lodged in college, the expence of which, including waſhing and tuition is 28*l* per ann. or twenty guineas.—There are ſix profeſſorſhips—One of moral philoſophy, natural philoſophy, and the belles lettres; one of mathematics; one of law; one of modern languages; and two of humanity. To the college belongs an extenſive library, and an apparatus which is probably not exceeded by any upon the continent; the courſe of natural philoſophy is much more comprehenſive than is uſual in moſt colleges.

In moral philoſophy the ſtudents are examined from the ableſt writers on logic, the belles lettres, ethics, natural law, the law of nations and politics. In mathematics a regular courſe both elementary and practical is purſued.—In law a courſe of lectures is annually delivered on the principles of civil government; and on the conſtitutions and laws of the federal government of the United States, and of the State of Virginia. In the modern languages, French, Italian, Spaniſh, and German may be acquired; moſt of the ſtudents acquire the two former. In the Grammar ſchool the Latin and Greek languages are taught as uſual in other places. The college is ſo far from being in a declining ſtate, that the number of ſtudents is now conſiderably greater than before the revolution. At the end of the laſt term, viz. about the beginning of the preſent month their number were between forty and fifty.

This college has probably produced its full quota of men of eminence on the political theatre of the United States. Men of high profeſſional character in law, phyſic, and divinity, have there alſo imbibed the elements of ſcience; and not a few of them have been indebted to it, for their whole education.

Not a few private houſes have tumbled down; others are daily crumbling into ruins: there are, however, many very comfortable houſes left, which have undergone ſome repairs, contribute to vary the ſcene, and there are ſtill ſome neat gardens and pleaſent ſituations; it ſeems to be the general idea of the inhabitants, that Williamſburgh has ſeen its worſt days. The market, though not very regular, nor well ſupplied, yet furniſhes excellent meats and poultry in their ſeaſons. They have alſo fiſh, crabs, oyſters, wild fowl, and excellent butter, vegetables, and fruits. There never was much trade in Williamſburgh; probably little more than at preſent; the ſituation not being very favourable either for external or an extenſive internal commerce; the evidence of its preſent trade is to be found in about a dozen ſtores of European, and Weſt-India goods. A few mechanics, ſuch as blackſmiths, chair-makers, wheel-wrights, ſaddlers and harneſs-makers, boot and ſhoemakers, and tailors find employment, and a comfortable livelihood there. There are alſo ſome genteel families which form a very agreeable ſociety; their number is conſiderably greater than a traveller paſſing through the place, would ſuppoſe. In ſhort, how contemptible ſoever, Williamſburgh, arrogating to herſelf the rank and honours of a metropolitan city, might have appeared in the eyes of a traveller, few villages can boaſt a more pleaſant ſituation, more reſpectable inhabitants, or a more agreeable and friendly ſociety.

YORK-TOWN.

York-town, thirteen miles eaſtward from Williamſburgh, and fourteen from Monday's point at the mouth of the river, is a place of about an hundred houſes, ſituated on the ſouth ſide of York river, and contains about ſeven hundred inhabitants. It has been rendered famous, BY THE CAPTURE OF LORD CORNWALLIS AND HIS ARMY, on the 19th of October, 1781, by the united forces of France and America.

POPULATION.

In the year 1781, a very inacurate cenſus was taken. Several counties made no return; but ſupplying by conjucture the deficiencies, the population of Virginia was then computed at five hundred and ſixty-ſeven thouſand ſix hundred and fourteen perſons; according to the cenſus of 1790, the numbers were as follow;

VIRGINIA.

COUNTIES, &c.	Free white males of 16 years and upwards.	Free white males under 16 years of age.	Free white females.	All other free persons.	Slaves.	Total.
Auguſta, the part eaſt of the north mountain -	2048	1665	3438	40	1222	8413
Part weſt of ditto	551	572	986	19	345	2473
Albemarle - - -	1703	1790	3342	171	5579	12585
Accomack - - -	2297	2177	4502	721	4262	13959
Amherſt - - - -	2056	2235	3995	121	5296	13703
Amelia, including Nottoway, a new county - -	1709	1697	3278	106	11307	18097
Botetourt, as it ſtood previous to the formation of Wythe from it and Montgomery	2247	2562	4432	24	1259	10524
Buckingham - -	1274	1537	2685	115	4168	9779
Berkeley - - -	4253	4547	7850	131	2932	19713
Brunſwick - - -	1472	1529	2918	132	6776	12827
Bedford - - - -	1785	2266	3674	52	2754	10531
Cumberland - - -	885	914	1778	142	4434	8153
Cheſterfield - - -	1652	1557	3149	369	7487	14214
Charlotte - - - -	1285	1379	2535	63	4816	10078
Culpepper - - -	3372	3755	6682	70	8226	22105
Charles City - -	532	509	1043	362	3141	5588
Caroline - - - -	1799	1731	3464	203	10292	17489
Campbell - - -	1236	1347	2363	251	2488	7685
Dinwiddie - - -	1790	1396	2853	561	7334	13934
Eſſex - - - -	908	869	1766	189	5440	9122
Elizabeth City - -	390	388	778	18	1876	3450
Fauquier - - - -	2674	2983	5500	93	6642	17892
Fairfax - - - -	2138	1872	3601	135	4574	12320
Franklin - - - -	1266	1629	2840	34	1073	6842
Fluvanna - - -	589	654	1187	25	1466	3921
Frederick Diviſion	3835	4170	7310	116	4250	19681
Glouceſter - - -	1597	1523	3105	210	7063	13498
Goochland - - -	1028	1059	2053	257	4656	9053
Greenſville - - -	669	627	1234	212	3620	6362
Greenbrier, including Kanhawa	1463	1574	2639	20	319	6015
Henrico - - - -	1823	1170	2607	581	5819	12000

VIRGINIA.

COUNTIES, &c.	Free white males of 16 years and upwards.	Free white males under 16 years of age.	Free white females.	All other free persons.	Slaves.	Total.
Hanover	1637	1412	3242	240	8223	14754
Hampſhire	1662	1956	3261	13	454	7346
Harriſon	487	579	947		67	2080
Hardy	1108	2256	3192	411	369	7336
Halifax	2214	2320	4397	226	5565	14722
Henry	1523	1963	3277	165	1551	8479
Iſle of Wight	1208	1163	2415	375	3867	9028
James City	395	359	765	146	2495	4070
King William	723	732	1438	84	5151	8128
King and Queen	995	1026	2138	75	5143	9377
King George	757	781	1585	86	4157	7366
Lunenburgh	1110	1185	2252	80	4332	8959
Loudoun	3677	3992	7080	183	4030	8962
Lancaſter	535	542	1182	143	3236	5638
Louiſa	957	1024	1899	14	4573	8467
Mecklenburgh	1857	2015	3683	416	6762	14733
Middleſex	407	370	754	51	2558	4140
Monongalia	1089	1345	2168	12	154	4768
Montgomery, as it ſtood previous to the formation of Wythe from it and Botetourte	2846	3744	5804	6	828	13228
Norfolk	2650	1987	4291	251	5345	14524
Northampton	857	743	1581	464	3244	6889
New Kent	605	587	1199	148	3700	6239
Northumberland	1046	1137	2323	197	4460	9103
Nanſemond	1215	1167	2331	480	3817	9010
Orange	1317	1426	2693	64	4421	9921
Ohio	1222	1377	2308	24	281	5212
Prince Edward	1044	1077	1961	32	3986	8100
Prince William	1644	1797	3303	167	4704	11615
Prince George	965	829	1600	267	4519	8179
Powhatan	623	548	1115	211	4325	6822
Pendleton	568	686	1124	1	73	2452
Pittſylvania	2008	2447	4083	62	2979	11579
Princeſs Anne	1169	1151	2207	64	3202	7793
Richmond	704	697	1517	83	3984	6985
Randolph	221	270	441		19	951
Rockingham	1816	1652	3209		772	7449

VIRGINIA.

COUNTIES, &c.	Free white males of 16 years and upwards.	Free white males under 16 years.	Free white females.	All other free persons.	Slaves.	Total.
Ruſſel - - -	734	969	1440	5	190	3338
Rockbridge -	1517	1552	2756	41	682	6548
Spotſylvania -	1361	1278	2532	148	5933	11252
Stafford - -	1341	1355	2769	87	4036	9588
Southampton -	1632	1546	3134	559	5993	12864
Surry - - -	732	651	1379	368	3097	6227
Shannandoah -	2409	2779	4791	19	512	10510
Suſſex - - -	1215	1174	2382	391	5387	10554
Warwick - -	176	158	333	33	990	1690
Waſhington -	1287	1440	2440	8	450	5625
Weſtmoreland	815	754	1614	114	4425	7722
York - - -	530	461	1124	358	2760	5233
	110936	116135	215046	12866	292627	747610

By comparing the two accounts taken at the above different periods, it appears, that the increaſe in ten years was two hundred and fifty-eight thouſand ſix hundred and ſeventy-three, or about twenty-five thouſand eight hundred and ſixty-ſeven per annum; allowing for the ſame proportional increaſe, the preſent number of inhabitants in this State cannot be leſs than nine hundred thouſand.

The increaſe of ſlaves, during the laſt fourteen years, has been leſs than it had been obſerved for a century before. The reaſon is, that about thirty thouſand ſlaves periſhed with the ſmall-pox or camp fever, caught from the Britiſh army, or went off with them while Lord Cornwallis was roving over that State.

MILITIA.

Every able-bodied freeman, between the ages of ſixteen and fifty, is enrolled in the militia. Thoſe of every county are formed into companies, and theſe again into one or more battalions, according to the numbers in the county: they are commanded by colonels, and other ſubordinate officers, as in the regular ſervice. In every county is a county lieutenant, who commands the whole militia in his county, but ranks only as a colonel in the

field. They have no general officers always exiſting: theſe are appointed occaſionally, when an invaſion or inſurrection happens, and their commiſſion determines with the occaſion. The governor is head of the military as well as of the civil power. The law requires every militia man to provide himſelf with the arms uſual in the regular ſervice. But this injunction has always been indifferently complied with, and the arms they had have been ſo frequently called for to arm the regulars, that in the lower parts of the country they are entirely diſarmed. In the middle country a fourth or fifth part of them may have ſuch firelocks as they had provided to deſtroy the noxious animals which infeſt their farms; and on the weſtern ſide of the Blue Ridge they are generally armed with rifles.

The interſection of Virginia, by ſo many navigable rivers, renders it almoſt incapable of defence: as the land will not ſupport a great number of people, a force cannot ſoon be collected to repel a ſudden invaſion. If the militia bear the ſame proportion to the number of inhabitants now, as in 1782, they amount to more than ſixty-eight thouſand.

RELIGION AND CHARACTER.

The firſt ſettlers in this country were emigrants from England, of the Engliſh church, juſt at a point of time when it was fluſhed with complete victory over the religious of all other perſuaſions. Poſſeſſed, as they became, of the powers of making, adminiſtering, and executing the laws, they ſhewed equal intolerance in this country with their Preſbyterian brethren, who had emigrated to the northern government; the poor Quakers were flying from perſecution in England. They caſt their eyes on theſe new countries as aſylums of civil and religious freedom; but they found them free only for the reigning ſect. Several acts of the Virginia aſſembly of 1659, 1662, and 1693, had made it penal in parents to refuſe to have their children baptized, and prohibited the unlawful aſſembling of Quakers; had made it penal for any maſter of a veſſel to bring a Quaker into the State, and had ordered thoſe already here, and ſuch as ſhould come thereafter to be impriſoned till they ſhould abjure the country; had provided a milder puniſhment for their firſt and ſecond return, but death for their third; had inhibited all perſons from ſuffering their meetings in or near their houſes, entertaining them individually, or diſpoſing of books which ſupported their tenets. If no capital execution took place there,

as did in New-England, it was not owing to moderation of the church, or ſpirit of the legiſlature, as may be inferred from the law itſelf; but to hiſtorical circumſtances which have not been handed down to us. The Anglicans retained full poſſeſſion of the country about a century. Other opinions began then to creep in, and the great care of the government to ſupport their own church, having begotten an equal degree of indolence in its clergy, two thirds of the people had become Diſſenters at the commencement of the late revolution. The laws, indeed, were ſtill oppreſſive on them, but the ſpirit of the one party had ſubſided into moderation, and the other had riſen to a degree of determination which commanded reſpect.

The preſent ſtate of the laws on the ſubject of religion is as follows: the Convention of May 1776, in their declaration of rights, declared it to be a truth, and a natural right, that the exerciſe of religion ſhould be free; but when they proceeded to form on that declaration the ordinance of government, inſtead of taking up every principle declared in the Bill of Rights, and guarding it by legiſlative ſanction, they paſſed over that which aſſerted their religious rights, leaving them as they found them. The ſame Convention, however, when they met as a part of the General Aſſembly, in October, 1776, repealed all acts of Parliament which had rendered criminal the maintaining any opinions in matters of religion, the forbearing to repair to church, and the exerciſing any mode of worſhip; and ſuſpended the laws giving ſalaries to the clergy, which ſuſpenſion was made perpetual in October, 1779. Statutory oppreſſions in religion being thus wiped away, the Virginians remain at preſent under thoſe only impoſed by the common law, or by their own act of Aſſembly. At the common law, hereſy was a capital offence, puniſhable by burning. Its definition was left to the eccleſiaſtical judges, before whom the conviction was, till the ſtatute of the firſt El. c. 1. circumſcribed it, by declaring, that nothing ſhould be deemed hereſy, but what had been ſo determined by authority of the canonical ſcriptures, or by one of the four firſt general councils, or by ſome other council having for the grounds of their declaration the expreſs and plain words of the ſcriptures. Hereſy, thus circumſcribed, being an offence at the common law, their act of Aſſembly of October, 1777, c. 17, gives cognizance of it to the general court, by declaring, that "the juriſdiction of that court ſhall be general in all matters at the common law." The execution is by the writ *De hæretico comburendo.* By their own act of Aſſembly of 1705, c. 30, if a

perſon brought up in the Chriſtian religion denied the being of a God, or the Trinity, or aſſerted there are more Gods than one, or denied the Chriſtian religion to be true, or the Scriptures to be of divine authority, he is puniſhable on the firſt offence by incapacity to hold any office or employment eccleſiaſtical, civil or military; on the ſecond, by diſability to ſue, to take any gift or legacy, to be guardian, executor, or adminiſtrator, and by three years impriſonment without bail. A father's right to the cuſtody of his own children being founded in law on his right of guardianſhip, this being taken away, they may of courſe be ſevered from him, and put, by the authority of a court, into more orthodox hands. This is a ſummary view of that *religious ſlavery*, under which a people have been willing to remain, who have laviſhed their lives and fortunes for the eſtabliſhment of their civil freedom. The error ſeems not ſufficiently eradicated, that the operations of the mind, as well as the acts of the body, are ſubjected to the coercion of the laws. But rulers can have authority over ſuch natural rights only as have been ſubmitted to them. The rights of conſcience were never ſubmitted; man could not ſubmit them; he is anſwerable for them to God. The legitimate powers of government extend to ſuch acts only as are injurious to others; but it does me no injury for my neighbour to ſay there are twenty gods, or no god; it neither picks my pocket nor breaks my leg. If it be ſaid, his teſtimony in a court of juſtice cannot be relied on, reject it then, and be the ſtigma on him. Conſtraint may make him worſe, by making him a hypocrite, but it will never make him a better man. It may fix him obſtinately in his errors, but will not cure them. Reaſon and free inquiry are the only effectual agents againſt error. Give a looſe to them, they will ſupport the true religion, by bringing every falſe one to their tribunal, to the teſt of their inveſtigation. They are the natural enemies of error, and of error only. Had not the Roman government permitted free inquiry, Chriſtianity could never have been introduced. Had not free inquiry been indulged, at the æra of reformation, the corruptions of Chriſtianity could not have been purged away. If it be reſtrained now, the preſent corruptions will be protected, and new ones encouraged. Was the government to preſcribe to us our medicine and diet, our bodies would be in ſuch keeping as our ſouls are now. Thus in France the emetic was once forbidden as a medicine, and the potatoe as an article of food. Government is juſt as *infallible* too, when it fixes ſyſtems in phyſics. Galileo

was ſent to the inquiſition for affirming that the earth was a ſphere: the government had declared it to be as flat as a trencher, and Galileo was obliged to abjure his error. This error, however, at length prevailed, the earth became a globe, and Deſcartes declared it was whirled round its axis by a vortex. The government in which he lived was wiſe enough to ſee that this was no queſtion of civil juriſdiction, or we ſhould all have been involved by authority in vortices. In fact, the vortices have been exploded, and the Newtonian principle of gravitation is now more firmly eſtabliſhed, on the baſis of reaſon, than it would be were the government to ſtep in, and to make it an article of neceſſary faith. Reaſon and experiment have been indulged, and error has fled before them. It is error alone which needs the ſupport of government; truth can ſtand by itſelf. Subject opinion to coercion, whom will you make your inquiſitors? Fallible men; men governed by bad paſſions, by private as well as public reaſons. And why ſubject it to coercion? To produce uniformity. But is uniformity of opinion deſirable? No more than of face and ſtature. Introduce the bed of Procruſtes then, and as there is danger that the large men may beat the ſmall, make us all of a ſize, by lopping the former and ſtretching the latter. Difference of opinion is advantageous in religion. The ſeveral ſects perform the office of a cenſor morum over each other. But is uniformity attainable? Millions of innocent men, women, and children, ſince the introduction of Chriſtianity, have been burnt, tortured, fined and impriſoned; yet we have not advanced one ſtep towards it. What has been the effect of coercion? To make one half the world fools, and the other half hypocrites; to ſupport roguery and error all over the earth. Let us reflect that this globe is inhabited by a thouſand millions of people; that theſe profeſs probably a thouſand different ſyſtems of religion; that ours is but one of that thouſand; that if there be but one right, and ours that one, we ſhould wiſh to ſee the nine hundred and ninety-nine wandering ſects gathered into the fold of truth. But againſt ſuch a majority we cannot effect this by force. Reaſon and perſuaſion are the only practicable inſtruments. To make way for theſe, free inquiry muſt be indulged; and how can we wiſh others to indulge it while we refuſe it ourſelves. But every ſtate, ſays an inquiſitor, has eſtabliſhed ſome religion. We reply, no two have eſtabliſhed the ſame. Is this a proof of the infallibility of eſtabliſhments? Many of the States, particularly Pennſylvania and New-York, however, have long ſubſiſted without any eſtabliſhment at all.

The experiment was new and doubtful, when they made it; it has anſwered beyond conception; they flouriſh infinitely. Religion is well ſupported; of various kinds, indeed, but all ſufficient to preſerve peace and order; or if a ſect ariſes, whoſe tenets would ſubvert morals, good ſenſe has fair play, and reaſons and laughs it out of doors, without ſuffering the State to be troubled with it. They do not hang ſo many malefactors as in England; they are not more diſturbed with religious diſſenſions; on the contrary, their morality is pure and their harmony is unparalleled: this can be aſcribed to nothing but their unbounded tolerance, becauſe there is no other circumſtance in which they differ from every nation on earth, France excepted. They have made the happy diſcovery, that the way to ſilence religious diſputes, is to take no notice of them.

The preſent denominations of Chriſtians in Virginia are Preſbyterians, who are the moſt numerous, and inhabit the weſtern parts of the State; Epiſcopalians, who are the moſt ancient ſettlers, and occupy the eaſtern and firſt ſettled parts of the State. Intermingled with theſe are great numbers of Baptiſts and Methodiſts.

Virginia prides itſelf in being "The Ancient Dominion." It has produced ſome of the moſt diſtinguiſhed and influential men that have been active in effecting the two late grand and important revolutions in America. Her political and military character will rank among the firſt in the page of hiſtory: but it is to be obſerved, that this character has been obtained for the Virginians by a few eminent men, who have taken the lead in all their public tranſactions, and who, in ſhort, govern Virginia; for the great body of the people do not concern themſelves with politics; ſo that their government, though nominally republican, is, in fact, oligarchical or ariſtocratical.

The Virginians who are rich, are in general ſenſible, polite, and hoſpitable, and of an independent ſpirit. The poor are ignorant and abject, but all are of an inquiſitive turn. A conſiderable proportion of the people are much addicted to gaming, drinking, ſwearing, horſe-racing, cock-fighting, and moſt kinds of diſſipation. There is a much greater diſparity between the rich and the poor, in Virginia, than in any of the northern States. The native inhabitants are too generally unacquainted with buſineſs, owing to their pride, and falſe notions of greatneſs. Before the revolution they conſidered it as beneath a gentleman to attend to mercantile concerns, and devoted their time principally to amuſement. By theſe means the Scotch

people and other foreigners who came among them, became their merchants, and ſuddenly grew rich.

There muſt, doubtleſs, be an unhappy influence on the manners of the people produced by the exiſtence of ſlavery among them. The whole commerce between maſter and ſlave is a perpetual exerciſe of the moſt boiſterous paſſions, the moſt unremitting deſpotiſm on the one part, and degrading ſubmiſſion on the other. The children ſee this, and learn to imitate it; for man is an imitative animal. This quality is the germ of all education in him, from his cradle to his grave he is learning to do what he ſees others do. If a parent could find no motive either in his philanthropy or his ſelf-love, for reſtraining the intemperance of paſſion towards his ſlave, it ſhould always be a ſufficient one that his child is preſent; but generally it is not ſufficient. The parent ſtorms, the child looks on, catches the lineaments of wrath, puts on the ſame airs in the circle of ſmaller ſlaves, gives a looſe to his worſt of paſſions, and thus nurſed, educated, and daily exerciſed in tyranny, cannot but be ſtamped by it with odious peculiarities. The man muſt be a prodigy who can retain his manners and morals undepraved by ſuch circumſtances. And with what execration ſhould the ſtateſman be loaded, who, permitting one half the citizens thus to trample on the rights of the other, transforms thoſe into deſpots, and theſe into enemies; deſtroys the morals of the one part, and the *amor patriæ* of the other. For if a ſlave can have a country in this world, it muſt be any other in preference to that in which he is born to live and labour for another; in which he muſt lock up the faculties of his nature, contribute as far as depends on his individual endeavours to the evaniſhment of the human race, or entail his own miſerable condition on the endleſs generations proceeding from him. With the morals of the people, their induſtry alſo is deſtroyed. For in a warm climate, no man will labour for himſelf who can make another labour for him. This is ſo true, that of the proprietors of ſlaves a very ſmall proportion, indeed, are ever ſeen to labour. And can the liberties of a nation be thought ſecure when they have removed their only firm baſis, a conviction in the minds of the people that theſe liberties are of the gift of God; that they are not to be violated but with his wrath?

It is impoſſible to be temperate and to purſue this ſubject through the various conſiderations of policy, of morals, of hiſtory, natural and civil. We muſt be contented to hope they will ultimately force their way into every one's mind: a change

in this State has been perceptible ever ſince the eſtabliſhment of the preſent government. The ſpirit of the maſter has abated, and that of the ſlave ariſen from the duſt, his condition is now mollified, and the way at length prepared by the federal government for a total emancipation, and this with the conſent of the maſters, and not by their extirpation. Before the general government of America undertook the noble work of cutting up ſlavery by the roots, by laying the foundation of a total emancipation, the State of Virginia had as a body politic, made ſome advances; and ſome private gentlemen had likewiſe exerted themſelves in a very conſiderable degree, in the cauſe of the oppreſſed Africans. A Mr. Robert Carter, of Nomina, in this State, in the year 1790, emancipated no leſs a number than four hundred and forty-two ſlaves. This is a ſacrifice on the alter of humanity of perhaps an hundred thouſand dollars. Vote him a triumph, crown him with laurels, and let the millions liſten while he ſings——

"I would not have a ſlave to till my ground,
To carry me, to fan me while I ſleep,
And tremble when I wake, for all the wealth
That ſinews bought and ſold have ever earn'd.
No: dear as freedom is, and in my heart's
Juſt eſtimation priz'd above all price,
I had much rather be MYSELF the ſlave,
And wear the bonds, than faſten them on HIM."*

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.

Before the war, the inhabitants of this State paid but little attention to the manufacture of their own cloathing. It has been thought they uſed to import as much as ſeven-eights of their cloathing, and that they now manufacture three-quarters of it. We have before mentioned that conſiderable quantities of iron are manufactured in this State. To theſe we may add the manufacture of lead; beſides which they have few others of conſequence. The people are much attached to agriculture, and prefer foreign manufactures.

Before the war this State exported, *communibus annis*, according to the beſt information that could be obtained, as follows:

* As a proof that theſe are the ſentiments of this gentleman, we beg leave to introduce the following quotation from a letter of his on the ſituation of the ſlaves &c. in this State, and the abolition of the ſlave trade, written to a Diſſenting Miniſter.

"The *toleration* of ſlavery indicates VERY GREAT DEPRAVITY OF MIND," &

Articles.	Quantity.	Am. in Dollars.
Tobacco	55,000 hhds. of 100	1,650,000
Wheat	800,000 buſhels	666,666
Indian corn	600,000 buſhels	200,000
Shipping	— —	100,000
Maſts, planks, ſkantling, ſhingles, and ſtaves	— —	66,666⅔
Tar, pitch, and turpentine	30,000 barrels	40,000
Peltry, viz. ſkins of deer, beavers, otters, muſk rats, racoons, foxes, &c.	180 hhds. of 600lb	42,000
Pork	4,000 barrels	40,000
Flax-ſeed, hemp, and cotton	— —	8,000
Pit-coal and pig iron	— —	6,666⅔
Peas	5,000 buſhels	3,333⅓
Beef	1,000 barrels	3,333⅓
Sturgeon, white ſhad, herring	— —	3,333⅓
Brandy, from peaches and apples, and whiſkey	— —	1,666⅔
Horſes	— —	1,666⅔
		2.833,333⅓*

The amount of exports from this State in the year ſucceeding October 1, 1790, conſiſting chiefly of articles mentioned in the foregoing table, was three million one hundred and thirty-one thouſand two hundred and twenty-ſeven dollors. About forty thouſand hogſheads of tobacco only were exported this year.

In the year 1758, this State exported ſeventy thouſand hogſheads, of tobacco, which was the greateſt quantity ever produced in this country in one year. But its culture has faſt declined ſince the commencement of the war, and that of wheat taken its place. The price which it commands at market will not enable the planter to cultivate it. Were the ſupply ſtill to depend on Virginia and Maryland alone, as its culture becomes more difficult, this price would riſe, ſo as to enable the planter to ſurmount thoſe difficulties and to live. But the weſtern country on the Miſſiſſippi, and the midlands of Georgia, having freſh and fertile lands in abundance, and a hotter ſun, are able to underſell theſe two States, and will oblige them in time to abandon the raiſing of tobacco altogether. And a happy obligation for them it will be. It is a culture productive of infinite

* This ſum is equal to eight hundred and fifty thouſand pounds Virginia money, ſix hundred and fifty-ſeven thouſand one hundred forty-two guineas.

wretchedneſs. Thoſe employed in it are in a continued ſtate of exertion beyond the powers of nature to ſupport. Little food of any kind is raiſed by them; ſo that the men and animals on theſe farms are badly fed, and the earth is rapidly impoveriſhed. The cultivation of wheat is the reverſe in every circumſtance. Beſides cloathing the earth with herbage, and preſerving its fertility, it feeds the labourers plentifully, requires from them only a moderate toil, except in the ſeaſon of harveſt, raiſes great numbers of animals for food and ſervice, and diffuſes plenty and happineſs among the whole. It is eaſier to raiſe an hundred buſhels of wheat than a thouſand weight of tobacco, and it is worth more when produced.

It is not eaſy to ſay what are the articles either of neceſſity, comfort, or luxury, which cannot be raiſed here, as every thing hardier than the *olive*, and as hardy as the *fig*, may be raiſed in the open air. Sugar, coffee, and tea, indeed, are not between theſe limits; and habit having placed them among the neceſſaries of life with the wealthy, as long as theſe habits remain, they muſt go for them to thoſe countries which are able to furniſh them.

COLLEGES, ACADEMIES, LITERATURE, &c.

The college of William and Mary was founded in the time of King William and Queen Mary, who granted to it twenty thouſand acres of land, and a penny a pound duty on certain tobaccoes exported from Virginia and Maryland, which had been levied by the ſtatute of 25 Car. II. The Aſſembly alſo gave it, by temporary laws, a duty on liquors imported, and ſkins and furs exported. From theſe reſources it received upwards of three thouſand pounds. The buildings are of brick, ſufficient for an indifferent accommodation of perhaps one hundred ſtudents. By its charter it was to be under the government of twenty viſitors, who were to be its legiſlators, and to have a preſident and ſix profeſſors, who were incorporated: it was allowed a repreſentative in the General Aſſembly. Under this charter, a profeſſorſhip of the Greek and Latin languages, a profeſſor of mathematics, one of moral philoſophy, and two of divinity, were eſtabliſhed. To theſe were annexed, for a ſixth profeſſorſhip, a conſiderable donation by a Mr. Boyle of England for the inſtruction of the Indians, and their converſion to Chriſtianity: this was called the profeſſorſhip of Brafferton, from an eſtate of that name in England, purchaſed with the monies given. The admiſſion of the learners of Latin and Greek filled the college with children; this rendering it diſagreeable to the young gentlemen already prepared for entering on the ſciences, they

deſiſted from reſorting to it, and thus the ſchools for mathematics and moral philoſophy, which might have been of ſome ſervice, became of very little uſe. The revenues too were exhauſted in accommodating thoſe who came only to acquire the rudiments of ſcience. After the preſent revolution, the viſitors having no power to change thoſe circumſtances in the conſtitution of the college which were fixed by the charter, and being therefore confined in the number of profeſſorſhips, undertook to change the objects of the profeſſorſhips. They excluded the two ſchools for divinity, and that for the Greek and Latin languages, and ſubſtituted others; ſo that at preſent they ſtand thus—a profeſſorſhip for law and police; anatomy and medicine; natural philoſophy and mathematics; moral philoſophy, the law of nature and nations, the fine arts; modern languages; for the Brafferton.

Meaſures have been taken to increaſe the number of profeſſorſhips, as well for the purpoſe of ſubdividing thoſe already inſtituted, as of adding others for other branches of ſcience. To the profeſſorſhips uſually eſtabliſhed in the univerſities of Europe, it would ſeem proper to add one for the ancient languages and literature of the north, on account of their connection with our own languages, laws, cuſtoms, and hiſtory. The purpoſes of the Brafferton inſtitution would be better anſwered by maintaining a perpetual miſſion among the Indian tribes; the object of which, beſides inſtructing them in the principles of Chriſtianity, as the founder requires, ſhould be to collect their traditions, laws, cuſtoms, languages, and other circumſtances which might lead to a diſcovery of their relation to one another, or deſcent from other nations. When theſe objects are accompliſhed with one tribe, the miſſionary might paſs on to another.

The college edifice is a huge, miſhapen pile; "which but that it has a root, would be taken for a brick kiln." In 1787, there were about thirty young gentlemen members of this college, a large proportion of which were law ſtudents. The academy in Prince Edward county has been erected into a college by the name of Hampden Sydney college. It has been a flouriſhing ſeminary, but is now ſaid to be on the decline.

There are ſeveral academies in Virginia; one at Alexandria, one at Norfolk, and others in other places.

Since the declaration of independence, the laws of Virginia have been reviſed by a committee appointed for the purpoſe, who have reported their work to the Aſſembly; one object of this reviſal was to diffuſe knowledge more generally through the maſs of the people. The bill for this purpoſe "propoſes to lay

off every county into ſmall diſtricts of five or ſix miles ſquare, called hundreds, and in each of them to eſtabliſh a ſchool for the teaching of reading, writing, and arithmetic. The tutor to be ſupported by the hundred, and all perſons in it entitled to ſend their children three years gratis, and as much longer as they pleaſe, paying for it. Theſe ſchools to be under a viſitor, who is annually to chuſe the boy of the beſt genius in the ſchool, of thoſe whoſe parents are too poor to give them farther education, and to ſend him forward to one of the grammar ſchools, of which twenty are propoſed to be erected in different parts of the country, for teaching Greek, Latin, Geography, and the higher branches of numerical arithmetic. Of the boys thus ſent in any one year, trial is to be made at the grammar ſchools, for one or two years, and the beſt genius of the whole ſelected and continue ſix years, and the reſidue diſmiſſed; by this means twenty of the beſt geniuſſes will be taken from the maſs annually, and inſtructed, at the public expenſe, ſo far as the grammar ſchools go. At the end of ſix years inſtruction, one half are to be diſcontinued, from among whom the grammar ſchools will probably be ſupplied with future maſters, and the other half, who are to be choſen for the ſuperiority of their parts and diſpoſition, are to be ſent and continued three years in the ſtudy of ſuch ſciences as they ſhall chuſe, at William and Mary college, the plan of which is propoſed to be enlarged, as has been explained, and extended to all the uſeful ſciences. The ultimate reſult of the whole ſcheme of education would be the teaching all the children of the State reading, writing, and common arithmetic; turning out ten annually of ſuperior genius, well taught in Greek, Latin, geography, and the higher branches of arithmetic; turning out ten others annually, of ſtill ſuperior parts, who, to thoſe branches of learning, ſhall have added ſuch of the ſciences as their genius ſhall have led them to; the furniſhing to the wealthier part of the people convenient ſchools, at which their children may be educated, at their own expenſe. The general objects of this law are to provide an education adapted to the years, to the capacity, and the condition of every one, and directed to their freedom and happineſs. Specific details were not proper for the law: theſe muſt be the buſineſs of the viſitors entruſted with its execution. The firſt ſtage of this education being the ſchools of the hundreds, wherein the great maſs of the people will receive their inſtruction, the principal foundations of future order will be laid here. The firſt elements of morality may be inſtilled into their minds; ſuch as, when farther developed as their judgments advance in ſtrength, may teach them how to promote

their own greateſt happineſs, by ſhewing them that it does not depend on the condition of life in which nature has placed them, but is always the reſult of a good conſcience, good health, occupations, and freedom in all juſt purſuits. Thoſe whom either the wealth of their parents, or the adoption of the State, ſhall deſtine to higher degrees of learning, will go on to the grammar ſchools, which conſtitute the next ſtage, there to be inſtructed in the languages. As ſoon as they are of a ſufficient age, it is ſuppoſed they will be ſent on from the grammar ſchools to the univerſity, which conſtitutes the third and laſt ſtage, there to ſtudy thoſe ſciences which may be adapted to their views. By that part of the plan which preſcribes the ſelection of the youths of genius from among the claſſes of the poor, the State will avail itſelf of thoſe talents which nature has ſown as liberally among the poor as the rich, but which periſh without uſe, if not ſought for and cultivated. But of all the views of this law none is more important, none more legitimate, than that of rendering the people the ſafe, as they are the ultimate, guardians of their own liberty: for this purpoſe, the reading in the firſt ſtage, where they will receive their own education, is propoſed, to be chiefly hiſtorical. Hiſtory, by appriſing them of the paſt, will enable them to judge of the future; it will avail them of the experience of other times and other nations; it will qualify them as judges of the actions and deſigns of men; it will enable them to know ambition under every diſguiſe it may aſſume; and knowing it, to defeat its views. In every government on earth there is ſome trait of human weakneſs, ſome germ of corruption and degeneracy, which cunning will diſcover, and wickedneſs inſenſibly open, cultivate and improve. Every government degenerates when truſted to the rulers of the people alone: the people themſelves therefore are its only ſafe depoſitories; and to render even them ſafe, their minds muſt be improved to a certain degree; this, indeed, is not all that is neceſſary, though it be eſſentially neceſſary. The influence over government muſt be ſhared among all the people. If every individual which compoſes their maſs participates of the ultimate authority, the government will be ſafe; becauſe the corrupting the whole maſs will exceed any private reſources of wealth; and public ones cannot be provided but by levies on the people: in this caſe every man would have to pay his own price. The government of Great-Britain has been corrupted, becauſe but one man in thirty has a right to vote for members of Parliament. The ſellers of the government therefore get twenty-nine parts out of thirty of their price clear.

The excellent meaſures for the diffuſion of uſeful knowledge, which the formentioned bill propoſes, have not yet been carried into effect. And it will be happy if the great inequality in the circumſtances of the citizens; the pride, the independence, and the indolence of one claſs, and the poverty and depreſſion of the other, do not prove inſuperable difficulties in the way of their univerſal operation.

CONSTITUTION.

The Conſtitution, which was the firſt that was formed in the whole United States, is as follows:

We, the delegates and repreſentatives of the good people of Virginia, do declare the future form of government of Virginia to be as followeth:

The legiſlative, executive and judiciary departments ſhall be ſeparate and diſtinct, ſo that neither exerciſe the powers properly belonging to the other; nor ſhall any perſon exerciſe the powers of more than one of them at the ſame time, except that the juſtices of the county courts ſhall be eligible to either Houſe of Aſſembly.

The legiſlative ſhall be formed of two diſtinct branches, who, together, ſhall be a complete legiſlature. They ſhall meet once, or oftener, every year, and ſhall be called, THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY OF VIRGINIA. One of theſe ſhall be called, THE HOUSE OF DELEGATES, and conſiſt of two repreſentatives to be choſen for each county, and for the diſtrict of Weſt-Auguſta, annually, of ſuch men as actually reſide in and are freeholders of the ſame, or duly qualified according to law; and alſo of one delegate or repreſentative to be choſen annually for the city of Williamſburgh, and one for the borough of Norfolk, and a repreſentative for each of ſuch other cities and boroughs as may hereafter be allowed particular repreſentation by the legiſlature; but when any city or borough ſhall ſo decreaſe, as that the number of perſons having right of ſuffrage therein ſhall have been for the ſpace of ſeven years ſucceſſively leſs than half the number of voters in ſome one county in Virginia, ſuch city or borough thenceforward ſhall ceaſe to ſend a delegate or repreſentative to the Aſſembly.

The other ſhall be called, THE SENATE, and conſiſt of twenty-four members, of whom thirteen ſhall conſtitute a Houſe to proceed on buſineſs, for whoſe election the different counties ſhall be divided into twenty-four diſtricts, and each county

of the reſpective diſtrict, at the time of the election of its delegates, ſhall vote for one ſenator, who is actually a reſident and freeholder within the diſtrict, or duly qualified according to law, and is upwards of twenty-five years of age; and the ſheriffs of each county, within five days at fartheſt after the laſt county election in the diſtrict, ſhall meet at ſome convenient place, and from the poll ſo taken in their reſpective counties, return as a ſenator the man who ſhall have the greateſt number of votes in the whole diſtrict. To keep up this Aſſembly by rotation, the diſtricts ſhall be equally divided into four claſſes, and numbered by lot. At the end of one year after the general election, the ſix members elected by the firſt diviſion ſhall be diſplaced, and the vacancies thereby occaſioned ſupplied from ſuch claſs or diviſion by new election in the manner aforeſaid. This rotation ſhall be applied to each diviſion according to its number, and continued in due order annually.

The right of ſuffrage in the election of members for both Houſes ſhall remain as exerciſed at preſent, and each Houſe ſhall chuſe its own ſpeaker, appoint its own officers, ſettle its own rules of proceeding, and direct writs of election for the ſupplying intermediate vacancies.

All laws ſhall originate in the Houſe of Delegates, to be approved of or rejected by the Senate, or to be amended with conſent of the Houſe of Delegates, except money bills, which in no inſtance ſhall be altered by the Senate, but wholly approved or rejected.

A Governor, or chief magiſtrate, ſhall be choſen annually, by joint ballot of both Houſes, to be taken in each Houſe reſpectively, depoſited in the conference-room, the boxes examined jointly by a committee of each Houſe, and the numbers ſeverally reported to them, that the appointments may be entered (which ſhall be the mode of taking the joint ballot of both Houſes in all caſes) who ſhall not continue in that office longer than three years ſucceſſively, nor be eligible until the expiration of four years after he ſhall have been out of that office. An adequate, but moderate ſalary ſhall be ſettled on him during his continuance in office; and he ſhall, with the advice of a council of ſtate, exerciſe the executive powers of government, according to the laws of this Commonwealth; and ſhall not, under any pretence, exerciſe any power or prerogative by virtue of any law, ſtatute or cuſtom of England; but he ſhall, with the advice of the council of ſtate, have the power of granting reprieves or pardons, except where the proſecution ſhall

have been carried on by the Houſe of Delegates, or the law ſhall otherwiſe particularly direct; on which caſes no reprieve or pardon ſhall be granted, but by reſolve of the Houſe of Delegates.

Either Houſe of the General Aſſembly may adjourn themſelves reſpectively. The governor ſhall not prorogue or adjourn the Aſſembly during their ſitting, nor diſſolve them at any time: but he ſhall, if neceſſary, either by advice of the Council of State, or on application of a majority of the Houſe of Delegates, call them before the time to which they ſhall ſtand prorogued or adjourned.

A Privy Council, or Council of State, conſiſting of eight members, ſhall be choſen by joint ballot of both Houſes of Aſſembly, either from their own members of the people at large, to aſſiſt in the adminiſtration of government. They ſhall annually chuſe, out of their own members, a preſident, who, in caſe of death, inability or abſence of the governor, from the government, ſhall act as lieutenant-governor. Four members ſhall be ſufficient to act, and their advice and proceedings ſhall be entered on record, and ſigned by the members preſent (to any part whereof any member may enter his diſſent) to be laid before the General Aſſembly, when called for by them. This council may appoint their own clerk, who ſhall have a ſalary ſettled by law, and take an oath of ſecrecy in ſuch matters as he ſhall be directed by the board to conceal. A ſum of money appropriated to that purpoſe ſhall be divided annually among the members, in proportion to their attendance; and they ſhall be incapable, during their continuance in office, of ſitting in either Houſe of Aſſembly. Two members ſhall be removed, by joint ballot of both Houſes of Aſſembly, at the end of every three years, and be ineligible for the three next years. Theſe vacancies, as well as thoſe occaſioned by death or incapacity, ſhall be ſupplied by new elections in the ſame manner.

The delegates for Virginia in the Continental Congreſs ſhall be choſen annually, or ſuperſeded in the mean time by joint ballot of both Houſes of Aſſembly.

The preſent militia officers ſhall be continued, and vacancies ſupplied, by appointment of the governor, with the advice of the privy council, on recommendations from the reſpective county courts; but the governor and council ſhall have a power of ſuſpending any officer, and ordering a court-martial on complaint of miſbehaviour or inability, or to ſupply vacancies of officers happening when in actual ſervice.

The governor may embody the militia, with the advice of the privy council; and, when embodied, ſhall alone have the direction of the militia under the laws of the country.

The two Houſes of Aſſembly ſhall, by joint ballot, appoint judges of the Supreme Court of Appeals, and General Court, judges in Chancery, judges of Admiralty, ſecretary, and the attorney-general, to be commiſſioned by the governor, and continue in office during good behaviour. In caſe of death, incapacity or reſignation, the governor, with the advice of the privy council, ſhall appoint perſons to ſucceed in office, to be approved or diſplaced by both Houſes. Theſe officers ſhall have fixed and adequate ſalaries, and, together with all others holding lucrative offices, and all miniſters of the goſpel, of every denomination, be incapable of being elected members of either Houſe of Aſſembly, or the privy council.

The governor, with the advice of the privy council, ſhall appoint juſtices of the peace for the counties; and in caſe of vacancies, or a neceſſity of increaſing the number hereafter, ſuch appointments to be made upon the recommendation of the reſpective county courts. The preſent acting ſecretary in Virginia, and clerks of all the county courts, ſhall continue in office. In caſe of vacancies, either by death, incapacity or reſignation, a ſecretary ſhall be appointed as before directed, and the clerks by the reſpective courts. The preſent and future clerks ſhall hold their offices during good behaviour, to be judged of and determined in the General Court. The ſheriffs and coroners ſhall be nominated by the reſpective courts, approved by the governor, with the advice of the privy council, and commiſſioned by the governor. The juſtices ſhall appoint conſtables; and all fees of the aforeſaid officers be regulated by law.

The governor, when he is out of office, and others offending againſt the State, either by mal-adminiſtration, corruption or other means, by which the ſafety of the State may be endangered, ſhall be impeachable by the Houſe of Delegates; ſuch impeachment to be proſecuted by the attorney-general, or ſuch other perſon or perſons as the Houſe may appoint, in the General Court, according to the laws of the land. If found guilty, he or they ſhall be either for ever diſabled to hold any office under government, or be removed from ſuch office *pro tempore*, or ſubjected to ſuch pains or penalties as the law ſhall direct.

If all, or any of the judges of the General Court ſhould, on good grounds to be judged of by the Houſe of Delegates,

be accuſed of any of the crimes or offences above mentioned, ſuch Houſe of Delegates may, in like manner, impeach the judge or judges ſo accuſed, to be proſecuted in the Court of Appeals; and he or they, if found guilty, ſhall be puniſhed in the ſame manner as preſcribed in the preceding clauſe.

Commiſſions and grants ſhall run, *In the name of the Commonwealth of Virginia*, and bear teſt by the governor, with the ſeal of the Commonwealth annexed. Writs ſhall run in the ſame manner, and bear teſt by the clerks of the ſeveral courts. Indictments ſhall conclude, *Againſt the peace and dignity of the Commonwealth.*

A treaſurer ſhall be appointed annually, by joint ballot of both Houſes.

All eſcheats, penalties and forfeitures, heretofore going to the King, ſhall go to the Commonwealth, ſave only ſuch as the legiſlature may aboliſh, or otherwiſe provide for.

The territories contained within the charters erecting the colonies of Maryland, Pennſylvania, North and South Carolina, are hereby ceded, releaſed, and for ever confirmed to the people of theſe colonies reſpectively, with all the rights of property, juriſdiction and government, and all other rights whatſoever, which might at any time heretofore have been claimed by Virginia, except the free navigation and uſe of the rivers Potomack and Pokomoke, with the property of the Virginia ſhores and ſtrands bordering on either of the ſaid rivers, and all improvements which have been or ſhall be made thereon. The weſtern and northern extent of Virginia ſhall, in all other reſpects, ſtand as fixed by the charter of King James the Firſt, in the year one thouſand ſix hundred and nine, and by the public treaty of peace between the Courts of Britain and France, in the year one thouſand ſeven hundred and ſixty-three; unleſs, by act of this legiſlature, one or more governments be eſtabliſhed weſtward of the Allegany mountains. And no purchaſes of lands ſhall be made of the Indian natives but on behalf of the public, by authority of the General Aſſembly.

LAWS.

The following are worthy of notice, as variations from the Engliſh law.

Debtors unable to pay their debts, and making faithful delivery of their whole effects, are releaſed from their confinement, and their perſons for ever diſcharged from reſtraint for ſuch previous debts; but any property they may afterwards acquire

will be ſubject to their creditors. The poor, unable to ſupport themſelves, are maintained by an aſſeſſment on the titheable perſons in their pariſh. A foreigner of any nation, not in open war, becomes naturaliſed by moving to the State to reſide, and taking an oath of fidelity, and thereby acquires every right of a native citizen. Slaves paſs by deſcent and dower as lands do. Slaves, as well as lands, were entailable during the monarchy; but, by an act of the firſt republican Aſſembly, all donees in tail, preſent and future, were veſted with the abſolute dominion of the entailed ſubject. Gaming debts are made void, and monies actually paid to diſcharge ſuch debts, if they exceed forty ſhillings, may be recovered by the payer within three months, or by any other perſon afterwards. Tobacco, flour, beef, pork, tar, pitch and turpentine, muſt be inſpected by perſons publicly appointed before they can be exported.

In 1785, the Aſſembly enacted, that no man ſhould be compelled to ſupport any religious worſhip, place or miniſter whatſoever, nor be enforced, reſtrained, moleſted or burdened in his body or goods, nor otherwiſe ſuffer on account of his religious opinions or belief; but that all men ſhould be free to profeſs, and by argument to maintain, their opinion in matters of religion; and that the ſame ſhould in no wiſe diminiſh, enlarge or effect their civil capacities.

In October, 1786, an act was paſſed by the Aſſembly, prohibiting the importation of ſlaves into the Commonwealth, upon penalty of the forfeiture of the ſum of a thouſand pounds for every ſlave. And every ſlave imported contrary to the true intent and meaning of this act, becomes free.

INDIANA.

INDIANA, ſo called, is a tract of land lying on the Ohio river, in the State of Virginia, ceded to William Trent and twenty-two others, by the Six Nations, and the Shawaneſe, Delaware and Huron tribes, as a compenſation for the loſſes they had ſuſtained by the depredations of the latter, in the year 1763. This ceſſion was made in a congreſs of the repreſentatives of the Six Nations, at Fort Stanwix, by an indenture, ſigned the 3d of November, 1768, witneſſing, "That for and in conſideration of eighty-five thouſand nine hundred and ſixteen pounds, ten ſhillings and eight pence, York currency, the ſame being the amount of goods ſeized and taken by the ſaid Indians from the ſaid Trent, &c. they did grant, bargain, ſell, &c. to his Majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors, for the only uſe of the ſaid William Trent, &c. all that tract or parcel of land, beginning at the ſoutherly ſide of the Little Kanhawa creek, where it empties itſelf into the river Ohio; and running thence ſouth-eaſt to the Laurel hill; thence along the Laurel hill until it ſtrikes the river Monongahela; thence down the ſtream of the ſaid river, according to the ſeveral courſes thereof, to the ſouthern boundary line of the province of Pennſylvania; thence weſtwardly along the courſe of the ſaid province boundary line as far as the ſame ſhall extend; thence by the ſame courſe to the river Ohio, and then down the river Ohio to the place of beginning, incluſively." This indenture was ſigned by ſix Indian chiefs, in preſence of Sir William Johnſon, Governor Franklin, of New-Jerſey, and the commiſſioners from Virginia, Pennſylvania, &c. making twelve in the whole.

Since the Indians had an undiſputed title to the above limited territory, either from pre-occupancy or conqueſt, and their right was expreſsly acknowledged by the above deed of ceſſion to the crown, it is very evident that Mr. Trent, in his own right, and as attorney for the traders, has a good, lawful and ſufficient title to the land granted by the ſaid deed of conveyance.

This matter was laid before Congreſs in the year 1782, and a committee appointed to conſider it, who, in May, reported as follows: "On the whole, your committee are of opinion that

the purchaſes of Colonel Croghan and the Indian company, were made *bona fide* for a valuable conſideration, according to the then uſage and cuſtoms of purchaſing Indian lands from the Indians, with the knowledge, conſent and approbation of the Crown of Great-Britain, the then government of New-York and Virginia, and therefore do recommend that it be

"*Reſolved*, That if the ſaid lands are finally ceded or adjudged to the United States in point of juriſdiction, that Congreſs will confirm to ſuch of the ſaid purchaſers who are, and ſhall be citizens of the United States, or either of them, their reſpective ſhares and proportions of ſaid lands, making a reaſonable deduction for the value of the quit rents reſerved by the Crown of England."

Notwithſtanding this report of the committee, the queſtion could never be brought to a deciſion before Congreſs. The Federal Conſtitution has, however, made proviſion for the determination of this buſineſs, before the Supreme Federal Court. But previous to an appeal to this Court, the proprietors thought proper, by their agent, Colonel Morgan, who is alſo a proprietor, to preſent a memorial to the legiſlature of Virginia, ſetting forth their claims, and praying that the buſineſs might be equitably ſettled. This memorial was preſented in November, 1790; and thus, we believe, the Indiana buſineſs reſts for the preſent.

STATE OF

KENTUCKY.

SITUATION, EXTENT, AND BOUNDARIES.

THIS State is ſituated between 36° 30′ and 39° 30′ north latitude, and 8° and 15° weſt longitude from Philadelphia; its length is about two hundred and fifty miles, and its breadth two hundred. It is bounded on the north and north-weſt by Great Sandy creek and the Ohio river; on the weſt by Cumberland river; on the ſouth by the lands laid off from North-Carolina, called the Tenneſſee government; on the eaſt by Sandy river, and a line drawn due ſouth from its ſource, till it ſtrikes the northern boundary line of North-Carolina.

CLIMATE.

This country is more temperate and healthy than almoſt any of the other ſettled parts of America. In ſummer it is without the ſandy heats which Virginia and Carolina experience, and receives a fine air from its rivers. In winter, which at moſt only laſts three months, commonly but two, and is but ſeldom ſevere, the people are ſafe in bad houſes; and the beaſts have a good ſupply without fodder. The winter begins about Chriſtmas, and ends about the firſt of March, at fartheſt does not exceed the middle of that month. Snow ſeldom falls deep or lies long. The weſt winds often bring ſtorms, and the eaſt winds clear the ſky; but there is no ſteady rule of weather in that reſpect, as in the northern States. The weſt winds are ſometimes cold and nitrous. The Ohio running in that direction, and there being mountains on that quarter, the weſtern winds, by ſweeping along their tops, in the cold regions of the air, and over a long tract of frozen water, collect cold in their courſe, and convey it over the Kentucky country; but the weather is not ſo intenſely ſevere as theſe winds bring with

them in Pennſylvania. The air and ſeaſons depend very much on the winds, as to heat and cold, dryneſs and moiſture.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS.

In deſcribing a country like this, it is almoſt impoſſible to treat theſe ſubjects ſeparately without a repetition of the ſame remarks and obſervations; we, therefore, have preferred blending them together, and as an attention to the different rivers which water this State will greatly aſſiſt the European reader, in attaining a proper view of the ſoil, &c. we ſhall firſt mention the principal of them.

The beautiful river Ohio bounds Kentucky on the north-weſtern ſide in its whole length, being a mile and ſometimes leſs in breadth, and is ſufficient to carry boats of great burthen; its general courſe is ſouth 60° weſt; and in its courſe it receives numbers of large and ſmall rivers, which mingle with its ſtreams. The only diſadvantage this fine river has, is a rapid, one mile and a half long, and one mile and a quarter broad, called the falls of Ohio. In this place the river runs over a rocky bottom, and the deſcent is ſo gradual, that the fall does not probably in the whole exceed twenty feet. In ſome places we may obſerve it to fall a few feet. When the ſtream is low, empty boats only can paſs and repaſs this rapid; their lading muſt be tranſported by land; but when high, boats of any burthen may paſs in ſafety. Excepting this place, there is not a finer river in the world for navigation by boats.* Beſides this, Kentucky is watered by eight ſmaller rivers, and many large and ſmall creeks.

Licking River, heading in the mountains with Cumberland river, and the north branch of Kentucky, runs in a north-weſt direction for upwards of one hundred miles, collecting its ſilver ſtreams from many branches, and is about an hundred yards broad at its mouth.

Red River† heads and interlocks with the main branch of Licking, and flows in a ſouth-weſt courſe into Kentucky river, being about ſixty miles long, and ſixty yards wide at its mouth.

* The river Ohio is, beyond all competion, the moſt beautiful in the univerſe, whether we conſider it for its meandering courſe through an immenſe region of foreſts, for its clean and elegant banks, which afford innumerable delightful ſituations for cities, villages and improved farms or for thoſe many other advantages, which truly entitle it to the name originally given it by the French, of *La Belle Riviere*. Journal of a Tour in Kentuckey, American Muſeum, for 1792.

† This river is a principal branch of the Kentucky.

KENTUCKY RIVER, riſes with three heads, from a mountainous part of the country; its northern branch interlocks with Cumberland; runs half way in a weſterly direction, and the other half north-weſterly. It is amazingly crooked upwards of two hundred miles in length, and about one hundred and fifty yards broad.

ELKHORN, is a ſmall river which empties itſelf into Kentucky in a north-weſt-by-weſt courſe: is about fifty miles long, and fifty-yards broad at the mouth.

DICK'S RIVER, joins the Kentucky in a north-weſt direction; is about forty-five miles long, and forty-five yards wide at its mouth. This river curiouſly heads and interlocks its branches with Salt river, Green river, and the waters of Rockcaſtle river.

SALT RIVER, riſes at four different places near each other. The windings of this river are curious, rolling its ſtreams round a ſpacious tract of fine land, and uniting almoſt fifteen miles before they approach the Ohio, and twenty miles below the falls. It is amazingly crooked, and runs a weſtern courſe near ninety miles.

GREEN RIVER, interlocking with the heads of Dick's river, as mentioned above, is alſo amazingly crooked; it keeps a weſtern courſe for upwards of one hundred and fifty miles, and is about eighty yards wide at its mouth, which is about two hundred and twenty miles below the falls.

CUMBERLAND RIVER, interlocks with the northern branch of Kentucky, as aforeſaid, and rolling round the other arms of the Kentucky among the mountains, in a ſouthern courſe for one hundred miles, then in a ſouth-weſtern courſe for above one hundred miles, then in a ſouthern and ſouth-weſtern courſe for about two hundred and fifty more, finds the Ohio four hundred and thirteen miles below the falls. At Naſhville this river is two hundred yards broad, and its mouth three hundred, having paſſed through the territory ſouth of the Ohio about half its courſe.

The Great Kanhawa, or New river, riſes in North-Carolina, runs in a northern and north-weſtern courſe, for upwards of four hundred miles, and finds the Ohio four hundred miles above the falls. It is about five hundred yards wide at its mouth. Theſe two rivers are juſt mentioned, being beyond the limits of this State. They run contrary courſes, are exceeding large, and it is worth notice, that Clinch, Holſtein, Nolachucky and French-Broad rivers, take their riſe between theſe two, or rather weſtward of New river, ſome of them riſing and

interlocking with it; and when they meet, form what is called the Tenneſſee river, which runs a weſtern courſe, and finds the Ohio twelve miles below Cumberland river: it is very large, and has ſpacious tracts of fine land.

Theſe rivers are navigable for boats almoſt to their ſources, without rapids, for the greateſt part of the year. Frequent rains in the latter end of the autumn produce floods in the Ohio, and it is an uncommon ſeaſon when one of thoſe floods does not happen before Chriſtmas. If there is much froſty weather in the upper parts of the country, its waters generally remain low until they begin to thaw. But if the river is not frozen over, which is not very common, there is always water ſufficient for boats of any ſize, from November until May, when the waters generally begin to ſubſide; and by the middle of June, in moſt ſeaſons, they are too low for boats above forty tons, and theſe muſt be flat-bottomed. The froſt ſeldom continues ſo long as the middle of February, and immediately upon its breaking, the river is flooded; this flood may in a degree ſubſide, but for no length of time; and it is from that period until May, that the boats generally come down the river. The diſtance of deſcending is in proportion to the height of the water; but the average diſtance is about eighty miles in twenty-four hours, and from ſixty to one hundred are the extremes; ſo that the mean time of going in a flat-bottomed boat from Pittſburgh to the rapids is between eight and nine days, and about twenty days more to New-Orleans; which will make a paſſage from Pittſburgh to that place nearly a month.

The little rivulets which chequer this country begin to leſſen in June, and quite diſappear in the months of Auguſt, September and October; the autumnal rains, however, in November repleniſh them again. The method of getting a ſupply of water in the dry ſeaſon is by ſinking wells, which are eaſily dug, and afford excellent water. The want of water in autumn is the great complaint. Mills that may be ſupplied with water eight months in a year, may be erected in a thouſand different places. Wind-mills and horſe-mills will ſupply the other four months.

The banks of the rivers are generally high and compoſed of lime-ſtone. After heavy rains, the water in the rivers riſes from ten to thirty feet.

The country in ſome parts is nearly level, in others not ſo much ſo, in others again hilly, but moderately, and in ſuch places there is moſt water. The levels are not like a carpet, but interſperſed with ſmall riſings and declivities, which form a beautiful proſpect;

A great part of the ſoil is amazingly fertile, ſome not ſo good, and ſome poor. The inhabitants diſtinguiſh its quality by firſt, ſecond, and third rate lands; and ſcarcely any ſuch thing as a marſh or ſwamp is to be found. There is a ridge where Kentucky riſes, nearly of the ſize of a mountain.

All the land below the Great Kanhawa, until we come near the waters of Licking river, is broken, hilly, and generally poor; except in ſome valleys, and on Little and Great Sandy creeks, where there is ſome firſt rate land, but moſtly ſecond and third rate: it is ſaid that near this water is found a pure ſalt rock. Upon the north branch of Licking, we find a great body of firſt rate land. This ſtream runs nearly parallel to the Ohio for a conſiderable diſtance, and is about ſeven miles from the mouth of Lime-ſtone creek, where is a fine harbour for boats coming down the Ohio, and now a common landing; it is ſixty-five miles from Lexington, to which there is a large waggon road. The main branch of Licking is about twenty-two miles from Lime-ſtone; on this ſtream we find ſome firſt, but moſtly ſecond and third rate lands, and towards its head ſomething hilly. There we find the Blue Licks, two fine ſalt ſprings, where great plenty of ſalt may be made. Round theſe licks, the ſoil is poor for ſome diſtance, being much impregnated with ſalt.

The ſouthern branch of Licking, and all its other arms, ſpread through a great body of firſt, and ſome ſecond rate land, where there is abundance of cane, and ſome ſalt licks and ſprings. On theſe ſeveral branches of Licking are good mill ſeats, with navigation to the Ohio, from the fork down to its mouth. The land is hilly, and generally poor, yet along the ſtreams and in valleys we find ſome excellent land.

The Elkhorn lands are much eſteemed, being ſituated in a bend of Kentucky river, of great extent, in which this little river, or rather large creek, riſes. Here we find moſtly firſt rate land, and near the Kentucky river ſecond and third rate. This great tract is beautifully ſituated, covered with cane, wild rye, and clover, and many of the ſtreams afford many fine mill ſeats.

The lands below the mouth of Elkhorn, up Eagle creek, and toward the Ohio, are hilly and poor, except thoſe contained in a great bend of the Ohio, oppoſite the Great Miami, cut off by the Big-bone and Bank-lick creeks, interlocking, and running ſeparate courſes. Here we find a great deal of good land, but ſomething hilly.

On Kentucky river we find many fertile valleys, or bottoms along the river, eſpecially towards its riſe. There is good land alſo on Red river, but toward the heads of this and the Kentucky, the ſoil is broken; but even here, we find in valleys and along the ſtreams, a great deal of fruitful land. Generally the ſoil within a mile or two of Kentucky river is of the third and fourth rates; from about that diſtance, as we leave it on either ſide, we approach good lands. The country through which it winds its courſe, for the moſt part, may be conſidered as level to its banks, or rather precipices; from the brow of which we behold the river, three and ſometimes four hundred feet deep, like a great canal.

Dick's river runs through a great body of firſt rate land, abounding every where with cane, and affords many excellent mill ſeats. Many mills are already built on this ſtream, and will have a plentiful ſupply of water in the dryeſt ſeaſons. The banks of this river, near its mouth, are ſimilar to the banks of the Kentucky. The ſeveral ſtreams and branches of Salt river afford excellent mill ſeats; theſe roll themſelves through a great tract of excellent land, but the country from the junction of theſe waters, and ſome miles above towards the Ohio, which may be about twenty-five miles, is level and poor, and has abundance of ponds. For a conſiderable diſtance from the head of this river, the land is of the firſt quality, well ſituated, and abounds with fine cane. Upon this and Dick's river, the inhabitants are chiefly ſettled, it being the ſafeſt part of the country from the incurſions of the Indians.

Green river affords excellent mill ſeats, and a conſtant ſtream. This is allowed to be the beſt watered part of Kentucky. On its banks we find many fine bottoms, ſome firſt rate, but moſtly ſecond and third rate lands, and at ſome diſtance, many knobs, ridges, and broken poor land. Below a creek called Sinking creek, on this river, within fifty miles of the Ohio, towards Salt river, a great territory begins, called Green river Barrens, extending to the Ohio; it has no timber, and little water, but affords excellent paſturage for cattle. On ſome parts of this river we find abundance of cane, ſome ſalt licks, and ſulphureous and bituminous ſprings.

That part of Cumberland river which is in the Kentucky country, traverſes a hilly poor land, though in ſome parts we find good ſoil along its ſides. The other rivers mentioned, viz. Great Kanhawa and Tenneſſee, are not in the Kentucky country, and therefore will be treated of in another place.

The reader by caſting his eye upon the map, and viewing round the heads of Licking from the Ohio, and round the heads of Kentucky, Dick's river, and down the Green river to the Ohio, may view in that great compaſs of above one hundred miles ſquare, the moſt extraordinary country upon which the ſun ever ſhone.

South of Green river, in the lands reſerved for the continental and ſtate troops of Virginia, an exceeding valuable lead mine has lately been diſcovered. Iron ore is likewiſe found on Rough creek, a ſtream running into this river.

The Ohio river, the great reſervoir of all the numerous rivers that flow into it from both banks, has many fine valleys along its ſides, and we obſerve that oppoſite to each of them there is a hill, theſe hills and bottoms changing ſides alternately. It only remains under this head to inform the reader that there is a great body of firſt rate lands near the falls or rapids, called Bear-graſs; and it will be ſufficient juſt to mention, that the country on the north-weſt ſide of the Ohio is allowed by all travellers to be a moſt fertile level country, and well-watered.

The ſoil of Kentucky is of a looſe, deep black mould, without ſand, in the firſt rate lands, about two or three feet deep, and exceedingly luxurious in all its productions.* In ſome places the mould inclines to brown; in ſome the wood, as the natural conſequence of too rich a ſoil, is of little value, appearing like dead timber and large ſtumps in a field lately cleared. Theſe parts are not conſiderable. The country in general may be conſidered as well timbered, producing large trees of many kinds,

* As the quality of the land is the great object to emigrants, every one muſt be pleaſed with the ſoil, and was that the only thing requiſite to make a country valuable or pleaſing, Kentucky would be the moſt ſo in the world, as the land is no where excelled. After you are got fairly into Kentucky, the ſoil aſſumes a black appearance, rich and light in ſubſtance; and ſhould you viſit the country in the ſpring, you will be ſurpriſed at finding no leaves under the trees. The reaſon is, the ground is ſo rich and damp, that they always rot and diſappear with the winter, except where the ſoil is evidently poor for that country. It then bears the appearance of the better ſort of land in Pennſylvania and Jerſey; though differing widely in ſubſtance, there being no ſand to be met with in the ſoil of Kentucky.

There is a ſpecies of flat or ſplit lime-ſtone that pervades all the country, lying at unequal depths. In the rich and black-looking ſoil it lies near the ſurface, and, in general, the nearer the ſtone lies to the ſurface, the richer the land is found to be. At the ſame time, the ſtone does not, as I expected, impede the growth of the trees, as they grow every where to an amazing height, except near the ſalt licks, where the influence of the ſaline particles ſeems to check their growth. *American Muſeum*, 1792.

and to be exceeded by no country in variety.* Thoſe of the natural growth, and which are peculiar to Kentucky, are the ſugar tree, which grows in all parts in great plenty, and furniſhes every family with plenty of excellent ſugar. The honey locuſt is curiouſly ſurrounded with large thorny ſpikes, bearing broad and long pods, in form of peas, has a ſweet taſte, and makes excellent beer.

The coffee tree greatly reſembles the black oak, grows large, and alſo bears a pod, in which is encloſed coffee. The papwa tree does not grow to a great ſize, is a ſoft wood, bears a fine fruit, much like a cucumber in ſhape and ſize, and taſtes ſweet. The cucumber tree is ſmall and ſoft, with remarkable leaves, bears a fruit much reſembling that from which it is named. Black mulberry trees are in abundance. The wild cherry tree is here frequent, of large ſize, and ſupplies the inhabitants with boards for all their buildings. Here alſo is the buck eye, an excellent ſoft wood, bearing a remarkable black fruit, and ſome other kinds of trees not common elſewhere. Here is great plenty of fine cane, on which the cattle feed and grow fat. This plant, in general, grows from three to twelve feet high, of a hard ſubſtance, with joints at eight or ten inches diſtance along the ſtalk, from which proceed leaves reſembling thoſe of the willow. There are many cane brakes ſo thick and tall that it is difficult to paſs through them; where no cane grows, there is abundance of wild rye, clover, and buffalo graſs, covering vaſt tracts of country, and affording excellent food for cattle. The fields are covered with abundance of wild herbage not common to other countries;† the Shawaneſe ſallad, wild lettuce,

* Among the many accounts that have been given of Kentucky, none of them have done juſtice to the timber. Oak and locuſt on the flat lands are common at five feet diameter. Poplars growing on the beach lands are ſo common at five and ſix feet through, as hardly to be noticed. The beach grows to the thickneſs of four or five feet, and both of the laſt mentioned to the height of one hundred and twenty to one hundred and thirty feet. Theſe, and the advantage of paſture in the woods, conſtitute the great excellence of Kentucky.- *American Muſeum*, 1792.

† The ſtories told of the abundance of graſs in the woods, are in many inſtances true. You frequently find beds of clover to the horſe's knees--ſometimes a ſpecies of ruſh-graſs, commonly called the wild rye, from the ſimilarity of its ſtalk to the rye ſo called among us; in other places we meet with large tracts of wild cane, very much eſteemed by the wild and tame cattle, it continuing in verdure all the winter. There is alſo a ſpecies of vine, called the pea vine, from its producing a ſmall pod, reſembling that of the garden pea, of which both horſes and cattle are extremely fond.

and pepper graſs, and many more, as yet unknown to the inhabitants, but which, no doubt, have excellent virtues. Here are ſeen the fineſt crown imperial in the world, the cardinal flower, ſo much extolled for its ſcarlet colour; and all the year, excepting the winter months, the plains and valleys are adorned with variety of flowers of the moſt admirable beauty. Here is alſo found the tulip-bearing laurel tree, or magnolia, which has an exquiſite ſmell, and continues to bloſſom and ſeed for ſeveral months together.

This country is richeſt on the higher lands, exceeding the fineſt low grounds in the ſettled parts of the continent. When cultivated, it produces in common fifty and ſixty buſhels per acre; and it has been affirmed by credible perſons, that above one hundered buſhels of good corn were produced from an acre in one ſeaſon.* The firſt rate land is too rich for wheat till it has been reduced by four or five years cultivation.

Colonel Harrod, a gentleman of veracity in Kentucky, has lately experienced the production of ſmall grain; and affirms, that he had thirty-five buſhels of wheat, and fifty buſhels of rye per acre.

In common, the land will produce about thirty buſhels of wheat and rye, upon a moderate computation, per acre; and this is the general opinion of the inhabitants. We may ſuppoſe that barley and oats will increaſe abundantly; as yet they have not been ſufficiently tried. The ſoil is very favourable to flax and hemp, turnips, potatoes, and cotton, which grow in abundance; and the ſecond, third, and fourth rate lands are as

Theſe are ſcattered generally through the country, according to the different ſoils, but are not to be met with univerſally. The woods, however, afford abundance of food for cattle; and in conſequence of this abundance, the people pay very little attention to the making and improving paſture lands. The milk from this food is, however, thin, and both that and the butter retain a ſtrong taſte of weeds. In hot weather, their milk will turn ſour in two or three hours after milking; but as the cuſtom of the country is to uſe ſour milk, this diſadvantage is not much regretted. *American Muſeum*, 1792.

* The great boaſt of a Kentucky-man is the quantity of corn that the land will raiſe upon an acre, of which one hundred and ſeven buſhels are the greateſt quantity that I could find aſcertained to have been produced; this, in the fall, ſells for ſix-pence a buſhel. The common produce of the ſoil is from fifty to eighty buſhels an acre, in a favourable ſeaſon. This, upon an average, is about three times the quantity we can raiſe on an acre in the old States; grain of this kind muſt therefore always be low in Kentucky, probably lower than at preſent, when the country comes to be more opened. *Ibid.*

proper for ſmall grain. Every huſbandman may have a good garden or meadow, without water or manure where he pleaſes.

The old Virginia planters ſay, that if the climate does not prove too moiſt, few ſoils known will yield more or better tobacco.* Experience has proved, that the climate is not too moiſt. Great quantities of this article have been exported to France and Spain, through New-Orleans; and it is a well-known fact, that Philadelphia is a profitable market for the Kentucky planter, notwithſtanding all the inconveniencies and expenſes of re-ſhipment at New-Orleans, under a Spaniſh government. What advantages then may not this country expect from a free navigation of the Miſſiſſippi, unreſtrained by Spaniſh policy!

Iron ore and lead are found in abundance, but we do not hear of any ſilver or gold mine as yet diſcovered.

There appear to be great natural ſtores of ſulphur and ſalt in this country. A ſpring at Boonſborough conſtantly emits ſulphureous particles, and near the ſame place is a ſalt ſpring. There is another ſulphureous ſpring upon Four Mile creek, a third upon Green river, and many others in different places, abounding with that uſeful mineral.

There are three ſprings or ponds of bitumen near Green river, which do not form a ſtream, but diſgorge themſelves into a common reſervoir, and when uſed in lamps, anſwer all the purpoſes of the fineſt oil.

There are different places abounding with copperas, eaſily procured, and in its preſent impure ſtate ſufficient for the uſe of the inhabitants; but when refined, equal to any in the world.

There is an allum bank on the ſouth ſide of Cumberland river, ſituated at the bottom of a cliff of rocks projecting over it. In its preſent ſtate it has the appearance and poſſeſſes the virtues of that mineral, and when purified is a beautiful allum.

Many fine ſalt ſprings conſtantly emit water, which being manufactured, affords great quantities of fine ſalt. There are five, which in time will become of the utmoſt importance, viz.

* No land appears better adapted to the culture of tobacco than that of Kentucky, and it is now become one of their ſtaples. At preſent there are but few orchards; but as the country opens, they will find it their intereſt to plant them.—The flour I have ſeen made here is generally black, and not ſo good as might be expected. Poſſibly it may be the fault of the mills, or it may proceed from the richneſs of the ground, though it muſt be confeſſed the grain itſelf looks well. *American Muſeum*, 1792.

the higher and lower Blue Springs, on Licking river, from ſome of which it is ſaid, iſſue ſtreams of briniſh water—the Big-bone lick, Drennon's lick, and Bullet's lick, at Saltſburgh. The laſt of theſe licks, though in low order, has ſupplied this country and Cumberland with ſalt at twenty ſhillings the buſhel, Virginia currency; and ſome is exported to the Illinois country. The method of procuring water from theſe licks is by ſinking wells from thirty to forty feet deep. The water drawn from theſe wells is more ſtrongly impregnated with ſalt than the water from the ſea.

The Nob lick, and many others, do not produce water, but conſiſt of clay mixed with ſalt particles: to theſe the cattle repair, and reduce high hills rather to valleys than plains. The amazing herds of buffalo which reſort thither, by their ſize and number, fill the traveller with amazement and terror, eſpecially when he beholds the prodigious roads they have made from all quarters, as if leading to ſome populous city; the vaſt ſpace of land around theſe ſprings, deſolated as if by a ravaging enemy, and hills reduced to plains, for the land near thoſe ſprings are chiefly hilly; theſe are truly curioſities, and the eye can ſcarcely be ſatisfied with admiring them.

A medicinal ſpring is found near the Great-bone lick, which has perfectly cured the itch by once bathing; and experience in time may diſcover in it other virtues. There is another of like nature near Drinnon's lick.

The weſtern waters produce plenty of fiſh and fowl. The fiſh, common to the waters of the Ohio, are a buffalo fiſh, of a large ſize, and the cat fiſh, ſometimes exceeding one hundred weight. Trout have been taken in the Kentucky weighing thirty pounds. The mullet, rock, perch, gar fiſh, and eel, are here in plenty. Suckers, ſun fiſh, and other hook fiſh, are abundant; but no ſhad or herrings. On theſe waters, and eſpecially on the Ohio, the geeſe and ducks are amazingly numerous.

The land fowls are turkeys, which are very frequent, pheaſants and patridges. The parroquet, a bird every way reſembling a parrot, but much ſmaller; the ivory bill woodcock, of a whitiſh colour, with a white plume, flies ſcreaming exceeding ſharp. It is aſſerted, that the bill of this bird is pure ivory, a circumſtance very ſingular in the plumy tribe. The great owl reſembles its ſpecies in other parts, but is remarkably different in its vociferation, ſometimes making a ſtrange ſurpriſing noiſe, like a man in the moſt extreme danger and difficulty.

Serpents are not numerous, and are ſuch as are to be found in other parts of the continent, except the bull, the horned, and the mockaſon ſnakes. Swamps are rare, and conſequently frogs and other reptiles, common to ſuch places. There are no ſwarms of bees, except ſuch as have been introduced by the preſent inhabitants; theſe have increaſed and extended themſelves in an almoſt unparalleled manner of late years.

Among the native animals are the urus, or biſon, called improperly a buffalo; hunters have aſſerted that they have ſeen above one thouſand of theſe animals at the Blue licks at once; ſo numerous were they before the firſt ſettlers had wantonly ſported away their lives. There ſtill remains a great number in the exterior parts of the ſettlement. They feed upon cane and graſs, as other cattle, and are innocent harmleſs creatures.

There are ſtill to be found many deer, elks, and bears, within the ſettlement, and many more on the borders of it. There are alſo panthers, wild cats, and wolves.

The waters have plenty of beavers, otters, minks, and muſk rats: nor are the animals common to other parts wanting, ſuch as foxes, rabbits, ſquirrels, racoons, ground hogs, pole cats, and opoſſums. Moſt of the ſpecies of the domeſtic quadrupeds have been introduced ſince the ſettlement, ſuch as horſes, cows, ſheep and hogs, which are prodigiouſly multiplied, ſuffered to run in the woods without a keeper, and only brought home when wanted.

CURIOSITIES.

Amongſt the natural curioſities of this country, the winding banks, or rather precipices of the Kentucky, and Dick's river, deſerve the firſt place. The aſtoniſhed eye there beholds almoſt every where three or four hundred feet of a ſolid perpendicular lime-ſtone rock; in ſome parts a fine white marble, either curiouſly arched, pillared, or blocked up into fine building ſtones. Theſe precipices, as was obſerved before, are like the ſides of a deep trench or canal; the land above being level, except where creeks ſet in, and crowned with fine groves of red cedar. It is only at particular places that this river can be croſſed, one of which is worthy of admiration; this is a great large road, wide enough for waggons made by the buffalo, ſloping with an eaſy deſcent from the top to the bottom of a very large ſteep hill, at or near the river above Lees-town.

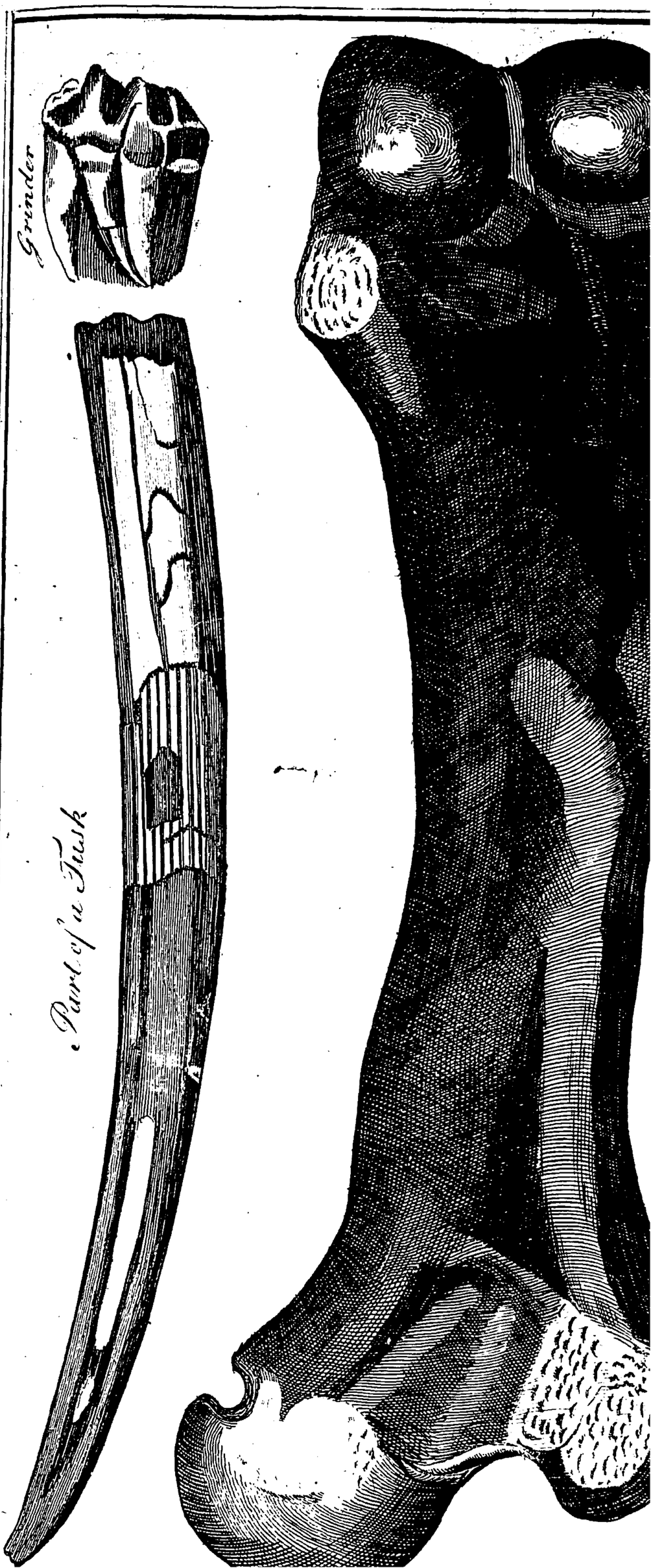
Caves are found in this country amazingly large; in ſome of which you may travel ſeveral miles under a fine lime-ſtone

rock, ſupported by curious arches and pillars: in mo
runs a ſtream of water.

Near the head of Salt river a ſubterraneous lake or l
has lately been diſcovered. Colonel Bowman ſays, th
a companion travelled in one four hours, till he luckil
the mouth again. The ſame gentleman mentions anot
operates like an air furnace, and contains much ſulp
adventurer in any of theſe will have a perfect idea of
darkneſs.

Near Lexington are to be ſeen curious ſepulchres, f
man ſkeletons, which are thus fabricated. Firſt on t
are laid large broad ſtones, on theſe are placed the bo
rated from each other by broad ſtones, covered w
which ſerve as a baſis for the next arrangement of bo
this order they are built, without mortar, growing ſtill
to the height of a man. This method of burying app
totally different from that now practiſed by the Indian

At a ſalt ſpring near Ohio river, very large bones a
far ſurpaſſing the ſize of any ſpecies of animals now
rica. The head appears to have been about three feet
ribs ſeven, and the thigh bones about four; one of
repoſited in the library in Philadelphia, and ſaid to we
ty-eight pounds. The tuſks are above a foot in le
grinders about five inches ſquare, and eight inches lon
bones have attracted the attention of philoſophers; ſpe
them have been ſent both to France and England, w
have been examined with the greateſt diligence, and fo
compariſon to be the remains of the ſame ſpecies
that produced thoſe other foſſil bones which have b
vered in Tartary, Chili, and ſeveral other places, bo
old and new continent. What animal this is, and
means its ruins are found in regions ſo widely diffe
where none ſuch exiſts at preſent, is a queſtion of mo
deciſion. The ignorant and ſuperſtitious Tartars attri
to a creature whom they call Maimon, who, they ſa
reſides at the bottom of the rivers, and of whom t
many marvellous ſtories; but as this is an aſſertion tota
ed of proof, and even of probability, it has juſtly bee
by the learned; and on the other hand it is certain
ſuch amphibious quadruped exiſts in the America
The bones themſelves bear a great reſemblance to tho
elephant. There is no other terreſtrial animal now kn


Grinder
Part of a Tusk

reſemblances have generally made ſuperficial obſervers conclude, that they could belong to no other than that quadruped; and when they firſt drew the attention of the world, philoſophers ſeem to have ſubſcribed to the ſame opinion. But if ſo, whence is it that the whole ſpecies has diſappeared from America? An animal ſo laborious and ſo docile as the elephant, that the induſtry of the Peruvians (which reduced to ſervitude and ſubjected to education ſpecies ſo vaſtly inferior in thoſe qualities, as the Llama and the Paca) could never have overlooked, if he had been to be found in their country. Whence is it that theſe bones are found in climates where the elephant, a native of the torrid zone, cannot even ſubſiſt in his wild ſtate, and in a ſtate of ſervitude will not propagate? Theſe are difficulties ſufficient to ſtagger credulity itſelf, and at length produced the inquiries of Dr. Hunter. That celebrated anatomiſt having procured ſpecimens from the Ohio, examined them with that accuracy for which he was ſo much diſtinguiſhed: he diſcovered a conſiderable difference between the ſhape and ſtructure of the bones, and thoſe of the elephant; he obſerved from the form of the teeth, that they muſt have belonged to a carnivorous animal; whereas the habits of the elephant are foreign to ſuch ſuſtenance, and his jaws totally unprovided with the teeth neceſſary for its uſe; and from the whole he concluded, to the ſatisfaction of naturaliſts, that theſe bones belonged to a quadruped now unknown, but to which the name of Mammoth has been given, with what propriety we will not pretend to ſay; the race is probably extinct, unleſs it may be found in the extenſive continent of New-Holland, whoſe receſſes have not yet been pervaded by the curioſity or avidity of civilized man.* Perhaps nothing more

* Mr. Jefferſon informs us, that a late governor of Virginia, having aſked ſome delegates of the Delawares, what they knew or had heard reſpecting this animal, the chief ſpeaker immediately put himſelf into an oratorical attitude, and with a pomp ſuited to the ſuppoſed elevation of his ſubject informed him, that it was a tradition handed down from their fathers, "That in ancient times a herd of them came to the Big-bone licks, and began an univerſal deſtruction of the bears, deer, elks, buffaloes, and other animals which had been created for the uſe of the Indians: that the Great Man above, looking down and ſeeing this, was ſo enraged, that he ſeized his lightning, deſcended to the earth, ſeated himſelf upon a neighbouring mountain, on a rock, on which his ſeat and the print of his feet are ſtill to be ſeen, and hurled his bolts among them till the whole were ſlaughtered, except the big bull, who, preſenting his forehead to the ſhafts, ſhook them off as they fell; but at length miſſing one, it wounded him in the ſide; whereon, wringing round, he bounded over the Ohio, the Wabaſh, the Illinois, and, finally, over the great lakes, where he is living at this day.

will ever be diſcovered than the memorials above related. The following tradition exiſting among the natives, we give in the very terms of a Shawanee Indian, to ſhew that the impreſſion made on their minds by it muſt have been forcible.

Col. G. Morgan, in a note to Mr. Morſe, ſays, "theſe bones are found only at the ſalt licks on the Ohio; ſome few ſcattered grinders have, indeed, been found in other places; but it has been ſuppoſed theſe have been brought from the above-mentioned depoſit, by Indian warriors and others who have paſſed it, as we know many have been ſpread in this manner. When I firſt viſited the ſalt lick, ſays the Colonel, in 1766, I met here a large party of the Iroquois and Wyandot Indians, who were then on a war expedition againſt the Chicaſaw tribe. The head chief was a very old man to be engaged in war; he told me he was eighty-four years old; he was probably as much as eighty. I fixed on this venerable chief, as a perſon from whom ſome knowledge might be obtained. After making him ſome ſmall acceptable preſents of tobacco, paint, ammunition, &c. and complimenting him upon the wiſdom of his nation, their proweſs in war and prudence in peace, intimated to him my ignorance reſpecting the great bones before us, which nothing but his ſuperior knowledge could remove; and accordingly requeſted him to inform me what he knew concerning them. Agreeably to the cuſtoms of his nation, he anſwered me in ſubſtance as follows:

"Whilſt I was yet a boy I paſſed this road ſeveral times, to war againſt the Catawbas; and the wiſe old chiefs, among whom was my grandfather, then gave me the tradition, handed down to us, reſpecting theſe bones, the like to which are found in no other part of the country." It is as follows:

"After the Great Spirit firſt formed the world, he made the various birds and beaſts which now inhabit it. He alſo made man; but having formed him very white, and imperfect, and ill-tempered he placed him on one ſide of it where he now inhabits, and from whence he has lately found a paſſage acroſs the great water, to be a plague to us. As the Great Spirit was not pleaſed with this his work, he took of black clay, and made what *you* call a negro, with a woolly head. This black man was much better than the white man, but ſtill he did not anſwer the wiſh of the Great Spirit, that is, he was imperfect; at laſt, the Great Spirit having procured a piece of pure, fine red clay, formed from it the Red Man, perfectly to his mind; and he was ſo well pleaſed with him, that he placed him on this great iſland, ſeparate from the white and black men, and gave him rules for his conduct, promiſing happineſs in proportion as they ſhould be obſerved. He increaſed exceedingly, and was perfectly happy for ages; but the fooliſh young people, at length forgetting his rules, became exceedingly ill-tempered and wicked. In conſequence of this, the Great Spirit created the great buffalo, the bones of which you now ſee before us; theſe made war upon the human ſpecies alone, and deſtroyed all but a few, who repented and promiſed the Great Spirit to live according to his laws, if he would reſtrain the devouring enemy; whereupon he ſent lightning and thunder, and deſtroyed the whole race, in this ſpot, two excepted, a male and a female, which he ſhut up in yonder mountain, ready to let looſe again, ſhould occaſion require."

"Ten thouſand moons ago, when nought but gloomy foreſts covered this land of the ſleeping ſun, long before the pale men, with thunder and fire at their command, ruſhed on the wings of the wind to ruin this garden of nature; when nought but the untamed wanderers of the woods, and men as unreſtrained as they, were the lords of the ſoil; a race of animals were in being, huge as the frowning precipice, cruel as the bloody panther, ſwift as the deſcending eagle, and terrible as the angel of night. The pines craſhed beneath their feet, and the lake ſhrunk when they ſlaked their thirſt; the forceful javelin in vain was hurled, and the barbed arrow fell harmleſs from their ſide. Foreſts were laid waſte at a meal; the groans of expiring animals were every where heard, and whole villages inhabited by men were deſtroyed in a moment. The cry of univerſal diſtreſs extended even to the region of peace in the weſt, and the good ſpirit interpoſed to ſave the unhappy. The forked lightning gleamed all around, and loudeſt thunder rocked the globe. The bolts of Heaven were hurled upon the cruel deſtroyers alone, and the mountains echoed with the bellowings of death. All were killed except one male, the fierceſt of the race, and him even the artillery of ſkies aſſailed in vain. He aſcended the blueſt ſummit which ſhades the ſource of the Monongahela, and roaring aloud, bid defiance to every vengeance. The red lightning ſcorched the lofty firs, and rived the knotty oaks, but only glanced upon the enraged monſter. At length, maddened with fury, he leaped over the waves of the weſt at a bound, and this moment reigns the uncontrouled monarch of the wilderneſs, in deſpite of even Omnipotence itſelf."

CIVIL DIVISIONS AND CHIEF TOWNS.

Kentucky was originally divided into two counties, Lincoln and Jefferſon. It has ſince been ſubdivided into nine, viz. Jefferſon,

Colonel Morgan adds, "I have every material bone of the anatomy of this animal, with ſeveral jaw bones in which the grinders are entire; and ſeveral of the great tuſks, one of which is ſix feet long, and *twenty in circumference.*" Mr. Morſe ſuppoſes ſome miſtake in theſe laſt words, and obſerves, that probably the word *inches* ought to have been added to the *twenty*.

It has been ſaid by Mr. Jefferſon, that the grinders of the mammoth are five or ſix times as large as thoſe of the elephant. Colonel Morgan ſays not; he obſerves, "I have ſeen the grinder of an elephant as large and as heavy as the largeſt of the mammoth; they are indeed thinner, deeper rooted, and differently ſhaped, denoting a granivorous animal, whereas the grinders of the mammoth reſemble thoſe of a wolf or dog, and ſhew them to have been carnivorous."

Fayette, Bourbon, Mercer, Nelſon, Madiſon, Lincoln, Woodford, and Maſon. As moſt of theſe counties are very large, it is probable that ſub-diviſions will continue to be made, as population increaſes.

The chief towns are,

LEXINGTON,

Which ſtands on the head waters of Elkhorn river, and is reckoned the capital of Kentucky. Here the courts are held, and buſineſs regularly conducted. In 1786, it contained about one hundred houſes, and ſeveral ſtores, with a good aſſortment of dry goods. It has greatly increaſed ſince.

WASHINGTON.

This is the ſhire town of Maſon county, and is the ſecond town in this State.

LEES-TOWN.

Lees-town is weſt of Lexington, on the eaſtern bank of Kentucky river; it is regularly laid out, and is flouriſhing. The banks of Kentucky river, as before obſerved, are remarkably high, in ſome places three and four hundred feet, compoſed generally of ſtupendous perpendicular rocks; the conſequence is, there are few croſſing places; the beſt is at Lees-town, which is a circumſtance that muſt contribute much to its increaſe.

LOUISVILLE.

Louiſville is at the rapids of Ohio, in a fertile country, and promiſes to be a place of great trade; it has been made a port of entry. Its unhealthineſs, owing to ſtagnated waters at the back of the town, has conſiderably retarded its growth. In addition to theſe, there is Beard's-town, in Nelſon county; and Harrodſburgh, in Mercer county; both on the head waters of Salt river. Danville, Boonſborough, and Granville, are alſo increaſing towns. Several new townſhips are marked out; the principal of theſe are, Lyſtra, Franklin, and Ohiopiomingo. On each of theſe, towns are laid out, and no doubt can be entertained but that a rapid progreſs will be made in ſettling them.

The townſhip of Lyſtra contains fifteen thouſand acres on the rolling fork of Salt river, in about $37\frac{1}{4}^{o}$ north latitude, and $85\frac{1}{2}^{o}$ longitude weſt from London.* The town is laid out on

* This tract is purchaſed by agents, and veſted in the hands of truſtees for the ſecurity of the ſubſcribers.

the South creek of the above fork, on a very eligible plan, combining every thing neceſſary for utility and ornament.

The ſtreets, angles, circus and ſhore of the creek, to be free for public uſe. The ſtreets to be one hundred feet wide. The houſes to be built regularly, according to the taſte of the proprietor, upon the ſtreets running north and ſouth, on a line twenty-five feet diſtant from the ſtreet, and upon the ſtreets running eaſt and weſt, on a line with the ſtreets.

The town is divided into one hundred and eighty-eight lots, fourteen of which to be free for the gratuitants, as by a particular arrangement.

Twelve lots, in eligible ſituations, to be reſerved for ſuch ſubſcribers as take ten ſhares, one lot to each ſuch ſubſcriber.

One lot to be free to the firſt ſchoolmaſter, and his heirs, choſen and ſettled by the freeholders of the townſhip and town.

One lot free to the preſident of a college, and his ſucceſſors.

One lot free to the firſt member of Congreſs belonging to Nelſon county, choſen after the year 1794, as a reſidence in Lyſtra, provided he builds a houſe thereon, in which caſe it is

It is divided into one hundred and fifty ſhares, for each of which a certificate is iſſued on a ſtamped parchment, containing a receipt for the conſideration money, which at preſent is twenty pounds, and expreſſing the title to the ſubſcriber and his heirs.

The agents are impowered to grant fourteen lots, in proper ſituations, to ſettlers gratis, and to ſell fourteen lots on the eaſt ſide of ſaid gratuitous lots in the year 1794, at twenty pounds each; and fourteen lots on their north ends in the year 1795, at thirty pounds each; and fourteen lots on their ſouth ends in the year 1796, at forty pounds each; and fourteen lots on the weſt ſides in the year 1797, at fifty-five pounds each; and fourteen lots on the north-weſt corners in the year 1798, at ſeventy pounds each; and fourteen lots on the north-eaſt corners in the year 1799, at ninety pounds each; and fourteen lots on the ſouth-weſt corners in the year 1800, at one hundred and twenty pounds each; and fourteen lots on the ſouth-eaſt corners in the year 1801, at one hundred and fifty pounds each; and twelve of the remaining lots in the year 1802, at two hundred pounds each; and the laſt twelve lots in the year 1803, at two hundred and fifty pounds each; provided in each year a larger price than is here ſpecified cannot be obtained; and if any lands remain unſold in the year 1804, they are to be equally divided among, and legally conveyed unto, the ſubſcribers and their heirs as their private property.

As faſt as the money ariſes by this re-ſale of the lands, it is to be paid in equal dividends to the holders of the certificates.

The agents receive an allowance of five pounds per cent. for their trouble.

All which is more particularly ſet forth in the printed plan, which may be had gratis at the American Agency Office, Threadneedle-ſtreet, London.

granted to him and his heirs; otherwiſe, the grant is to the next choſen member who will build on theſe terms.

One lot free for the firſt ſenator, in like manner.

One fot free for the firſt judge, provided Lyſtra ſhall become a town where courts are held, and the judge ſhall build a houſe on the lot, in which caſe the grant is to him and his heirs, otherwiſe to the next judge who ſhall take it upon thoſe terms.

One lot free to the firſt miniſter of the firſt church, whatever the perſuaſion may be, choſen by the free ſuffrages of the freeholders, and his heirs. And a lot free to the ſaid firſt miniſter and his ſucceſſors.

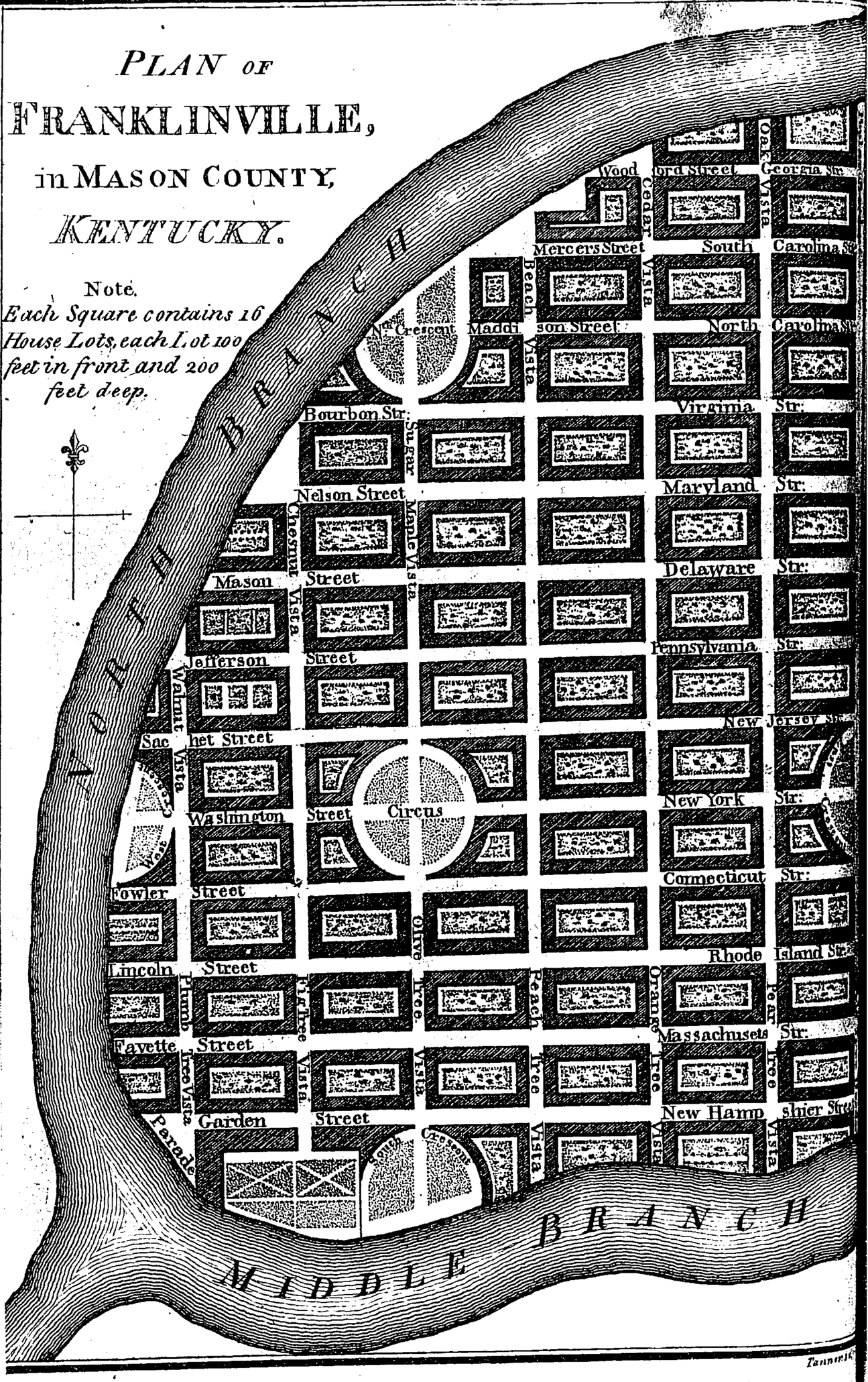
One lot free to the firſt man who ſhall erect a commodious hotel for the entertainment of travellers, undertake to keep it in good order and well provided with refreſhments, on reaſonable terms, under the regulation of the police, according to circumſtances, providing for the comfort of the traveller, and guarding ſtrictly againſt impoſition.

Two lots to be free lots for public granaries, to be uſed by merchants, who will build upon them gratis, till ſuch time as the public occaſions ſhall call for their appropriated uſe.

The angles marked in the plate *a*, *a*, *a*, *a*, to be appropriated as market places; and the ſtrand of the creek to be commodiouſly edified with docks and landings, whenever the unappropriated public lots ſhall bear a price equal to the undertaking, together with ſuch improvements of the navigation in the rolling Fork, as ſhall be found proper and expedient. And from theſe immunities, thoſe parts of a lot formed by the Fork of Lyſtra creek, ſhall belong to the liberties of the town, to be kept in a neat manner as a common meadow, upon which every inhabitant of the town, and freeholder of the townſhip, ſhall have the privilege of grazing his horſe the firſt night of his coming into the town, or of his return from a journey, under the inſpection of an overſeer, taking care to do no injury to fence, or hedge, or ſhrub. The remaining parts ſhall alſo belong to the liberties of the town, and finally be laid out in ſuch lots, with ſuch reſtraints on the order of building as ſhall preſerve the beauty of the whole; and theſe lots, together with what remains unappropriated hereby, as hereinafter mentioned, in the year 1804, if not previouſly ſold by order of the ſubſcribers, to be then conveyed, with what may remain, if any, of the townſhip, to the ſubſcribers, as their private property.

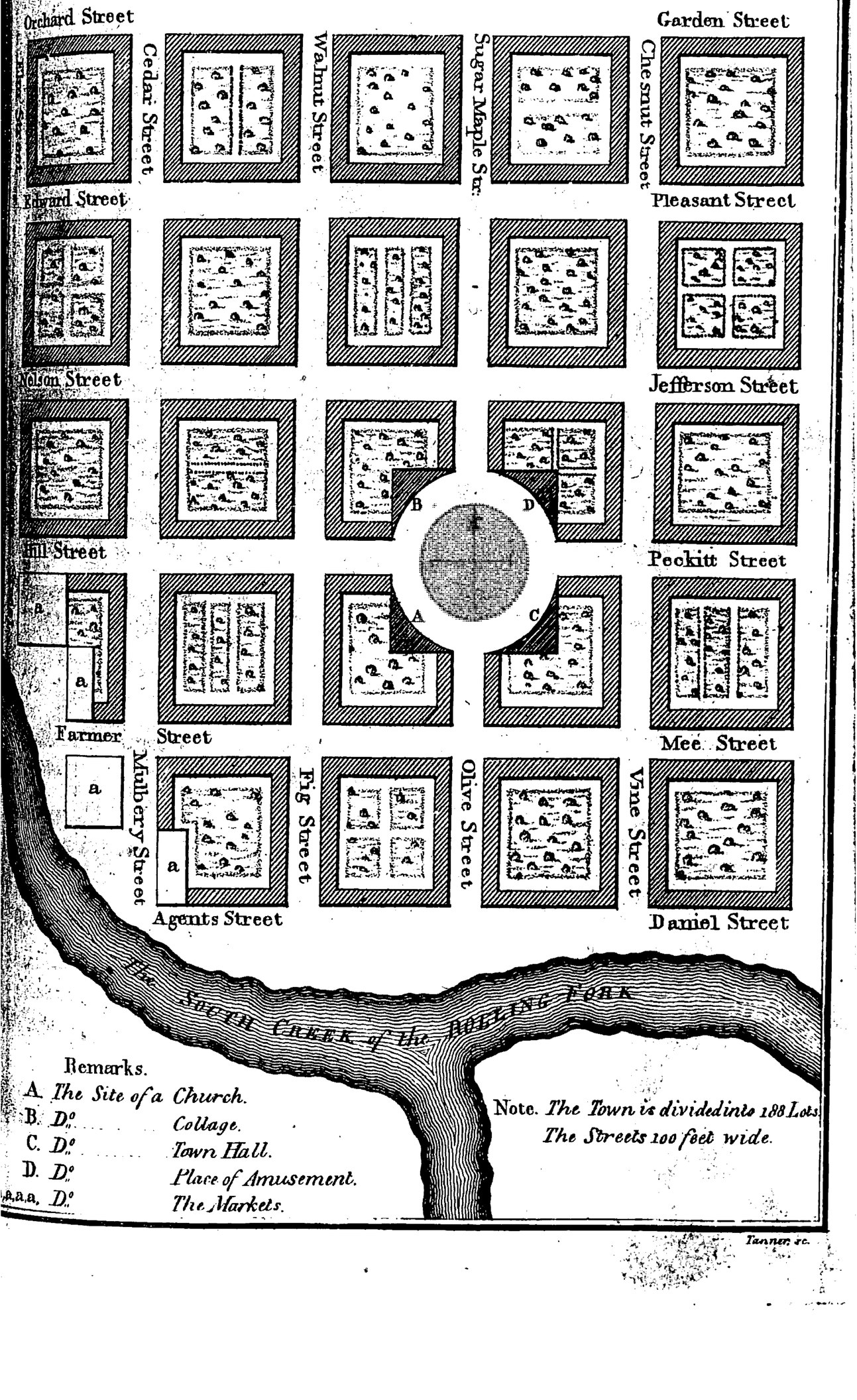
PLAN OF FRANKLINVILLE, in MASON COUNTY, KENTUCKY.

Note.
Each Square contains 16 House Lots, each Lot 100 feet in front and 200 feet deep.



PLAN of LYSTRA,

in NELSON-COUNTY, KENTUCKY.



Remarks.

A. *The Site of a Church.*
B. *D.o* ..... *Collage.*
C. *D.o* ..... *Town Hall.*
D. *D.o* ..... *Place of Amusement.*
a,a,a, *D.o* ..... *The Markets.*

Note. *The Town is divided into 188 Lots. The Streets 100 feet wide.*

Tanner sc.

Eighty-four lots in the townſhip are appropriated for the common good and ſole uſe of the town, to be ſold at ſuch times and on ſuch occaſions as ſhall ariſe and be agreed on by the freeholders of the town, for building a church on the angle marked A, ſo far as ten lots ſhall go to that purpoſe; an edifice for a college on the angle marked B, ſo far as ten lots ſhall go to that purpoſe; an edifice for a town hall on the angle marked C, ſo far as ten lots ſhall go to that purpoſe; and ſome other public building, as a theatre or place of amuſement, on the angle marked D, ſo far as ten lots ſhall go to that purpoſe. Theſe edifices to be handſome and uniform, to be built with wings fronting the curve line which forms the circus; the church to be adorned with a ſteeple, and the other buildings with cupolas. And for doing other works of public utility, ſuch as may ariſe in all times hereafter, till the whole ſtock thus appropriated is exhauſted; but as the exigency ariſes, ſuch lots are to be ſold for the purpoſe, indiſcriminately, according as they ſhall bear a price adequate to the undertaking.

The townſhip of Franklin contains one hundred and ſixteen thouſand ſix hundred and fifty-ſix acres, and is moſt commodiouſly ſituated between two capital branches of that fine river which gives name to the State, the banks of which are better peopled than any other part of the State; on which lie the city of Lexington, the towns of Boonſborough, Danville, Grenville, Lees-town, &c. affording markets to the farmer for his produce. The river, about two hundred yards wide at the ſpot appropriated for a town already planned, to be called Franklinville, is navigable for large craft many miles above, and by the deep creeks into its interior parts for boats of conſiderable burthen.

In this townſhip the farmer will have no need of manuring his grounds for many years to come, nature having already repleniſhed the ſoil with a ſtock not ſoon to be exhauſted. A conſiderable part of the land is of the prime quality, the ſecond and third qualities are full ſtrong enough for the various productions of the ſtaples of life for man and beaſt.

Coal of a ſuperior quality abounds within the limits, and in ſpots near the waters, and convenient for navigation to other parts of the country. There are two ſalt ſprings near the river, and a large quantity of copperas. The deſigned town is planned for the point at the confluence of the north and middle branches into the main river. Maſon county in which this townſhip ſtands, will doubtleſs be ſoon divided into, at leaſt two

more, and one will form a natural angle from this point, and probably be bounded by Red river, and Franklinville become the ſhire town.

The ſtreets, angels, circus and creſcents, in this town, to be free to the public.

The ſtreets, which, according to the plan, are one hundred feet wide, may be reduced to eighty feet, giving equally to the lots adjoining on each ſide, which are, according to the plan, one hundred feet wide and two hundred feet deep, and the houſes to be built regularly, according to the taſte of the proprietors, on a line twenty-five feet diſtant from the ſtreets: and one moiety of each lot to be laid out in gardens, and ſeparated from each other, and from the viſtas, by ſimple paliſades. This order of building not to be infringed.

Five hundred lots, to be drown by ſome one choſen to repreſent the town for that purpoſe, to be veſted in truſtees for the uſe thereof, and ſold at ſuch times and on ſuch occaſions, as may ariſe and be agreed on by the ſuffrages of freeholders of the townſhip and town; for building public edifices in the angles within the lines forming the circus and creſcents; the churches to be adorned with handſome ſteeples, and the other public buildings with ſuitable cupolas, and built with a ſufficient degree of uniformity to give thoſe ſtructures a handſome appearance. Alſo for making common ſewers, aqueducts, market-places, granaries, piers and landing-places, paving the ſtreets, planting the viſtas with trees correſponding to their names, embelliſhing the circus and creſcents, planting the public garden, lighting, watching and cleanſing the town, and doing all ſuch matters as belong to the public good, according to the public agreement; but theſe lots not to be ſold until they bear a ſufficient price for defraying the undertaking, at ſuch times when it may be judged expedient.

One hundred and ſixteen lots gratis to the ſubſcribers, one to each thouſand acres.

One hundred lots gratis to the firſt hundred reſidents.

Twenty-ſix lots gratis, formed in the angles of the circus and creſcents, for the miniſters, preſidents, and other officers connected with the public buildings.

One hundred lots, to be balloted for the purpoſe, and veſted in truſtees, to be granted by the ſuffrages of the people, as compliments, accompanying other marks of public eſteem, to ſuch perſons as are or ſhall become reſidents in the town, and have

by ſome ſingular ſervices deſerved ſuch honours from the freemen of the townſhip.

Four lots gratis, in ſuitable parts of the town, to ſuch perſons as will build thereon each a handſome and commodious hotel for the entertainment of travellers, and keep it in good order, and well provided with refreſhments for ſuch gueſts, on reaſonable terms, under the regulation of the police, according to circumſtances, providing for the comfort of the travellers, and guarding againſt impoſition, and to be aſſigned by the proprietor only on theſe conditions.

Fifty lots, to be balloted for the purpoſe, and reſerved for building alms-houſes, houſes of induſtry, correction, &c. as occaſion may render expedient.

The viſtas to keep their full breadth of an hundred feet.

The pleaſure-garden to be made botanic, and be under the care of a profeſſor, under whoſe diſcretion it may be uſed as a pleaſure-garden, by ſuch of the inhabitants as are willing to contribute towards its embelliſhment.

The remaining one hundred and thirty-nine lots to remain the private property of Mr. Abraham Fowler, who is to make good to each ſubſcriber his full quota of land; receiving from ſuch whoſe lots ſhall exceed the regular quantity of one hundred and twenty-five, two hundred and fifty, or five hundred acres, three ſhillings per acre for the ſurplus, and paying to thoſe whoſe lots ſhall fall ſhort of thoſe reſpective quantities, three ſhillings per acre for the deficiency.

It is ſtrongly recommended, that no place of interment be ſuffered within the limits of the town, but that two lots of ten acres each, without the town, be appropriated for that purpoſe.

No perſon can ſubſcribe for leſs than one thouſand acres, which will entitle him by ballot, 1. to a town lot of two hundred feet in length, and one hundred feet in breadth; 2. to two farms from the diviſion neareſt the town of one hundred and twenty-five acres each; 3. to one plantation from the next diviſion of two hundred and fifty acres; and 4. to one tract in the third diviſion of five hundred acres.

The proprietor in America, and his attorney here, are ſo conſcious of the truth of the above ſtatement, that they are willing to relinquiſh the ſale, provided a conſiderable part of the land is not of the prime qualities, or what is termed firſt-rate land.

OHIOPIOMINGO, now forming, will be a moſt capital townſhip and town, very advantageouſly ſituated about twenty miles

from LYSTRA, and thirty miles below Louiſville, on the river OHIO, in the county of NELSON, in about 37° 30′ north latitude, containing upwards of one huudred thouſand acres of prime land, and is named, in compliment to PIOMINGO, one of the Indian chiefs, a man greatly beloved and reſpected, not only by the Indian tribes but alſo by the whites.

A gentleman of great reſpectability, the proprietor of the land, and who has but juſt left London, has determined, at his own expenſe of more than one hundred and fifty pounds ſterling, to erect, either in the circus or ſome principal part of the town, a pedeſtrian ſtatue of PIOMINGO, habited as an Indian warrior, in the attitude of delivering an oration in favour of LIBERTY: the ſtatue and pedeſtal, with ſuitable ornaments, to be of Coade's artificial ſtone, and will be put in hand as ſoon as an eminent and well-known ſtatuary has formed a drawing and model ſuitable for the purpoſe.

It may not be improper to obſerve, that a number of induſtrious huſbandmen have voluntarily offered to go out and ſettle at OHIOPIOMINGO, under the ſuperintendance of a gentleman well verſed in ſurveying, and competent in other reſpects to conduct ſo important an undertaking: it is alſo worthy of remark, that this gentleman's father, at the venerable age of ninety, yet in perfect health, has determined to accompany his children and grandchildren to this propitious ſpot.

The town is to contain upwards of a thouſand houſes, forty-three ſtreets, a circus and ſeveral capital ſquares, which will be embelliſhed with various ſuitable and handſome ſtructures: each ſettler in the townſhip will be entitled, in fee ſimple, to one town lot of an hundred feet in width, and three hundred feet in length: a field of five acres, and another of twenty acres, will alſo be allotted to each of them, and their farms will conſiſt of five hundred acres each, which will be granted on leaſe for nine hundred and ninety-nine years; the three firſt years to be rent free, on condition of building a houſe and barn on the premiſes, and alſo of bringing under cultivation twenty acres of the land within the term, and on the fourth year the tenants are to commence an annual rent of five pounds for every hundred acres.

The town will enjoy various important privileges and immunities. A college is to be erected for the education of the youth of the tenantry, and alſo for ſuch childrer. of the Indians as they may chuſe to ſend thither for inſtruction, and due care will be taken to inſtil into their tender minds the principles of philanthropy, moral rectitude and ſocial order, together with ſuch

branches of ſcience; as may tend to render them uſeful members of ſociety, for which purpoſe the proprietor has appropriated fifteen hundred acres of land towards the endowment of the inſtitution, and alſo ſuitable encouragement to ſuch gentlemen of erudition and undoubted character as may chuſe to engage in ſo important a charge.

The houſes in Kentucky, the towns excepted, are ſcarcely deſerving of the name; which we ſhall have the leſs room to wonder at, when we recollect the ſhort interval that has elapſed ſince the firſt ſettlement of the country.

POPULATION.

It is impoſſible to aſcertain, with any degree of accuracy, the preſent number of inhabitants; owing to the numerous acceſſions which are made almoſt every month. In 1783, in the county of Lincoln only, there were on the militia rolls three thouſand five hundred and ſeventy men, chiefly emigrants from the lower parts of Virginia. In 1784, the number of inhabitants were reckoned at upwards of thirty thouſand. It is aſſerted, that at leaſt twenty thouſand migrated there in the year 1787.

In 1790, the numbers ſtood as follow;

KENTUCKY.

COUNTIES AND TOWNS.	Free white males of 16 years and upwards.	Free white males under 16 years of age.	Free white females.	All other free persons.	Slaves.	Total.
Fayette County, -	3241	3878	6738	30	3689	17576
Nelſon, - - - -	2456	2746	4644	34	1219	11099
Woodford, - - -	1767	1929	3267	27	2220	9210
Bourbon, - - - -	1645	2035	3249		908	7837
Mercer, - - - -	1411	1515	2691	7	1317	6941
Lincoln, - - - -	1375	1441	2630	8	1094	6548
Jefferſon, - - - -	1008	997	1680	4	876	4565
Madiſon, - - - -	1231	1421	2383		737	5772
Maſon, - - - -	431	676	952		208	2267
Lexington, in Fayette County, - -	276	203	290	2	63	834
Waſhington in Maſon County, - -	163	95	183		21	462
Beard's Town, in Nelſon County -	52	49	85	1	29	216
Louiſville, in Jefferſon County -	49	44	79	1	27	200
Danville, in Mercer County, - -	49	28	51		22	150
	15154	17057	28922	114	12430	73677

What the preſent number of inhabitants is, it is almoſt impoſſible to form any correct eſtimate of, for no calculations can be made, the number of emigrations have been ſo great from Europe and the eaſtern States; but perhaps the account will not err far, if we rate them at about one hundred and ſeventy-five thouſand.

RELIGION AND CHARACTER.

The Baptiſts are the moſt numerons ſect in Kentucky. As far back as 1787 they had ſixteen churches eſtabliſhed, beſides ſeveral congregations where churches were not conſtituted; theſe were then ſupplied by thirty miniſters, and by accounts ſince received it appears, that their numbers have kept a proportional increaſe with that of the State. There are a few Epiſco-

palians and Roman Catholics, and ſeveral congregations of Preſbyterians; and perhaps ſome may be found of almoſt every perſuaſion. The Baptiſts were the firſt that promoted public worſhip in this State; they formed three congregations near Harrod's Station, and engaged Mr. David Rice of Virginia as their Paſtor; and afterwards formed another large congregarion at Lexington, the paſtoral charge of which they delivered to Mr. Rankin, alſo of Virginia. Theſe were the firſt churches in this State.

With reſpect to character, the people, collected from different parts, of different manners, cuſtoms, religious and political ſentiments, have not been long enough together to form an uniform national character: they are, however, in general, polite, humane, hoſpitable and very complaiſant. Among the ſettlers there are gentlemen of abilities, and many genteel families, from ſeveral of the States, who give dignity and reſpectability to the ſettlement. They are in general, more regular than people who uſually ſettle new countries.

COMMERCE.

A convenient ſituation for commerce is the grand hinge upon which the population, riches, and happineſs of every country greatly depend. Many conceive the ſituation of Kentucky to be unfavourable in this reſpect, and are of opinion, that the beſt channel is from Philadelphia or Baltimore, by the way of Pittſburgh, and from thence down the Ohio; and upon account of the difficulties and expenſes attending this rout, for which there is no remedy, that goods would ever be dear, and the crops not worth removing for ſale.* This opinion has been reprobated, as the effect of ignorance of the trade up the Miſſiſſippi from New-Orleans, or Mantchac, at the river or gut, Iberville,

Thoſe who are acquainted with America know the Miſſiſſippi and Ohio rivers to be the key to the northern parts of the ſouthern continent. Theſe are the principal channels through which

* Hitherto there has not been much more grain raiſed than has been conſumed by the inhabitants; and the perſons emigrating there, together with the trade down the river, may afford a fine proſpect in theory, to individuals, but will never turn out of any ſolid advantage to the public of this ſettlement; the difficulty in returning up the river muſt render the voyage terrible. To make head againſt the ſtream muſt be done by dint of ſevere labour and main ſtrength, and would require exertions which no man would ever wiſh to make a ſecond time, who was not urged by the inducement of gaining a ſpeedy fortune thereby. *Journal of a Tour in Kentucky.*

that extenſive region, bathed by their waters, enriched by the many ſtreams they receive, communicate with the ſea, and may truly be conſidered as the great paſſage made by the Hand of Nature for a variety of valuable purpoſes, and principally to promote the happineſs and benifit of mankind; among which, the conveyance of the produce of that immenſe and fertile country lying weſtward of the United States is not the leaſt. A few obſervations on theſe rivers, and ſome others flowing into them, are objects ſubmitted to the reader's attention, in order to form a juſt idea of the favourable commercial circumſtances of this important country.

The Ohio river beings at Pittſburgh, three hundred and twenty miles weſt of Philadelphia, being there formed by the junction of the Allegany and Monangahela rivers, and running a winding courſe of ſouth 60° weſt, falls into the Miſſiſſippi one thouſand and ſeventy-four miles, by the meanders of the river below Pittsburgh. The only obſtruction to navigation on this river are the rapids, as diſcribed before under the deſcription of the Kentucky rivers; but they are paſſed in ſafety when the ſtream is high.

The moſt remarkable branches compoſing the head waters of Ohio are Red-ſtone creek, Cheat river and Yohogania. Theſe waters are navigable to a conſiderable diſtance above Pittſburgh, from November until June, and the Ohio a month longer; but from Great Kanhawa, which is one hundred and ninety-ſix miles and a half below Pittſburgh, the ſtream is navigable moſt parts of the year. Down this river quantities of goods are brought, and ſome are conveyed up the Kentucky rivers, others on horſeback or in waggons to the ſettled part, and ſold on an average at one hundred pounds per cent. advance.

The current of the Ohio deſcends about two miles an hour in autumn, and when the waters are high about four miles. Thoſe of the Kentucky rivers are much the ſame, and without rapids, and are of immenſe value to the country, affording fiſh and fowl, and tranſportation of the produce of the country to the beſt market. Theſe rivers increaſe the Ohio more in depth than breadth. At its mouth it is not more than one and a half mile in width, and enters the Miſſiſſippi in a ſouth-weſt direction with a ſlow current, and a fine channel. This great river, at the junction with the Ohio, runs in a ſouth-eaſt direction, and afterwards in a ſouth-weſt, having been a little before joined by a greater river called Miſſouri, which, as before obſerved, runs in an eaſtward direction through Louiſiana,

and afterwards communicates to the Miſſiſſippi its own muddy and majeſtic appearance. The depth is, in common, eight or ten fathoms, until you approach its mouth, which empties itſelf by ſeveral channels into the gulph of Mexico. Here the navigation is dangerous, on account of the many iſlands, ſand-bars and logs, interſperſed in its mouth, which is about twenty miles wide. This diſadvantage may be remedied almoſt in the ſame manner that the ſtream was diſconcerted. The conflict between the ſea and this mighty river, which brings down with its ſtream great numbers of trees, mud, leaves, &c. cauſes them to ſubſide and form ſhoals. One of theſe trees, ſtopped by its roots or branches, will ſoon be joined by thouſands more, and ſo fixed, that no human force is able to remove them. In time they are conſolidated, every flood adds another layer to their height, forming iſlands, which at length are covered with ſhrubs, graſs and cane, and forcibly ſhift the bed of the river. In this manner we ſuppoſe moſt of the country on each ſide of the Miſſiſſippi, below the Iberville, to have been formed, by iſlands uniting to iſlands which, in a ſucceſſion of time, have greatly encroached on the ſea, and produced an extenſive tract of country. If ſome of the floating timber at the mouths of this river were moved into ſome of the channels, numbers more would incorporate with them and the current being impeded in theſe, the whole force of the river uniting, one important channel would forcibly be opened, and ſufficiently cleared to admit of the moſt excellent navigation.

About ninety-nine miles above Orleans is a fort, now called Mantchac by the Spaniards; formerly Fort Bute by the Engliſh, who built it. Near this is a large gut, formed by the Miſſiſſippi, on the eaſt ſide, called Iberville; ſome have dignified it with the name of river, when the Miſſiſſippi, its ſource, is high. This is navigable, at moſt, not above four months in the year for the firſt ten miles: for three miles farther it is from two to ſix feet in autumn, and from two to four fathoms the remaining part of the way to lake Maurepas, receiving in its courſe the river Amit, which is navigable for batteaux to a conſiderable diſtance.

Lake Maurepas is about ten miles in length and ſeven in breadth; and there is a paſſage of ſeven miles between this and lake Ponchartrain.

Lake Pontchartain is about forty miles long, twenty-four broad, and eighteen feet deep. From this lake to the ſea the channel is ten miles long, and three hundred yards wide; and the water deep enough to admit large veſſels through theſe lakes and their communications. This place, if attended to, might be

of conſquence to all the weſtern country, and the commerce of Weſt-Florida; for it may reaſonably be ſuppoſed, that the inhabitants and traders of the weſtern country would rather trade at this place than at New-Orleans, if they could have as good returns for their peltry, and the produce of their ſoil; as it makes a conſiderable difference in their voyage, and ſaves labour, money and time. Experience will doubtleſs produce conſiderable improvements, and render the navigation of the Miſſiſſippi, either by theſe lakes, or New-Orleans, nearly as cheap as any other. That the Miſſiſſippi can anſwer every valuable purpoſe of trade and commerce, is proved already to a demonſtration by experience.

There is reaſon to believe that the time is not far diſtant, when New-Orleans will be a great trading city, and perhaps another be built near Mantchac, at Iberville, that may in time rival its glory.

A prodigious number of iſlands, ſome of which are of great extent, are interſperſed in this mighty river; and the difficulty in aſcending it in the ſpring, when the floods are high, is greatly leſſened by eddies or counter currents, which moſtly run in the bends near the banks of the river with nearly equal velocity againſt the ſtream, and aſſiſt the aſcending boats.

From New-Orleans to the falls of Ohio, batteaux, carrying about forty tons, have been rowed by eighteen or twenty men in eight or ten weeks, which, at the extent, will not amount to more than five hundred pounds expenſe, which experience has proved to be above one third of that from Philadelphia. It is highly probable that in time the diſtance will be exceedingly ſhortened by cutting acroſs bends of the river.

Charlevoix relates, that at Coupee, or Cut point, the river formerly made a great turn, and ſome Canadians, by deepening the channel of a ſmall brook, diverted the waters of the river into it. The impetuoſity of the ſtream was ſo violent, and the ſoil of ſo rich and looſe a quality, that in a ſhort time the point was entirely cut through, and the old channel left dry, except in inundations, by which travellers ſave fourteen leagues of their voyage. The new channel has been ſounded with a line of thirty fathoms, without finding bottom. When the diſtance is ſhortened, which we believe may readily be done; the expenſes of a voyage from New-Orleans to the falls of Ohio will be very inconſiderable. It is known by experience that forty tons of goods cannot be taken to the falls of Ohio from Philadelphia, under ſixteen hundred pounds expenſe; but by improvements on the Miſſiſſippi, with the conveniences of the mechanical boats, goods can be brought from New-Orleans to the falls for the tenth part

of that expenſe ; and if they are ſold at one hundred pounds per-cent. now, when brought from Philadelphia at expenſes ſo great, what may the merchant afford to ſell his goods at, who brings them ſo much cheaper ? Beſides, the great advantages ariſing from the exporting of peltry, and country produce, which never can be conveyed to the eaſtern ports to any advantage. It is evident alſo that the market from which they receive imports, muſt conſequently receive their exports, which is the only return they can poſſibly make.

By ſtating the commerce of Kentucky in its proper terms, we find the expenſes ſuch, that we conclude with propriety, that that country will ultimately be ſupplied with goods as cheap as if ſituated but forty miles from Philadelphia.

But perhaps it will be replied, New-Orleans is in the poſſeſſion of the Spaniards, who, whenever they pleaſe, may make uſe of that fort, and ſome others they have on the Miſſiſſippi, to prevent the navigation and ruin the trade. The paſſage through Iberville is alſo ſubject to the Spaniards, and, beſides, inconvenient ; that ſtream continuing ſo ſhort a time, and in the moſt diſadvantageous ſeaſon.

It will certainly be abſurd to expect a free navigation of the Miſſiſſippi, whilſt the Spaniards are in poſſeſſion of New-Orleans; to ſuppoſe it, is an idea calculated to impoſe only upon the weak. They may perhaps trade with the Americans upon their own terms, while they think it conſiſtent with their intereſt, but no friendſhip in trade exiſts when intereſt expires ; therefore, when the weſtern country becomes populous and ripe for trade, ſound policy tells us, the Floridas muſt belong to the Americans. According to the article of the definitive treaty, they are to have a free and unmoleſted navigation of the Miſſiſſippi; *but experience teaches mankind that treaties are not always to be depended upon*, the moſt ſolemn being broken.* Hence we learn, not to put much faith in treaties with any of the old governments of Europe.

Although the Iberville only admits of a ſhort and inconvenient navigation, yet if a commercial town were built there, it would be the center of the weſtern trade : and a land carriage of ten or twelve miles would be counted no diſadvantage to the merchant. Nay, in time, a canal may be broke through the gut of Iberville, which may divert the water of the Miſſiſſippi that way, and ren-

* Article 8th of the late diſinitive treaty, ſays, The navigation of the Miſſiſſippi river, from its ſource to the ocean, ſhall forever remain free and open to the ſubjects of Great-Britain and the citizens of the United States.

der it a place of the greateſt conſequence in America; but this important period is reſerved for futurity. The trade of Kentucky is already improving; we have mentioned that tobacco has been exported to France and Spain in great quantities through New-Orleans. They have alſo erected a paper mill, an oil mill, fulling mills, ſaw mills, and a great number of valuable griſt mills. Their ſalt works are more than ſufficient to ſupply all their inhabitants, at a low price. They make conſiderable quantities of ſugar from the ſugar trees. They have a printing office, and publiſh a Weekly Gazette. Labourers, particularly tradeſmen are exceedingly wanted here.

LITERATURE.

The legiſlature of Virginia, while Kentucky made a part of that State, made proviſion for a college in it, and endowed it with very conſiderable landed funds; and a library for its uſe was forwarded thither by the Rev. Mr. John Todd of Virginia, *(after obtaining the conſent of the Rev. Dr. Gordon)* while an inhabitant of the Maſſachuſetts State. This library was moſtly formed in the following manner: An epiſtolary acquaintance having commenced between Mr. Todd and Dr. Gordon, through the influence of their common friend, the Rev. Mr. Samuel Davis, long ſince deceaſed; a letter was received about the end of 1764, or beginning of 1765, from Mr. Todd, in which he expreſſed a deſire of obtaining a library and ſome philoſophical apparatus, to improve the education of ſome young perſons, who were deſigned for the miniſtry. Dr. Gordon being then ſettled at London, upon application obtained a few annual ſubſcriptions, with ſeveral donations of money, and of books, which were not cloſed till after March 1769. During that period he received in caſh, including his own ſubſcription, eighty pounds two ſhillings and ſix-pence. The late worthy John Thornton, Eſq. contributed fifty pounds of it, by the hand of the Rev. Mr. (afterwards Dr.) Wilſon, who alſo gave in books ten pounds. Among the contributors ſtill living, beſide Dr. Gordon himſelf, are the Rev. Mr. Towle, Meſſrs. Fuller, Samuel, and Thomas Statton, Charles Jerdein, David Jennings, Jonathan Eade, Joſeph Ainſley, and John Field of Thames ſtreet.

Of the money collected, twenty-eight pounds ten ſhillings was paid to the late Mr. Ribright, for an air pump, microſcope,

teleſcope, and priſms, thorough good, but not new. Caſes, ſhipping, freight, inſurance, &c. at four different periods, came to eight pounds eleven ſhillings and ſix-pence. The forty-three pounds one ſhilling was laid out to the beſt advantage in purchaſing a variety of books, which, with thoſe that were given, are ſuppoſed to make the main part of the Lexington library.* Schools are eſtabliſhed in the ſeveral towns, and in general regularly and handſomely ſupported.

RIGHTS OF LAND.

The proprietors of the Kentucky lands obtained their patents from Virginia, and their rights are of three kinds, viz. Thoſe which ariſe from military ſervice, from ſettlement and pre-emption, or from warrants from the treaſury. The military rights are held by officers, or their repreſentives, as a reward for ſervices done in one of the two laſt wars. The ſettlement and pre-emption rights ariſe from occupancy. Every man who, before March 1780, had remained in the country one year, or raiſed a crop of corn, was allowed to have a ſettlement of four hundred acres, and a pre-emption adjoining it of one thouſand acres. Every man who had only built a cabin, or made any improvement by himſelf or others, was entitled to a pre-emption of one thouſand acres, where ſuch improvement was made.

In March, 1780 the ſettlement and pre-emption rights ceaſed, and treaſury warrants were afterwards iſſued, authoriſing their poſſeſſor to locate the quantity of land mentioned in them, wherever it could be found vacant in Virginia.

The mode of procedure in theſe affairs may be inſtructive to the reader. After the entry is made in the land-office, there being one in each county, the perſon making the entry takes out a copy of the location, and proceeds to ſurvey when he pleaſes. The plot and certificate of ſuch ſurvey muſt be returned to the office within three months after the ſurvey is made, there to be recorded; and a copy of the record muſt be taken out in twelve months, after the return of the ſurvey, and produced to the aſſiſtant regiſter of the land-office in Kentucky, where it muſt lie ſix months, that prior locators may have time and opportunity to enter a caveat, and prove their better right. If no caveat

* As this account of the library is eſſentially different from that given by Mr. Morſe, and every other writer we have met with, the editor thinks it right to inform the public, that he inſerts the above at the deſire of the Rev. Dr. Gordon himſelf.

is entered in that time, the plot and certificate are ſent to the land-office and three months more are allowed to have the patent returned to the owner.

CONSTITUTION.

By the conſtitution of this State, formed and adopted in 1792, the powers of government are divided into three diſtinct departments; legiſlative, executive, and judiciary. The legiſlative power is veſted in a General Aſſembly, conſiſting of a Senate and Houſe of Repreſentatives; the ſupreme executive in a governor; the judiciary, in the ſupreme court of appeals, and ſuch inferior courts as the legiſlature may eſtabliſh. The repreſentatives are choſen annually by the people; the ſenators and governor are choſen for four years, by electors appointed for that purpoſe; the judges are appointed during good behaviour, by the governor, with advice of the Senate. An enumeration of the free male inhabitants, above twenty-one years old, is to be made once in four years. After each enumeration, the number of ſenators and repreſentatives is to be fixed by the legiſlature, and apportioned among the ſeveral counties according to the number of inhabitants. There can never be fewer than forty, nor more than one hundred repreſentatives. The Senate at firſt conſiſted of eleven members; and for the addition of every four repreſentatives, one ſenator is to be added. The repreſentatives muſt be twenty-four years old; the ſenators twenty-ſeven; the governor thirty; and all of them muſt have been inhabitants of the State two years. The governor can hold no other office. The members of the General Aſſembly, none but thoſe of attorney at law, juſtice of the peace, coroner, and in the militia. The judges, and all other officers, muſt be inhabitants of the counties for which they are appointed. The governor, members of the General Aſſembly, and judges, receive ſtated ſalaries out of the public treaſury, from which no money can be drawn, but in conſequence of appropriation by law. All officers take an oath of fidelity to diſcharge the duties of their offices, and are liable to impeachment for miſconduct. Elective officers muſt ſwear that they have not uſed bribery in obtaining their elections. All free male citizens, twenty-one years old, having reſided in the State two years, or in the county where they offer to vote, one year, have a right to vote for repreſentatives, and for electors of ſenators and governor, and are privileged from arreſt, in civil actions, while attending that buſineſs. The General Aſſembly meets on the firſt Monday in November each year, unleſs ſooner convened by the governor. Each Houſe chooſes

its ſpeaker and other officers, judges of the qualification of it members, and determines the rules of its proceedings, of which a journal is kept and publiſhed weekly, unleſs ſecrecy be requiſite. The doors of both Houſes are kept open. The members of the legiſlature, while attending the public buſineſs, are privileged from arreſts in civil actions, and may not be queſtioned elſewhere for any thing ſaid in public debate. Impeachments are made by the lower houſe, and tried by the upper. All revenue bills originate in the Houſe of Repreſentatives, and are amendable by the Senate, like other bills. Each bill paſſed by both Houſes is preſented to the governor, who muſt ſign it if he approve it; if not, he muſt return it within ten days to the houſe in which it originated, if it be not returned, or if, when returned, it be re-paſſed by two thirds of both Houſes, it is a law without his ſignature. The governor has power to appoint moſt of the executive officers of the State; to remit fines and forfeitures, and grant reprieves and pardons, except in caſes of impeachment: to require information from executive officers; to convene the General Aſſembly on extraordinary occaſions, and adjourn them in caſe they cannot agree on the time themſelves. He muſt inform the legiſlature of the ſtate of the Commonwealth; recommend to them ſuch meaſures as he ſhall judge expedient; and ſee that the laws are faithfully executed. The ſpeaker of the Senate exerciſes the office of governor in caſe of vacancy. The legiſlature has power to forbid the farther importation of ſlaves, but not to emancipate thoſe already in the State without the conſent of the owner, or paying an equivalent. Treaſon againſt the Commonwealth conſiſts only in levying war againſt it, or in adhering to its enemies, giving them aid and comfort.

The declaration of rights aſſerts the civil equality of all; their right to alter the government at any time; liberty of conſcience; freedom of elections, and of the preſs: trial by jury; the ſubordination of the military to the civil power; the rights of criminals to be heard in their own defence; the right of the people to petition for the redreſs of grievances, to bear arms, and to emigrate from the State. It prohibits unreaſonable ſearches and ſeizures; exceſſive bail confinement of debtors, unleſs there be preſumption of fraud; ſuſpenſion of habeas corpus writ, unleſs in rebellion or invaſion; ex poſt facto laws; attainder by the legiſlature; ſtanding armies; titles of nobility and hereditary diſtinction.

In addition to what we have already ſaid of this State, we ſubjoin the following topographical deſcription of the weſtern

territory, extracted from the letters of Mr. G. Imlay, whose long reſidence in the country furniſhed him with the moſt ample means of arriving at a perfect knowledge of thoſe ſubjects on which he wrote.

"In caſting your eyes over the map of America, you will diſcover that its weſtern (or middle) country is divided from the Atlantic country by a chain of mountains which riſe in the remote parts of the States of New-York and New-Jerſey, and run a ſouth-weſterly courſe, until they are loſt in the flat lands of Weſt-Florida. The weſtern country is thoſe parts which are watered by the ſtreams running into the Miſſiſſippi.

"It is about fifty miles over the Allegany mountains, croſſing the route which General Braddock took from fort Cumberland near the Potomack, at the deſcent into the country of Red-ſtone, on the Monongahela, the ſouthern branch of the Ohio. This river riſes in the ſame mountain, conſiderably to the ſouthward, runs nearly parallel with it, the oppoſite way, upwards of one hundred miles, and is navigable for boats nearly to its ſource; the whole of this country beyond the mountain is extremely fertile, well watered, and abounding with all kinds of timber calculated for building houſes, boats, cabinet work, &c. &c. The ſugar maple tree is intermixed in great quantities. From the foot of the mountain it is about fourteen miles to Red-ſtone Old Fort, which is on the banks of the Monongahela, and the uſual place of embarkation of people coming down the Ohio, who travel Braddock's road: from thence to Pittſburgh is about fifty miles by water. Large tracts of flat land lay all along upon the banks of this river, from the Old Fort to Pittſburgh, which are capable of being made into extenſive and luxuriate meadow ground.

"This country is populous, it being the oldeſt ſettlement, and made immediately after taking Fort du Queſne. The Yohogania empties itſelf into the Monongahela, about ſixteen miles above its junction with the Allegany river: the country on this river is more uneven, but in the vallies the ſoil is extremely rich. Near to Pittſburgh the country is well peopled, and there, as well as in Red-ſtone, all the comforts of life are in the greateſt abundance. Flour is manufactured in as good a ſtyle as in any part of America; and butter, cheeſe, bacon, and every kind of proviſions can be had in the greateſt quantity. This whole country abounds in coal, which lies almoſt upon the ſurface of the ground; the hills oppoſite Pittſburgh upon the banks of the Monongahela, which are at leaſt three hundred feet high, appear to be one ſolid body of this mineral.

"This muſt become in time the moſt valuable grazing country in all America from the fertility of its ſoil, its capability of being formed into extenſive meadows, and its proximity to the mountains which attract the clouds, and produce that moiſture ſo neneceſſary to graſs;—beſides which, its ſituation is about three hundred miles from Philadelphia, about two hundred and forty from Baltimore, and about two hundred and twenty from the federal city on the Potomack, a diſtance which is too great to carry by land the bulky articles of huſbandry; but to which cattle may be driven with the greateſt eaſe.

"This country has derived no inconſiderable advantage from the ſettlement of Kentucky, and the other ſettlements that are making on the Ohio and Miſſiſſippi, the great road of migrating from the northern States lying through it; and, indeed, it is moſt convenient, both from Maryland and Virginia, at all ſeaſons of the year, provided that there be any thing bulky to carry, the paſſage being for the greateſt part by water, and the Potomack navigable, a few places excepted, to fort Cumberland; all of which obſtructions will be removed in a few years by canals that are cutting. From fort Cumberland it is about ſixty miles land carriage to Red-ſtone Old Fort; but ſo friendly has nature been to this country, though it is without ſeas, yet the rivers run in ſuch directions, that there is ſcarce any place in all the back parts of America where art may not reduce the land carriage to a very ſmall diſtance. I cannot ſpeak upon ſo general a ſubject definitively; but I mean to be underſtood within fifteen leagues. It it aſſerted from the beſt authorities, that the land carriage between the Potomack and Ohio may be reduced to leſs than twenty miles.

"Such is the progreſſion of things in this country, while there was apparently no market for its ſuperfluous productions, that every article has ſold extremely well, in conſequence of the number of emigrants who have been continually paſſing down the Ohio.

"Down from Pittſburgh the country is flat on the banks of the river; but a little diſtance from them it is conſiderably broken, particularly on the north-weſtern ſide. Much good land, however, is interſperſed on the ſouth ſide as far as the approach to the Little Kanhawa, where the nature of the ſoil ſeems reverſed, and the good land is then found on the weſtern ſide upon the Muſkingum. There are ſome ſtrips of rich land upon the Little Kanhawa; but farther up the river, the country is broken and ſterile, producing ſcarce any other timber than the fir-tree, or pine and knotty black oaks, which are generally deemed ſymptoms of a bad ſoil. This tract of bad land extends quite into the

mountains in a ſouthern direction, and runs ſouth-weſterly as far as Great Sandy river, with little or no variation, except on the bottoms of the Great Kanhawa, which are extenſive and rich. The bottoms on the Ohio are every where extenſive and luxuriant. On the weſtern ſide of the river, the country beyond the rich vein of land on the Muſkingum is only tolerable, on this ſide of the head waters of the Scioto, which are ſucceeded by as fine a body of land as the imagination can paint. This extends conſiderably nearer to the Ohio, and running weſtward quite to the Miami, now approximates its banks, and diſplays in its verdure and variety of majeſtic foreſts, all that beauty and richneſs which have been ſo much celebrated by travellers who have paſſed through them. The country on the eaſtern, except on the banks of the rivers, is indifferent. There is a body of good land on Great Sandy; but leaving that in a ſouth-weſterly courſe, high, rugged, and broken hills ariſe, which will hardly ever be capable of cultivation: theſe hills extend between thirty and forty miles, and open into the fine lands of Kentucky.

"The eaſt ſide of the Ohio, for about ten or twenty miles below Whealing, which is about one hundred below Pittſburgh, is generally well ſettled. There are few ſettlements on the oppoſite ſhore until you come into the Muſkingum, and the country now wears the face of a wilderneſs on both ſides of the river, there being no habitations worth notice, except at the mouth of Great Kanhawa, until we arrive at Lime-ſtone.

"Every thing here aſſumes a dignity and ſplendor I have never ſeen in any other part of the world. You aſcend a conſiderable diſtance from the ſhore of the Ohio, and when you would ſuppoſe you had arrived at the ſummit of a mountain, you find yourſelf upon an extenſive level. Here an eternal verdure reigns, and the brilliant ſun of latitude 39°, piercing through the azure heavens, produces in this prolific ſoil an early maturity, which is truly aſtoniſhing. Flowers full and perfect as if they had been cultivated by the hand of a floriſt, with all their captivating odours, and with all the variegated charms that colour and nature can produce, here, in the lap of elegance and beauty, decorate the ſmiling groves. Soft zephyrs gently breathe on ſweets, and the inhaled air gives a voluptuous glow of health and vigour that ſeems to raviſh the intoxicated ſenſes. The ſweet ſongſters of the foreſts appear to feel the influence of this genial clime, and in more ſoft and modulated tones warble their tender notes in uniſon with love and nature. Every thing here gives delight; and in that mild effulgence which beams around us, we feel a glow of grati-

tude for that elevation our all bountiful Creator has beſtowed upon us. Far from being diſguſted with man for his turpitude or depravity, we feel that dignity nature beſtowed upon him at the creation, but which has been contaminated by the baſe alloy of meanneſs, the concomitant of European education; and what is more lamentable, is, that it is the conſequence of her very laws and governments.

"From Lime-ſtone to Licking creek the country is immenſely rich, and covered with cane, rye graſs, and the native clover. The cane is a reed that grows to the height frequently of fifteen or ſixteen feet, but more generally about ten or twelve feet, and is in thickneſs from the ſize of a gooſe quill to that of two inches diameter; ſometimes, yet ſeldom, it is larger: when it is ſlender it never grows higher than from four to ſeven feet; it ſhoots up in one ſummer, but produces no leaves until the following year. It is an evergreen, and is, perhaps, the moſt nouriſhing food for cattle upon earth. No other milk or butter has ſuch flavour and richneſs as that which is produced from cows which feed upon cane. Horſes which feed upon it work nearly as well as if they were fed upon corn, provided care is taken to give them once in three or four days a handful of ſalt, otherwiſe this food is liable to heat, and bind their bowels. The rye graſs, when it arrives to maturity, is from two feet and a half high, to three and a half, and the head and beard reſemble the real rye, and ſometimes produce a ſmall grain, long and ſlender, not unlike rye. Whether cultivation would bring it to the ſame perfection, I can form no idea; it is, however, certain, that it is a very good and valuable graſs. The clover is in no reſpect different from the clover in Europe, but as it is more coarſe and luxuriant. There is a variety of other kinds of graſs, which are found in different places; but I have only mentioned the two former, they being eſteemed the moſt valuable.

"In order to travel into the interior parts of the State, the route lies acroſs the branches of Licking creek. There are ſeveral of them which take their riſe in the high hills of Great Sandy, and the ſpurs of the Allegany mountain; they traverſe a moſt delightful country, and form a junction a ſmall diſtance below the Lower Blue lick.*

The country from the lick to the Ohio is conſiderably broken, but generally rich, and continues uneven, except on the banks of the

* There are two ſalt ſprings upon Licking, both of which are now worked with ſucceſs.

river quite to the mouth of the Kentucky, which is about one hundred and ten miles below the mouth of Licking creek, by water, and seventy above the rapids of the Ohio. Between the mouths of Licking and Kentucky lies the Great-bone lick, which is justly celebrated for the remarkable bones which are found there, and which gave name to the place.

"After passing the Blue lick, the soil, if possible, increases in richness. From thence to Danville is about fifty miles. Lexington lies about midway, and is nearly central of the finest and most luxuriant country, perhaps, on earth. From Lexington to Leesburgh is about twenty miles; to Boonsborough it is about twenty; the Upper Blue lick nearly thirty. This square, which is nearly fifty miles, comprehends entirely what is called first rate land. Leesburgh lies on the Kentucky, about twenty miles from its mouth by land, and nearly forty by water. The country between that and the Ohio is broken, but rich, though it is not deemed a valuable body of land. The Kentucky is bounded every where by high rocky precipices, that are generally two hundred feet and upwards perpendicular, and which make its passes difficult. Few places on it have any bottom land, as the rock rises mostly contigious to the bed of the river; which confinement, after heavy rains, renders it very formidable from the impetuosity of its current. On ascending the banks of this river, the land on either side is equally good for some distance above Boonsborough; but adjacent to the mountains from whence the river rises, the country becomes broken, sterile, and of little or no value. Boonsborough lies on the Kentucky, about sixty miles above its mouth by land, and about one hundred and thirty by water. From Leesburgh down the river on the south side, for about ten or twelve miles, the hills are considerably high and steep; but when you pass the waters of Drinnon's Lick creek, you fall into a body of good champaign land, which extends, with little variation, to the rapids of the Ohio. From Leesburgh to Danville, the country for the first twenty miles is of an inferior rate of land for this country; but farther on, you get into the rich country I have mentioned, comprehended within the square of fifty miles.

"Large bodies of good land lie on every side of Danville for twenty miles and upwards; but in the course from thence to the rapids of the Ohio, on the waters of Salt river, which takes its name from a salt spring called Bullit's lick that is on its banks, about twenty miles from the mouth of the river, the country is in some places broken into ridges of hills, which are in general good land, but not well watered. As you approach the rapids it becomes more level, better watered, and the soil more fertile,

The country of Beargraſs is beautiful and rich; as, indeed, is the land on Gooſe and Harrod's creeks. In the fork of the Ohio and Salt river, which forms a junction about twenty miles below the rapids, the country is flat, and interſperſed with ſmall lakes or ponds, occaſioned by the extreme lowneſs of the banks of the Ohio in this fork, which, when flooded, overflows the country, and the water fills theſe ponds periodically, or as often as thoſe inundations happen, and which are frequent from December until April.

"The rapids of the Ohio lie about ſeven hundred miles below Pittſburgh, and about four hundred above its confluence with the Miſſiſſippi. They are occaſioned by a ledge of rocks that ſtretch acroſs the bed of the river from one ſide to the other, in ſome places projecting ſo much, that they are viſible when the water is not high, and in moſt places when the river is extremely low. The fall is not more than between four and five feet in the diſtance of a mile; ſo that boats of any burthen may paſs with ſafety when there is a flood; but boats coming up the river muſt unload, which inconvenience may very eaſily be removed by cutting a canal from the mouth of Beargraſs, the upper ſide of the rapids, to below the lower reef of rocks, which is not quite two miles, and the country a gentle declivity the whole way.

"The ſituation of the rapids is truly delightful. The river is full a mile wide, and the fall of water, which is an eternal caſcade, appears as if nature had deſigned it to ſhew how inimitable and ſtupendous are her works. Its breadth contributes to its ſublimity, and the continually rumbling noiſe tends to exhilarate the ſpirits, and gives a cheerfulneſs even to ſluggards. The view up the river is terminated at the diſtance of four leagues, by an iſland in its center, which is contraſted by the plain on the oppoſite ſhore, that extends a long way into the country: but the eye receding, finds new beauties, and ample ſubjects for admiration in the riſing hills of Silver creek, which ſtretching obliquely to the north-weſt, proudly riſe higher and higher as they extend, until their illumined ſummits imperceptibly vaniſh. Clarkville, on the oppoſite ſhore, completes the proſpect, and from its neighbourhood, and from the ſettlement forming upon the officers land, a few years muſt afford a cultivated country, to blend appropriate beauty with the charms of the imagination. There lies a ſmall iſland in the river, about two hundred yards from the eaſtern ſhore; between which and the main is a quarry of excellent ſtone for building, and in great part is dry the latter part of ſummer. The banks of the river are never overflowed

here, they being fifty feet higher than the bed of the river. There is no doubt but it will ſoon become a flouriſhing town; there are already upwards of two hundred good houſes built. This town is called Louiſville.

"In leaving the rapids in a ſouth-weſterly direction, the country is flat, it bordering upon the country I have deſcribed in the fork of the Ohio and Salt rivers. After paſſing the main branch of the Salt river near Bullit's Lick, ten miles diſtant, in the fork of the north and ſouth branches, the country becomes broken and hilly, but between which and the Cumberland road, that leads from the upper parts of Kentucky, there is a conſiderable extent of fine land; but travelling a few leagues farther ſouthward, you arrive at extenſive plains, that extend upwards of one hundred and fifty miles in a ſouth-weſt courſe, and end only when they join the mountainous country. Some few clumps of trees, and a grove here and there, are the only obſtructions to a boundleſs horizon. It is pleaſant to behold the deer bounding over the ſcraggy ſhrubs which cover the earth. While the ſetting ſun gilds thoſe extenſive plains, the mild breezes of a ſummer's eve, playing upon the enraptured ſenſes, ſoftens the heart to love and friendſhip. Unperceived, upon ſome eminence, you may enjoy the ſports of wild animals, which here rove unconcerned lords of the field. Heavens! what charms are there in liberty! Man born to enſlave the ſubordinate animals, has long ſince enſlaved himſelf. But reaſon at length, in radiant ſmiles, and with graceful pride, illumines both hemiſphers; and FREEDOM, in golden plumes, and in her triumphal car, muſt now reſume her long loſt empire.

"We have now arrived upon the waters of Green river; at the mouth of which, and between that and the Ohio, lies Henderſon's grant of twelve miles ſquare. The plains extend beyond the head waters of this river quite into the limits of North-Carolina; but at the mouth, and for forty miles above, there is a large proportion of good land, particularly upon Panther creek. From the mouth of Green river up the Ohio to Salt river, the land upon the banks of the Ohio is generally fertile and rich: but leaving its banks you ſoon fall into the plain country, which is conſidered as little better than barren land; however, it is moſt likely that it will prove excellent for ſheep to feed upon, the climate being nearly the ſame as that of Spain, where the fineſt wool in Europe is produced. And though the land is not reckoned valuable in this country, on account of its comparative ſterility, yet it is of a ſuperior quality to great part of the ſoil in the lower parts of Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia. It

abounds with hazel, which, it is well known, never grows kindly in a poor ſoil.

"The native ſtrawberry is found in theſe plains in the greateſt abundance, as are likewiſe plums of different ſorts; and, if we can form any idea of the native grape that grows ſpontaneouſly here, and what the ſame ſoil is capable of producing when they are cultivated, it would appear that no climate or ſoil in the world is more congenial to the vine, for I have never taſted more delicious grapes; and it is the opinion of ſome judicious foreigners, who have viſited theſe genial regions, that as good wine as can be made in any part of the globe, might be produced from the native grape properly cultivated. There is nothing more common than to meet with a pleaſant wine made here by the ſettlers, who know nothing of the uſe of vats, or the degree of fermentation neceſſary to the perfection of the art of wine-making. But I flatter myſelf ſome progreſs will be made in this buſineſs, as ſeveral foreigners have long had it in agitation to undertake it.

"The country between Green and Cumberland rivers is generally rich, and finely watered. There is in it a moſt valuable lead mine, and ſeveral ſalt ſprings; and between Green and Salt rivers there are two of a bitumen, which, when analyzed, is found to be amber. But, ſo much do we ſtand in need of chymiſts, and mineraliſts, that we remain ignorant of the properties and value of many foſſils which have been diſcovered; and many continue unknown, I apprehend, from the want of curioſity of men, whoſe only object ſeems to be cultivation, and the ſcience of government. Perhaps theſe are the moſt eſſential to the happineſs of mankind in the wild ſtate which this country is in. Arts appear to follow population. Neceſſity has been the mother of invention, it is true; but from the attainment of that perfection to which we have arrived in arts and philoſophy, wiſdom and ſcience muſt go forward; and it is phyſically impoſſible for man again to degenerate to barbariſm.

"When the greateſt merit conſiſts in the exerciſe of the moſt uſeful and appropriate talents, I think it is likely that the ingenuity of men will feel a more lively ſtimulus to the exerciſe of invention from the love of fame, the love of mankind, and regard to their own dignity, than it ever yet experienced from neceſſity. While odious diſtinctions exiſt, and men are rewarded in proportion to their ſervility, human nature muſt be robbed of half its manlineſs, and conſequently men will be ſlothful. How many drones do we obſerve in every part of Europe, who feed upon the induſtry of the neceſſitous, or who work only as it is

neceſſary to their exiſtence! Such have been the effects of the factitious duties of man in that hemiſphere, that every thing has become perverted; and governments, inſtead of ſecuring happineſs to men, have only tended to aggrandize individuals, and thus has flowed in that debaſement of character which has marked half the inhabitants of Europe with little more dignity than the monſters of the foreſt.

"Cumberland river riſes among the mountains, conſiderably to the north-eaſt, and, after its ſeveral branches have joined it, runs a long way ſouth, and enters the limits of North-Carolina. After a courſe of half a degree within thoſe limits, it turns to the north-weſt, and empties itſelf into the Ohio, at ſome diſtance above its junction with the Miſſiſſippi. The Tenneſſee runs into the Ohio, not a long way below the mouth of Cumberland. The Tenneſſee is the moſt important of the ſouthern branches of the Ohio. Its northern fork, called Holſton, riſes in the country of the ſame name, and, after paſſing through Nolachucky, is joined by the main or ſouth branch. This branch riſes in the remote parts of the State of Georgia, and, after traverſing the borders of the Cherokee country, is joined by the Holſton branch, when it is called the Tenneſſee, from thence it runs ſouth-weſterly, quite through the limits of North-Carolina, and approaches the head waters of the Mobile, which empties itſelf into the gulf of Mexico. In its courſe, it is very rapid thus far: from the material declivity of the high country, which from mountains gradually ſink into a flat, there is a number of falls, but none of them conſiderable. It now turns again to the northward, and from its lazy motion it is obvious that there is very little fall of water from this to the Ohio. This turn conſtitutes what is called the Great Bend of the Tenneſſee, or Muſcle Shoal from the number of ſhoals in this part of the river that are covered with theſe ſhell-fiſh. The river is here from two, to three and a half miles wide. Its importance will conſiſt in its being the moſt convenient inlet from the upper parts of Virginia and the Carolinas to the Miſſiſſippi, it being navigable for boats of forty tons burthen from Holſton, the falls excepted, where carrying places will anſwer until there are canals made, which can be done with very little expence.

Holſton is a narrow ſtrip of country, ſurrounded on every ſide by mountains; but there is a paſſage which winds through them ſo as to admit of a paſſage this way, and down the river, without any difficulty of bad roads whatever. Should you continue your route by land in the road to Kentucky, you would have ſeveral mountains to paſs, and at leaſt two hundred miles of bad road.

After you leave the plains which extend into the Cumberland country, in your courſe to the Tenneſſe, the country is ſomewhat broken, but moſtly rich. Great part of the land lying between theſe rivers, and the Ohio and between Cumberland and Green rivers, was in military grants, made by Virginia to their officers and ſoldiers, and is eſteemed a valuable ſituation for its proximity to the junction of the Ohio and Miſſiſſippi. Their grants extend as low on the Miſſiſſippi as the partition line between Virginia and North-Carolina; all of which is a beautiful country: and the banks of the river, which are very high, prevent it from overflowing, which is not the caſe a great way lower down.

The land in the Great Bend of the Tenneſſee is very fine; but when you approach the country of the Chickeſaws, it becomes broken, light, and ſandy: and, as you extend to the ſouthward, I have been informed the ſoil grows ſtill lighter, and, except a large body of good land on the Miſſiſſippi, and the bottoms of the ſeveral ſtreams that run into the Gulf and the Miſſiſſippi, it is little better than Weſt Florida, which has been celebrated in Europe for its fertility; but ſo fine a country have I been endeavouring to deſcribe to you, that judging by compariſon, the people in Kentucky and Cumberland look upon that as an indifferent ſoil.

"In ten years more, perhaps, a ſettlement will be formed ſufficiently populous to become a federal ſtate in the country into which I am now going to advance; the limits of which, from the confluence on the Miſſiſſippi and Ohio to Detroit, is between five and ſix hundred miles; and taking the medium diſtance between Pittſburg and the mouth of the Ohio, acroſs to the Miſſiſſippi from the Ohio, is very little leſs. The inhabitants of this immenſe diſtrict do not, including French, amount to five thouſand. The country in this fork (if I may ſo call it) is various. Immediately in the fork the land is flat, and liable to overflow; but as you advance on either river the banks riſe, and the country expanding, diſplays a luxuriant ſoil for a long diſtance above the Wabaſh on the Ohio ſide, and quite to the Illinois on the Miſſiſſippi ſide, which is about two hundred and thirty miles above its junction with the Ohio, and twenty above the mouth of Miſſouri. This country lies nearly in the ſame parallel of latitude of Kentucky. From the mouth of the Wabaſh, the bottoms on the Ohio are extenſive and extremely fertile, as is the country from thence to Poſt St. Vincent; but towards the rapids of the Ohio, beyond the bottoms of this river, the country is conſiderably broken, and the ſoil in ſome places light and indifferent. After leaving Poſt St. Vincent, in the route to the Illinois coun-

try, you ſoon fall into thoſe extenſive plains which have been deſcribed in ſuch glowing colours by Hutchins. This is certainly a beautiful country, and the immenſe number of deer, elk, and buffalo, which are ſeen grazing in thoſe natural meadows, render them highly enchanting. The air in this climate is pure, and the almoſt continual unclouded ſky tends, not a little to charm the ſenſes, and to render even wildneſs delightful. The country between Poſt St. Vincent and Kaſkaſkias is flat and plain, with little variation. As you aſcend the Illinois river, the ſoil grows more fertile, and on either ſide you find immenſe foreſts.

"Detroit lies between lat. 42° and 43° upon the ſtraights which communicate between lake St. Clair and lake Erie, conſiderably to the weſtward of Pittſburgh. The country lying between them is not remarkable for any thing but being a wilderneſs. The ſoil and climate are ſuch as would entitle it to the reputation of a fine country in any part of Europe, except in winter, when the froſt is extremely ſevere, but leſs intenſe than that of Canada. Quebec lies nearly in the ſame latitude as Paris, and from the deſcription which the Emperor Julian has given of the winters he quartered there, during his command in Gaul, there ſeems to be little difference between the winters of France at that period, in reſpect to cold, and the preſent winters of Canada. Perhaps the extent of continent lying to the north-weſt, and the immenſe lakes of freſh water which cover it, will not admit of the climate of that part of America being ſo rapidly meliorated, as the climate of Europe has been by cultivation. However, it is certain, that as the country has been more opened in America, and thereby the rays of the ſun have acted more powerfully upon the earth, theſe benefits have tended greatly already to ſoften the winter ſeaſon: ſo that peopling Canada, for which we are much obliged to *you*, is a double advantage to *us*. Firſt, it is ſettling and populating a country, that muſt, ſooner or later, from the natural order of things, become part of our empire, and immediately meliorating the climate of the Northern States. But to return to Detroit. Our courſe from thence to the head waters of the Miami is ſouth-weſterly. The country for ſome diſtance is flat, and the ſoil heavy and damp; but, upon the waters of thoſe rivers it is beautiful, and abounds in the gifts of nature.

"The communication between lake Erie and the Ohio by water this way, will be up the ſouthern branches of the lake, and by ſhort paſſages you arrive upon the waters of the Great Miami, Scioto and Muſkingum, which are navigable when flooded. It muſt be obſerved, that the rivers I have been mentioning are not

navigable, throughout the year, for boats of above ten or fifteen tons. Great part of the country between this and the Wabash is champaign; but in travelling towards the rapids of the Ohio you pass considerable plains, and then fall into a broken and hilly tract of poor land, that continues with little variation until you approach the rapids, when all the variety and charms which this river produces, present themselves again. From Detroit to the rapids is nearly four hundred miles.

"The rapid population of the western country has not only astonished America itself, but it must amaze Europe, when they enter into the views and increase of this growing empire. The first settlement on the western waters by the English was in 1760, and under the influence of almost continual Indian wars, that settlement (I am now speaking of the upper settlement on the Ohio) now contains not less than an hundred thousand souls. The State of Kentucky did not make a permanent settlement before 1780, which now contains not less than an hundred thousand. The Cumberland settlement began about this time, but it was at least three years afterwards before there was security given to that settlement, and there are settled about fifty thousand souls more. Besides the settlement in the great bend of the Tennessee, which will join them in their separation from North-Carolina, the settlement of Nola Chucka and French-broad, made on the branches of the Tennessee in the years 1782, 1783, 1784, and 1785, contain between thirty and forty thousand souls; several other settlements are forming at the Iron banks on the Mississippi, besides those upon the western side of the Ohio, which, including the inhabitants at Post St. Vincent and the Kaskaskias (I judge from the best information) do not fall short of fifty thousand. I have not mentioned the number in the settlement of the great bend of the Tenessee, as I have not been able to collect any satisfactory information respecting them; but I suppose the aggregate number of souls in the western country is very little, if at all, short of four hundred thousand, including the settlements of Holston, Clinch river and Powel's valley, which, taken together, may amount to seventy thousand souls, and which are properly on the western waters.

"The settlements on the western side of the Ohio, have been greatly harrassed and retarded by the Indian war, which has continued with little variation since 1785; but the vigorous measures which their depredations have obliged Congress to adopt, must end with a permanent peace, or in a few years their provocations will lead to the extirpation of the whole of the Miami and Illinois tribes. Their prowess and determined resolution

will, no doubt, conſiderably annoy our army, which, having been moſtly recruited from the Atlantic country, are not acquainted with ſuch dexterity and courage, or indeed habituated to their manner of fighting: but our numbers have grown too conſiderable; for defeats only invigorate our meaſures, while the loſs of every man, to nations whoſe population is ſo extremely tardy as that of the ſavages of America, is a lamentable conſideration.

"In the peopling this country new States will naturally ariſe, and thus, in contemplating the continent of America, we may form an adequate idea of what will be the magnitude of its federal empire. The upper ſettlement on the Ohio, though more populous than the ſettlement of Cumberland, is not likely to become a ſeparate State ſo ſoon. The greateſt part of it is within the limits of Pennſylvania, and not ſo remote from the capital of that State as the Cumberland ſettlement is from the capital of North-Carolina. The intercourſe is continual, and the productions of the country, or at leaſt their cattle may be driven to Philadephia, &c. as I have obſerved before; and their influence is not ſufficient to procure them an act of ſeparation, ſhould they deſire it. In the caſe of North-Carolina and Cumberland there is little or no communication between them, nor is it to be expected that it ever can be the intereſt of either to continue the connection; therefore it is moſt likely, that diſtrict will follow Kentucky in the links of the great federal chain.

"I muſt now proceed upon conjecture, as there are no definite limits preſcribed by the federal government for the lines of demarkation, which are to be the different boundaries or limits of new States that will ariſe. However, it is eaſy, by conſulting natural boundaries, to form a pretty juſt idea where will be their different diviſions. I have already remarked, that Kentucky and Cumberland are divided by a line in latitude $36\frac{1}{2}°$, which will be the boundary of Cumberland to the northward. The mountains will moſt likely be its eaſtern limits; its ſouthern limits will be, either the partition line continued between North-Carolina and Georgia, or it will run ſoutherly, until it ſtrikes that ridge of hills which divides the Tenneſſee country from the country of the Chacktaws; thence a due weſt courſe to the Miſſiſſippi, or following ſome one of thoſe branches which riſe in thoſe hills, and purſuing its courſe to that river. This will comprehend a diſtrict of country of nearly two hundred miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and nearly one hundred and fifty from north to ſouth. I cannot ſpeak here with accuracy, as it is that part of all the weſtern country which is leaſt known.

The country upon the head waters of the Tenneſſee, ſtands next in the liſt of advancement. This country includes the ſettlement of Holſton, the ſettlement of Clinch, and the ſettlements of Powel's valley, which are part in Virginia, and part in North-Carolina; beſides the ſettlements of Nola Chucka and French-broad. This laſt ſettlement will be extended to the borders of the Cherokee country, which will bind this State to the ſouthward. Its weſtern boundary will be Cumberland mountain, which will divide it from the States of Kentucky and Cumberland. Its northern limits will be the ridges of hills that divide the waters of the Tenneſſee and the Great Kanhawa, and its eaſtern boundary will be the high hills that divide the eaſtern from the weſtern waters in this part of America, which are called in Virginia the North mountains, and which continue their courſe through the Carolinas. This State will be in extent upwards of two hundred miles from north to ſouth, and the average width from eaſt to weſt nearly an hundred and fifty.

"This country has mountains on every ſide but the ſouth-weſt, and is interſperſed with high hills in moſt parts of it. The valleys are extremely fertile, and every where finely watered. The climate in the upper part of the country is not ſo temperate as that of Kentucky, though it lies in the ſame latitude, which is owing to the neighbouring mountains. Many parts of this diſtrict are well ſettled, and cultivation was brought to ſuch conſiderable perfection, that the inhabitants had it in contemplation to become independent ſeven years ſince, under the diſtinction of the State of Franklin. Its population is not only conſiderable, but its reſpectability in every conſideration will very ſoon intitle it to the rank of a diſtinct State: though it may require ſome time to effect a unity of ſentiments, and a conſolidation of its various and detached ſettlements into that order which the organs of government require.

"Before I leave this ſide of the Miſſiſſippi, I muſt beg leave to digreſs, and ſhew what will be the probable deſtination of the Indian nations, who live between the ſouthern limits of the country I have been mentioning, and the Floridas, and which may amount to thirteen thouſand, incluſive of men, women and children.

"The Cherokees are about two thouſand five hundred; the Creeks three thouſand five hundred; the Chacktaws are about ſix thouſand; and the different vagrant nations may amount to a thouſand more.

"The ſettlements making in the upper parts of Georgia, upon the fine lands of the Oconee and Okemulgee rivers, will

in a very few years bid defiance to them in that quarter. The Georgian troops have already defeated them, and forced them to be quiet. The ſettlement of French-broad, aided by Holſton, have nothing to fear from them; and the Cumberland is too puiſſant to apprehend any danger. The Spaniards are in poſſeſſion of the Floridas, how long they will remain ſo, muſt depend upon their moderation and good manners, and the ſettlements at the Natchez and above, which will ſoon extend to the ſouthern boundaries of Cumberland; ſo that they will be completely enveloped in a few years. Our people will continue to incroach upon them on three ſides, and compel them to live more domeſtic lives, and aſſimilate them to our mode of living, or croſs to the weſtern ſide of the Miſſiſſippi.

"The Genaſee country lies upon the waters that run into lake Ontario, and it is expected will be peopled as ſoon as the Six Nations of Indians are peaceable. This is a very rich and fertile tract of country, lying in the remote parts of New-York, bounded by Pennſylvania to the ſouth-eaſt, by the lakes to the north-weſt, and high hills and a wilderneſs from the Ohio country. I have hitherto omitted taking notice of it, as not properly belonging to the weſtern country; but as I am going to proceed to partition the country weſt of the Ohio into ſeparate States, I thought it moſt conſiſtent to keep up the chain of connection; and without mentioning this diſtrict, there would be a chaſm between New-York and the uppermoſt State upon the waters of the Ohio.

"Let us now return to the Ohio. That ridge of hills which divides the waters of this river from that of the lakes running ſouth-weſterly, until they run north-weſterly, and divide the ſources of the Wabaſh and Illinois rivers from the ſouthern branches of the lakes, will moſt likely mark the limits to the weſt, of the upper States upon the weſtern ſide of the Ohio. The ridge of hills which divides the waters of the Allegany river from thoſe of the Genaſee, will bound it to the north, the Allegany river and the Ohio to the eaſt, and the Muſkingum to the ſouth. The next State, I ſhould form between the Muſkingum and Scioto, the Ohio, and that ridge of hills between the ſources of theſe rivers and thoſe of lake Erie. The third between the Scioto, the Great Miami, the Ohio, and the ſame ridge of hills. The country lying between the Miami, Wabaſh, the Ohio, and the ſame hills, I would put into another State; and the country lying between the Wabaſh, Ohio, Miſſiſſippi, and Illinois rivers, I would eſtabliſh into a fifth State

"Between the mouth of the Illinois river and waters of lake Michegan, lies a diſtrict of country equally fertile with any part of the weſtern country; but in the progreſſion of our ſettlements, it will be ſome years before any ſettlement can be formed there, except in the fork of the Miſſiſſippi and Illinois, which may be erected into a State, by running a line from a point, latitude 42° 30″ upon the Miſſiſſippi, in ſuch a direction as to ſtrike the head branches of the Illinois. But it is moſt likely that the country on the Miſſiſſippi and Miſſouri will be ſettled before this diſtrict, though it is conſidered as the empire of Spain. However, I will not be ſo indecorous as to parcel out the territories of other nations; it is ſufficiently preſumptuous to have gone ſo far as I have.

"I have now marked out the imaginary boundaries of ſix new States, excluſive of thoſe on the eaſtern ſide of the Ohio, the Genaſee ſettlement, and without including the country between the northern limits of Kentucky and Pittſburgh, or the country between Niagara, Detroit, and the ſources of thoſe rivers which run into the Ohio.

"The upper ſettlement on the eaſtern ſide of the Ohio, will moſt likely follow the Cumberland and Holſton in its independence. In peopling the new States, I conclude the lowermoſt will be firſt ſettled, and conſequently the firſt to be admitted into the federal government. The diſtrict of country that will be laſt ſettled, in all probability, between the Ohio, the lakes, and the Miſſiſſippi, to the ſouth of St. Anthony's fall, is perhaps that which lies between Niagara and Detroit, and extending to the ridge of hills which divides the waters of lake Erie and Ohio, by reaſon of its damp and cold ſoil. The ſurrender of the forts of Niagara and Detroit, which I underſtand is about to be done, may increaſe the ſettlements upon the borders of lake Erie; but I think it is not likely that unhoſpitable clime will find inhabitants, while the genial regions of the Miſſiſſippi are in a great meaſure uninhabited.

"It is next neceſſary to take notice how, and in what probable time theſe States will be inhabited. The firſt ſettlement upon the Ohio, and the progreſs made in agriculture, were extremely tardy. But it is neceſſary to recollect, that America was not only in an infant ſtate at the concluſion of the war in 1763, but that the continual wars with the Indians greatly retarded the progreſs of that ſettlement; and if the ſame obſtructions have been given to the ſettlements on the weſtern ſide of the Ohio, it is equally certain that the exhauſted condition of the finances of the United States, until within a year and a half

paſt, did not permit them to take thoſe vigorous meaſures neceſſary to their tranquility; and that permanent ſettlements on that ſide of the river, and the increaſe of the neceſſaries of life, which are now in greater abundance in the weſtern country than in any other part of America, will enable them to ſupport their ſituation with infinitely more eaſe than when we were obliged to bring almoſt every thing for uſe over the mountain.

"I have eſtimated the number of ſouls on the weſtern waters at four hundred thouſand. I ſhould ſuppoſe from the diſpoſition to early marriage, which is general, and the extraordinary fecundity it is obſerved every where prevails, with the addition of the emigrants who may be expected from the eaſtern States, that the inhabitants will double once in fifteen years for the next ſixty years to come at leaſt, which in the firſt fifteen years will be equal to peopling four or five of theſe States; and I think we may expect to ſee, at the end of thirty years, the whole country I have been deſcribing inhabited.

"It is impoſſible that we can experience any thing like poverty, for no country, perhaps, upon the globe is ſo rich in the comforts and neceſſaries of life. As to wars, we can have none after a few years more are paſt. The Spaniards may put us to ſome inconvenience for a few years to come; but in doing this, they will not only riſk the loſs of New-Orleans, but the whole of Louiſiana, which they conſider as the key to Mexico. Thus ſecured from wars, and the inland navigation of the country not ſubjecting us to material loſſes in that buſineſs; with the propenſity to early marriages, produced by the ſimplicity and innocence of youth, tutored under the pure maxims of virtue and reaſon; it cannot be conſidered as a ſanguine calculation, when we add the additional conſideration of the probable number of emigrants we may receive, that our population will double once in fifteen years.

"In the weſtern territory is found all the variety of ſoil and climate neceſſary to the culture of every kind of grain, fibrous plants, cotton, fruits, vegetables, and all ſorts of proviſions. The upper ſettlements on the Ohio produce chiefly wheat, oats, barley, rye, Indian corn or maize, hemp and flax. The fruits are apples, pears, cherries, peaches, plums, ſtrawberries, raſberries, currants, gooſeberries, and grapes; of culinary plants and vegetables, there are turnips, potatoes, carrots, parſnips; cymbiline or ſquaſh, cucumbers, peaſe, beans, aſparagus, cabbages, brocoli, celery and ſallads; beſides which there are melons and herbs of every ſort. The proviſion conſiſts of beef, pork, mutton, veal, and a variety of poultry, ſuch as ducks,

Maſcovy ducks, turkeys, geeſe, dunghill fowls, and pidgeons. The ſuperfluous proviſions are ſold to the emigrants, who are continually paſſing through thoſe ſettlements in their route to the different diſtricts of country, which I have enumerated. Some conſiderable quantity of ſpirits diſtilled from rye, and likewiſe cyder, are ſent down the river to a market, in thoſe infant ſettlements where the inhabitants have not had time to bring orchards to any perfection, or have not a ſuperfluity of grain to diſtil into ſpirits. The beef, pork, and flour, are diſpoſed of in the ſame way. The flax and hemp are packed on horſes and ſent acroſs the mountains to the inland towns of Pennſylvania and Maryland, and, as I hinted before, in a few years, when grazing forms the principal object of thoſe ſettlers, they will always find a market for their cattle at Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Alexandria.*

"Theſe ſettlements might produce a conſiderable quantity of ſugar, but hitherto what they have made has ſerved for little more than home conſumption, as every part of the back country, from latitude 42° to 36° and upon the Miſſiſſippi, as far north as latitude 45°, produces an abundance of the ſugar maple tree as would be equal to furniſh ſugar for the inhabitants of the whole earth; and to ſend to any of the market towns on the Atlantic is too far to be profitable, until the canals of the Potomack ſhall have been finiſhed. The country produces alſo all the pot herbs which are common in Europe: ſeveral kinds of nuts grow in the foreſts ſuch as cheſnuts, hickory, and black walnuts. The mountains, hills, and the uninhabited parts abound in deer, wild turkies, and a ſpecies of grouſe, called by the Americans promiſcuouſly partridge or Pheaſant. There is an abundence of wild fowl, as, indeed is the caſe in every part of the weſtern country.

"Linen and woollen cloths, leather, and hats, for home conſumption, are manufactured with conſiderable ſucceſs. The two firſt articles are only made in families for their own uſe; but the latter are made by men of profeſſion in that buſineſs, and are of a quality that would not diſgrace the manufactures of Europe. Blackſmiths work of all ſorts, even to making fire arms, is done there; as is alſo cabinent work, wheel-wright, mill-wright, houſe carpentry, joinery, ſhoe-making, &c. &c. in ſhort, all the trades, immediately neceſſary to the promotion of the comforts of new ſettlements, are to be found here.

"After paſſing to the ſouthward of latitude 40 degrees, the climate becomes favourable to the culture of tobacco. It will, no doubt, grow farther to the north; but neither its flavour is ſo aro-

* To which may be added WASHINGTON.

natic, or the crop ſo certain or productive. Indeed, the farther ſouth tobacco grows, generally the finer in quality: hence it is, that the ſaegars of Cuba are ſo much admired for their peculiar ſcent, and the Oroonoko for its mildneſs. However, this is of little conſequence to any country, as it is certain no cultivation is ſo pernicious to the ſoil, and of ſo little real advantage to the cultivator. It continually impoveriſhes the land; and every additional ſeaſon, inſtead of producing riches to an eſtate, tends to beggar it: every viſtage of its growth is miſery and devaſtation, and no ſoil but one as prolific as that of the Nile, would be capable of producing it for any length of time, according to the ſyſtem which has been purſued in Virginia and Maryland. However, the whole of the Ohio and Miſſiſſippi country below latitude 40 degrees, is better adapted to produce tobacco in quantity, than any other country upon the face of the globe.

"Kentucky produces, beſides tobacco, all the different kinds of grain that I have deſcribed in the upper ſettlement; all the fruits, with the addition of apricots and nectarines; theſe and peaches grow here to very great perfection, particularly when planted upon a light ſoil, which ſhould always be the caſe when it can be found; but however extraordinary it may appear, it is not often the caſe in this diſtrict of country.

"Thoſe culinary plants, vegetables, &c. I have enumerated above, are produced in the whole weſtern country. In ſome parts they grow to greater perfection than in others, as in this the cucumber, turnips, peas, and many others are much finer than I ever ſaw any where beſide. The cantilope melon is only to be equalled by thoſe in Perſia. We are not at the trouble and expenſe of forcing; every thing put into the ground of the vegetable kind grows in a moſt wonderful manner.

"The ſoil is uncommonly favourable to hemp and Indian corn. I have known twelve hundred weight of the former produced from an acre of ground, and as much as one hundred buſhels of the latter. This has not only been done from an uncommon fertile ſpot, but there are large bodies of land adjoining, which are equally prolific. I believe that were I to mention upon an average the produce of the whole country, it would be found to be nearly as follows;

Hemp per acre - - - -	800 cwt.
Indian corn, or maize, ditto - -	60 buſhels.
Wheat, ditto - - - -	30 ditto.
Barley, ditto - - - -	40 ditto.

Oats ditto - - - -	50 buſhels.
Clover and timothy graſs, ditto -	25 cwt.

"Beſides hemp and flax for manufacturing, cotton is cultivated with conſiderable ſucceſs, particularly in the ſouthern parts of the State and Cumberland; and no doubt in a few years, when our ſettlements extend to the Natchez, cotton will be produced in as great perfection as in the Eaſt or Weſt-Indies. No ſoil or climate can be more congenial to this plant than the regions on the lowermoſt parts of the Miſſiſſippi. We have in our power to promote the culture of ſilk alſo. The mildneſs of the climate, and the great quantity of mulbery trees, which are every where interſperſed in our foreſts, render this matter extremely eaſy; but how far this will be politic, when the uſe of ſilk is going out of faſhion, is a matter that requires ſome conſideration. Cotton has ſupplied its place, and its ſuperior excellence I apprehend will always make it a more profitable manufactory.

"The growth of wool will form an important conſideration with us. The plains I have deſcribed extend quite to the mountains, ſo that ſheep here may have every advantage which the flocks of Spain enjoy. If we can form an idea from the ſamples of wool produced in many parts of the country, we may conclude that our moſt ſanguine expectations will be fully anſwered.

"The buffaloe is nearly driven out of Kentucky; ſome are ſtill found upon the head waters of Licking-creek, Great Sandy, and head waters of Green river. Deer abound in the extenſive foreſts, but the elk confines itſelf moſtly to the hilly and uninhabited places.

"The rapidity of the ſettlement has driven the wild turkey quite out of the middle countries, but they are found in large flocks in all our extenſive woods.

"Amidſt the mountains and broken countries are great numbers of grouſe; and ſince the ſettlement has been eſtabliſhed, the quail by following the trail of grain which is neceſſarily ſcattered through the wilderneſs, has migrated from the old ſettlements on the other ſide the mountain, and has become a conſtant reſident with us. This bird was unknown here on the firſt peopling of the country.

"There is a variety of wild fowl in every part of this State, particularly teal, and the ſummer duck. The latter breeds with

us: its incubation is always in temperate climes, which is the reason of its being called the ſummer duck.

"The productions of Cumberland are nearly the ſame as thoſe of Kentucky. The quality of tobacco is perhaps ſomething better; but the climate being conſiderably warmer, is not ſo favourable to wheat and barley, nor does graſs grow there ſo luxuriantly as with us.

"The country below Cumberland ſoon becomes warm enough for indigo and rice; and perhaps theſe articles in a few years will be cultivated on the Miſſiſſippi with as much ſucceſs, if not more, than thay ever were in South-Carolina or Georgia; particularly the former, as the ſoil on the Miſſiſſippi is infinitely more luxuriant than any in the Carolinas. Some eſſays were made in this buſineſs previous to the late war, but the object was abandoned on the deſtruction of the ſettlement made below the Natchez.

"Oranges, and other tropical fruits, grow at the Natchez, and ſome diſtance above, to conſiderable perfection. There are a variety of nuts that grow both in Kentucky and Cumberland, ſome of which are common to both; the moſt remarkable of them is the Pacane; all of which have been noticed both by Carver and Jefferſon. Grapes, plums, gooſeberries, and ſtrawberries, grow alſo ſpontaneouſly in the ſouthern parts of Kentucky, and in moſt parts of Cumberland.

"The produce of the weſtern country will be nearly the ſame in the ſame parallels of latitude throughout; ſo that comparing my imaginary States with the ſettled country ſouth-eaſt of the Ohio, you will be able to form a juſt idea of what they will be capable of producing. But to comprehend the object of the commerce of this country, it is firſt neceſſary to contemplate it, abounding in all the comforts of life, limited in its variety of climate only by what is not deſirable; with a ſoil ſo prolific, a navigation ſo extenſive, and a ſecurity ſo permanent, from being inland, that it ſeems this vaſt extent of empire is only to be equalled for its ſublimity, but by the object of its aggrandizement.

"Proviſions, tobacco, and raw materials, will conſtitute the firſt articles of our trade. Such a quantity of beef, pork, bacon, butter, cheeſe, &c. &c. may be furniſhed from this country as will one day, no doubt, furniſh the Weſt-India iſlands, and afford relief to the miſerable Chineſe, whoſe ſcanty portion of rice

is only ſufficient to keep ſoul and body together. Our mountainous countries muſt always prove excellent ranges for herds of cattle; the graſs, in the ſummer, affording ſufficient food to fatten them, without the expenſe of cultivated meadows, and the winters are ſeldom ſevere as to require any other food than the cane and pea-vine.

"The navigation of this country has been much talked of. The diſtance from one place to another has been computed with ſome degree of accuracy, and the various experiments which have been made confirm the opinion that its difficulty is merely imaginary.

"The common mode of deſcending the ſtream is in flat-bottomed boats, which may be built from fifteen to five hundred tons burthen. But, as far as I have been able to judge, I ſhould ſuppoſe, that about fifty or ſixty tons burthen would be the moſt convenient, wieldy, and conſequently ſafe, particularly when the waters are very high; for in ſuch caſes the rapidity of the current makes it difficult to manage an unwieldy maſs with facility. Theſe boats are built of oak plank, with a certain proportion of breadth to their length, i. e. nearly as twelve feet to forty tons. They are covered or not as occaſion may require. The object is to build them as cheap as poſſible, for their unwieldineſs prevents the poſſibility of their returning, and they can only be ſold as plank.

"Several of theſe boats ſetting out together, let us ſuppoſe five, ten, fifteen, or twenty, of ſixty tons burthen each, which would require each ſix hands to navigate them: ten boats then of ſixty tons each will employ ſixty hands, which will be equal to navigate up the ſtream three boats of five tons each, and would be more than ſufficient to bring back the cargo that the produce of the ten boats would purchaſe: as the articles we export are groſs and bulky, while we want only in return ſuperfine goods: the coarſer goods of every ſort will always be manufactured in the country. We alſo make our own ſalt, ſugar, ſpirits, malt liquor, and ſhall ſoon make our own wine. Theſe boats muſt be worked up with ſteam and ſails.

"The invention of carrying a boat againſt the ſtream by the influence of ſteam, is a late improvement on philoſophy by a Mr. Rumſey of Virginia, whoſe ingenuity has been rewarded by that State with the excluſive privilege of navigating thoſe boats in her rivers for ten years; and as this grant was given previous to the independence of Kentucky, the act of ſeparation guarantees his right. Some circumſtance or other has prevented his bringing them into uſe. However, there can be no doubt of his

ſcheme, for the Aſſembly of Virginia had the moſt unequivocal aſſurances before they gave the privilege, in a certificate ſigned by General Waſhington and Man Page, Eſquire: ſetting forth, that they had ſeen a boat, they believed to be conſtructed by Mr. Rumſey, aſcend a ſtream without the aid of manual labour, but without mentioning the operating cauſe, which has ſince appeared to be ſteam. If this principle ſhould fail (and from ſuch authority I do not conceive how it is to be preſumed,) I flatter myſelf that philoſophy is capable of ſupplying the place in the appropriation of ſome one of the ſecrets with which mechanics abound.

"In taking a retroſpective view of the world, we are for a moment ſurprized when we recollect that ſome thouſands of years had elapſed before printing was invented; and that the only way of accumulating the copies of art and genius was by the tardy method of tranſcribing; and that the art of navigation was for nearly as long a time devious, and regulated by no certain laws, the ſtars and head lands of different countries being the only guides to the adventurous mariner, who often periſhed when the heavens were obſcured. O Liberty! how many bleſſings haſt thou brought to America! Man in promulgating his opinions, now finds ſecurity under the wings of an eſtabliſhed freedom; and the diſmal dungeon, which eclipſed the luminous mind of the celebrated Italian, would now be erected into a ſchool for him to lecture in, inſtead of a priſon to bewail the miſerable ignorance and depravity of his fellow-creatures. Truth and reaſon have led to this melioration of manners—it will lead to more benefits to mankind.—But ſhould we ſtill be obliged to row our boats againſt the ſtream, *it is not only practicable, but eaſy.*

"The frequent turnings in the Miſſiſſippi produce in every bend eddy water; which, with the advantage the wind affords (that blowing the greater part of the year from the ſouth-weſt, and directly up the windings of the river, by reaſon of the vacancy between the banks and riſing foreſts on either ſide, affording a channel for the current of the air) is ſufficient with ſails, keeping as much as poſſible in the eddy water, to carry a boat fifty miles a day up the ſtream.

"To account for thoſe winds philoſophically would be extremely eaſy; but as it is a circumſtance notorious from the teſtimony of voyagers in the Miſſiſſippi, and the Ohio, I preſume the teſt of experience will be preferred to any philoſophical diſquiſition upon the ſubject.

"Should this navigation prove too tedious, and no improvements appear likely to be made in it, the importing into the

country may be facilitated by another channel, from the gulf of Mexico up the Mobile, which is a lazy current; from the principal branch of which there is but a ſhort paſſage to a branch of the Tenneſſee, when you will have the advantage of the ſtream quite into the Ohio. I have enumerated this circumſtance merely for the ſake of information; for I have not the ſmalleſt doubt of the eligibility of the navigation of the Miſſiſſippi, which is proved from the experiments which are daily making.

"The diſtance from Pittſburg to the Muſkingum is one hundred and ſeventy-three miles; to the Little Kanhawa one hundred and ſeventy-eight; to the Great Kanhawa two hundred and eighty-five; to Great Sandy three hundred and forty two; to the Scioto three hundred and ninety; to Lime-ſtone five hundred; to the Little Miami five hundred and ten; to Licking creek five hundred and twenty-four; to the Great Miami five hundred and fifty; to the Great-bone creek five hundred and eighty-two; to the Kentucky ſix hundred and twenty-ſix; to the rapids ſeven hundred and three; to Salt river ſeven hundred and twenty-three; to Green river nine hundred and twenty-two; to the Wabaſh one thouſand and nineteen; to Cumberland river one thouſand one hundred and thirteen; to the Tenneſſee one thouſand one hundred and twenty-ſix; to the Miſſiſſippi one thouſand one hundred and eighty-three; from thence to New-Orleans is about one thouſand and five.

"I have mentioned that it is about two hundred and thirty miles from the mouth of the Ohio up the Miſſiſſippi to the mouth of the Miſſouri, and about twenty from thence to the Illinois, which is navigable for batteaux to its ſource. From thence there is a portage only of two miles to Chickago, which is alſo navigable for batteaux to its entrance into lake Michegan, which is a diſtance of ſixteen miles. This lake affords communication with the river St. Lawrence through lake Erie, paſſing Niagara by a portage of eight miles. The lakes Erie and Michegan are navigable for veſſels drawing ſix and ſeven feet water. This is one of the routes by which the exchange of commodities between the northern and ſouthern parts of this empire will be facilitated.

"In continuing the plan of intercourſe, it will be found extremely eaſy to paſs through lake Ontario to Wood creek; up Wood creek, and by a portage of about three miles, you arrive at a creek, which in three miles more brings you to Fort Edward upon the Mohawk river, a branch of Hudſon's river. There are ſeveral carrying places between that and its junction with Hudſon; but very little labour would remove them, and which I

have no doubt but the State of New-York will be judicious enough to ſet early about. It is certain they have ordered ſurveys to be made, and plans are forming for the the removal of thoſe obſtructions. It has been long in embryo with them.* It was impoſſible a plan of ſo much utility could eſcape that ſage and penetrating politician General Schyler, whoſe vaſt eſtate lies moſtly in that part of America.

"There are alſo portages into the waters of lake Erie from the Wabaſh, Great Miami, Muſkingum, and Allegany, from two to ſixteen miles. The portage between the Ohio and Potomack will be about twenty miles when the obſtructions in the Monongahela and Cheat rivers are removed, which will form the firſt object of the gentlemen of Virginia when they have completed the canal on the Potomack.

"The obſtructions to the navigation of the Great Kanhawa are of ſuch magnitude, that it will require a work of ages to remove them; but if ever that ſhould be done, there wil be an eaſy communication between that and James river, and likewiſe with the Roanoake, which runs through North-Carolina. But this is an event too remote to deſerve any conſideration at preſent.

"All the rivers in this country of ſixty yards wide and upwards, are navigable almoſt to their ſources for flat-bottomed boats during their floods, and for batteaux the greater part of the year, the Great Kanhawa and little Miami excepted. The Tenneſſee has a conſiderable fall where it paſſes through Cumberland mountain, where there muſt be a portage alſo. From thence it is navigable quite to Holſton.

"The rapids of the Ohio are no obſtruction in high water to boats going down the river, and indeed batteaux may paſs almoſt at any time. There are two ſmall rapids in the Wabaſh between its mouth and St. Vincent's, but they are no impediment to navigation, except at times of low water. The Kaſkaſkias is a ſmall river which runs into the Miſſiſſippi below the Illinois, and is navigable a conſiderable way above the plains. The Miſſiſſippi is navigable to St. Anthony's falls, without any obſtruction. Carver deſcribes it as navigable above them as far as he travelled. We have too little knowledge of the Miſſouri

* That State paſſed an Act of Aſſembly in July 1792, for removing all the obſtructions between Hudſon's river and lake Ontario; by which means, when it is done, there will be an inland navigation, taking its various courſes of nearly two thouſand miles in extent.

to form any decided opinion of the extent of its navigation. It is however certain, that it is a more powerful ſtream than the Miſſiſſippi, and in entering that river, it triumphantly ruſhes acroſs, and its turbid waters, unmixed, ſeem to diſdain a connection ſo inferior. From the beſt information that we have been able to collect, it is navigable for twelve or fifteen hundred miles above its mouth without obſtruction; and I think it is not unlikely, that in ſettling the country towards its ſcource, we ſhall find it is not remote from the ſcources of the ſtreams running into the Pacific ocean, and that a communication may be opened between them with as much eaſe as between the Ohio and Potomack, and alſo between the ſettlements on the Miſſiſſippi and California. This circumſtance is the more likely to happen, as it does not appear that the ridges of hills which divide the waters of the Pacific ocean from the waters of the Miſſiſſippi, are either ſo high or ſo rugged as the Allegany mountains.

"You will obſerve, that as far as this immenſe continent is known, the courſes and extent of its rivers are extremely favourable to communication by water; a circumſtance which is highly important, whether we regard it in a ſocial or commercial point of view. The intercourſe of men has added no inconſiderable luſtre to the poliſh of manners, and, perhaps commerce has tended more to civillize and embelliſh the human mind, in two centuries, than war and chivalry would have done in five.

"The federal government regulating every thing commercial, muſt be productive of the greateſt harmony, ſo that while we are likely to live in the regions of perpetual peace our felicity will receive a zeſt from the activity and variety of our trade. We ſhall paſs through the Miſſiſſippi to the ſea—up the Ohio Monongahela and Cheat rivers, by a ſmall portage, into the Potomack, which will bring us to the Federal city on the line of Virginia and Maryland—through the ſeveral rivers I have mentioned, and the lakes to New York and Quebec—from the northern lakes to the head branches of the rivers which run into Hudſon's bay into the Arctic reigions—and from the ſources of the Miſſouri into the great ſouth ſea. Thus in the center of the earth, governing by the laws of reaſon and humanity, we ſeem calculated to become at once the emporium and protectors of the world.

"Frequent rains in the latter end of the autumn produce floods in the Ohio, and it is an uncommon ſeaſon when one of thoſe floods does not happen before Chriſtmas. If there is much froſty weather in the upper parts of the country, its waters generally remain low until they begin to thaw: but, if the river is not frozen over, which is not very common, there is always water ſufficient for boats of any ſize from November until May, when the waters generally begin to ſubſide; and by the middle of June, in moſt ſeaſons, they are too low for boats above forty tons, and theſe muſt be flat-bottomed. The froſt ſeldom continues ſo long as the middle of February, and immediately upon its breaking, the river is flooded; this flood may in a degree ſubſide, but for no length of time; and it is from that period until May that the boats generally come down the river. The diſtance of deſcending is in proportion to the height of the water; but the average diſtance is about eighty miles in twenty-four hours, and from ſixty to one hundred are the extremes; ſo that the mean time of going in a flat-bottomed boat from Pittſburg to the rapids, is between eight and nine days, and about twenty days more to New Orleans; which will make a paſſage from Pittſburg to that place nearly a month. The inundations of the Miſſiſſippi commence ſomething later than thoſe of the Ohio; but it is very certain they begin in March, and ſubſide in July. This is the moſt proper time to aſcend the river, as you avoid the ſhoals, have finer weather, but above all, when the water is high you have ſtronger eddies; and with taking theſe advantages, and with dexterous watermen, you may proceed fifty-miles a day, which will bring you back to the rapids of the Ohio in forty days, making a large allowance for contingencies.

"The articles of ſugar and ſalt, though not abſolutely neceſſaries of life, have become, from habit, ſo eſſential, that I doubt if any civilized people would be content to live without them. The extenſive climate of this country, I believe, is no where warm enough for the cultivation of the ſugar-cane with ſucceſs; and to import it would be too expenſive by reaſon of its great weight; but nature has ſuperſeded that neceſſity in the ſupply of the ſugar maple-tree. It has been long known that ſugar could be made from the juice of this tree; but from the imperfect knowledge of the buſineſs of ſugar-making, the ſamples from this liquid were ſuch as promiſed no great expectations in future experiments: however, the neceſſity which the people were under of making it, or doing without ſugar, proved, that with care and proper management, it could be made equal to the fineſt ſugars of the Weſt-Indies or Brazil. Some ſamples ſhewn to a ſu-

gar refiner in Philadelphia, which aſtoniſhed him, produced ſeveral inſtructions in the art, which occaſioned immediate ſucceſs. The people began to treat the ſugar-trees more tenderly; and inſtead of chopping a large gap in their trunk, as had always been the practice, and which was ſufficient to deſtroy a leſs tender tree the juice was found to ooze as effectually from an inciſion made with a ſcrew auger of three quarters of an inch diameter but this was the ſmalleſt of all the improvements. All the means made uſe of in the Weſt-Indies for the perfection of the art were ſoon aſcertained and practiſed: ſo that the country is not only equal to ſupply itſelf with ſugar, but might with increaſe of hands, ſupply the inhabitants of the globe.

"The ſugar maple-tree not only grows in the greateſt abundance throughout this country within the limits I have mentioned, but it is known to be the hardieſt, and the moſt difficult to deſtroy, of all the trees in our foreſts, the beech not excepted, by the planters, who have a method of chopping or girdling the trunks of trees about one foot and a half above the ground, in order to kill them, and thereby they prevent their crops from being ſhaded.

"It is known, that old trees produce the moſt and the richeſt juice; and it is alſo known, that trees which have been uſed for years are better than freſh trees. It is a common remark, that, whenever you ſee a black tree of this ſort, it is a ſure ſign it is a rich one. The blackneſs proceeds from the inciſions made in the bark by the pecking of the parroquet, and other birds, in the ſeaſon of the juice riſing, which oozing out, dribbles down its ſides, and ſtains the bark, which, in the progreſſion of time, becomes black.

"I have mentioned theſe particulars with a view to prevent your falling into the general error, that the reſource of making ſugar from the maple will ſoon be deſtroyed from the very nature of producing it; believing, as many do, that it is impoſſible for the tree to be able to bear the annual wounds which are neceſſary to be made in its trunk in order to draw off the juice: and that a few years muſt neceſſarily extirpate them; now, ſo far from there being any danger of that, experience has ſhewn, the longer that they are uſed in a proper manner, the more plentiful and rich will be their juice to a certain age: which will be in proportion to the life of thoſe trees. No exact eſtimation can be made of that; but I conclude their decay is not earlier than other trees.

"The ſeaſon of tapping is moſtly about the middle of February in Kentucky; but not until the latter end of the month, about

Pittſburg in the remote parts of Pennſylvania, on the headbranches of the Suſquehanna, and Delaware, and in the State of New York. Froſty mornings and bright ſunſhine are neceſſary to produce copious exudations. The ſeaſon continues in this climate about ſix weeks, when the juice is found to be too thin and poor to make ſugar; but it is ſtill capable of making molaſſes, ſpirits by diſtillation, vinegar, and an agreeable table beer.

"The buſineſs of ſugar-making is moſtly managed by women and boys; the men generally having nothing more to do with it than to tap the trees, prepare the ſheds, and different apparatus. So that our agricultural employments are very little obſtructed by this buſineſs, which produces ſo important an article for domeſtic uſes. The perfection to which we have brought our ſugars has induced many people in the upper parts of the States of New-York and Pennſylvania to make a buſineſs of it during the ſeaſon of the juice running; and conſiderable quantities have been ſent to the markets of Philadelphia and York, not inferior to the beſt clayed French and Spaniſh ſugars.

"The ſalt ſprings that have been found in the ſingle State of Kentucky, under proper management, would be ſufficient to produce ſalt for all the inhabitants which the weſtern country could ſupport. There are at leaſt twelve of thoſe ſprings between Great Sandy and Cumberland; the principal of which are the upper and lower Blue licks, on Licking creek; one on the Great-bone creek; one on Drinnon's lick creek, about a mile and a half from the mouth of the Kentucky; and Bullit's lick, on Salt river, twenty miles from the rapids of the Ohio. This ſpring is the firſt that was worked in the country. The firſt eſſays in this buſineſs were alſo imperfect, which, however, proceeded more from poverty than ignorance. The great principle by which the ſaline particles are chryſtallized, is univerſally known to be by the evaporation of the humid; and the greater the ſuperficial ſurface of that evaporation, the more rapidly the chryſtals will form. But the firſt ſettlers could not procure ſalt pans, and were obliged to uſe as a ſubſtitute the pots and kettles they had brought out for domeſtic purpoſes.

Such was the commencement of making ſalt in this country; which, from its ſcarcity and high price, in ſome meaſure diſcouraged the ſettlement of the country. However, the great improvements ſince that æra have done away all thoſe fears, and ſalt is now manufactured in plenty, and ſold cheap.

"The water is by no means ſo ſtrong as ſea water. It requires nearly four hundred gallons to make one buſhel of ſalt, which is more by one half than would be wanted of ſea water to produce that quantity.

"The water is not collected immediately from the ſpring. An area of from five to ten acres round thoſe ſprings is found to be impregnated with this mineral, ſo that by digging wells in any part of that ſpace ſalt water is diſcovered. From this circumſtance I am of opinion, that by digging pits a body of earth would be found ſtrongly impregnated with ſalt, from which the ſaline particles might be more eaſily ſeparated than from water; and it is certain, that if the water receives its particles of ſalt from the earth that it paſſes through, ſuch earth muſt contain a large proportion of ſalt, otherwiſe the ſtrength of the water would not be ſo conſiderable. However it will require ſome time to determine this matter, as the infancy of our country will not permit us to ſpeculate too largely in experiments that would be attended with heavy expenſes, were they not to prove ſucceſsful.

"Salt ſprings have been found in every part of the weſtern country, which has been well explored, and I have no doubt that time will prove every part of it is well ſupplied with them. The manner by which they are moſtly found in uninhabited places, is by the large buffalo roads which lead to them. Whenever the ramification of thoſe roads begin to concenter, it is almoſt an infallible ſign that a ſalt lick is near. Thoſe animals reſorting to them throughout the temperate part of the year for the benefit of the ſalt, make large roads, which leading from the lick, branch different ways into the country.

"We have various other minerals, ſuch as iron, which is the moſt uſeful, copper, lead, ſulphur, nitre, &c. &c. Iron ore is found in great plenty upon the northern branches of Licking creek, and likewiſe upon the waters of Green river. A lead mine has been worked many years with conſiderable profit, which lies in the country of Montgomery, upon the waters of the Great Kanhawa. There is another between the Cumberland and Tenneſſee rivers, ſaid to be very valuable, and its ore more pure than any other which has been diſcovered in America. But the lead mine on the Miſſiſſippi muſt prove inexhauſtible. It extends from the mouth of Rock river more than one hundred miles upwards. Beſides theſe, there are ſeveral others, ſome of which lie on the Spaniſh ſide of the Miſſiſſippi, and have been uſed for years paſt. Copper mines have been diſcovered in ſeveral places, but the mine on the Wabaſh is, perhaps,

the richeſt vein of native copper in the bowels of the whole earth: and no doubt will render all the others of little or no value. Sulphur is found in ſeveral places in abundance; and nitre is made from earth which is collected from caves and other places to which the wet has not penetrated. The making this ſalt, in this country, is ſo common, that many of the ſettlers manufacture their own gunpowder. This earth is diſcovered in greater plenty on the waters of Green river, than it is in any other part of Kentucky; but perhaps ſtill farther ſouthward it will be found in greater plenty. However, it is ſo common in every part of the country, that it might be made a conſiderable article for exportation. I have heard of black lead mines upon the head waters of the Kentucky, but I have not been able to procure any certain information reſpecting them. But I ſhould conceive that there can be little doubt, that when the country, and particularly the mountainous parts of it, are well explored, all the uſeful minerals will be found in abundance.

"I have already mentioned the coal mines in the upper parts of the Ohio country; beſides which there are great quantities of coal upon the upper branches of the Miſſiſſippi. It is particularly favourable that this mineral lies at the heads of our larger rivers, as it can be ſent down with the greateſt facility; and it is very certain that the great body of it, which the Ohio country alone contains, is equal to anſwer all the purpoſes for which it may be wanted throughout this extenſive empire.

"Though the champaign part of this country has no ſtone on its ſurface, yet every where lime-ſtone is found from ſix to fifteen feet below it. Moſt of the bottoms of our rivulets and ſtreams are paved with this ſtone. It is very eaſily calcined, when it becomes excellent lime. It is alſo convenient for building, by reaſon of its peculiar ſmoothneſs, and the eaſe with which it may be worked into any form. Beſides this ſtone, which is the moſt common, every other kind of ſtone is found that is either uſeful or ornamental; ſuch as flint, grindſtone, and millſtones, of a very good quality, which have been reckoned equal to French burrs. There is the greateſt plenty of marble upon the banks of the Kentucky, particularly at Leeſburgh. I have not ſeen any that has been poliſhed; but judges in that buſineſs give us the moſt flattering ideas of its quality.

"Clay is very common in every part of this country which is proper for bricks; and there is a ſuperior kind on the Beech fork of Salt river, which no doubt might be manufactured into

good porcelain. Carver has mentioned a clay of this ſort that he ſaw above St. Anthony's falls. Marl, chalk, gypſum, and ocres, are found in various parts.

"With reſpect to climate in Kentucky you experience a greater temperature of air than in any country in which I ever travelled, Fahrenheit's thermometer ſeldom falling below 35 degrees in winter, nor riſing above 80 in ſummer. The approach of the ſeaſons is gradual. The ſummer continues moſtly to the middle of October. The autumn, or mild weather, generally continues until Chriſtmas, when we have ſome cold and froſt until February, when ſpring approaches, and by the beginning of March ſeveral ſhrubs and trees begin to ſhoot forth their buds, by the middle of the month, the buck-eye or horſe-cheſnut is clad in its ſummer's livery; and by the middle of April the foliage of the foreſts is completely expanded, which is a fortnight earlier than the leaves are ſhot in Virginia and Maryland. Cumberland is proportionally more temperate than North-Carolina, as Kentucky is than Virginia."

STATE OF

NORTH-CAROLINA.

SITUATION, EXTENT, AND BOUNDARIES.

THIS State is ſituated between 35° 50′, and 36° 30′ north latitude, and 1° and 6° 30′ weſt-longitude from Philadelphia. Its length is about three hundred miles, and its breadth one hundred and twenty; it therefore contains about thirty-four thouſand ſquare miles. It is bounded on the north, by Virginia; on the eaſt, by the Atlantic ocean; on the ſouth, by South-Carolina and Georgia; and on the weſt, by a chain of mountains a few miles to the weſtward of the Great Appalachian mountains. This chain of mountains, taking the whole for a part, has occaſionally been called the Great Iron mountain. All that vaſt country which lies on the weſt of the Iron mountain, was ſurrendered to the United States by the State of North-Carolina in the year 1789. It has ſince been erected into a ſeparate government, commonly called the Territory South of Ohio, or the Tenneſſee government.

The charter limits of North-Carolina were a line, beginning on the ſea ſide, at a cedar ſtake, at or near the mouth of a little river on the ſouthern extremity of Brunſwick county, and running thence a north-weſt courſe through the boundary-houſe, in latitude 33° 56′ to latitude 35°, and on that parallel weſt as far as is mentioned in the charter of King Charles II. to the original proprietors of Carolina, viz, *to the South Sea.* Their northern line begins on the ſea coaſt in latitude 36° 30′, and runs due weſt to the termination of the ſouthern line. This line ſtrikes the Miſſiſſippi fifteen miles below the mouth of the Ohio. Theſe limits were aſcertained and confirmed agreeably to an order of George II. in council. Great-Britain, by the treaty of 1763, which was made with France and Spain, ſurrendered her claim to all the territory weſtward of the Miſſiſſippi;

and thoſe nations, by the ſame treaty, granted to Great-Britain the free navigation of the Miſſiſſippi. By the treaty of 1783, between Spain and Great-Britain, his Catholic Majeſty expreſsly confirms the former treaty of 1763, except ſuch parts as are there excepted; conſequently he confirms to Great-Britain the navigation of the Miſſiſſippi; and Great-Britain, on her part, yields to the United States her entire right to the navigation of the ſame river. But ſince Spain now claims the excluſive navigation of the Miſſiſſippi, which ſhe had formerly ſurrendered, it is very probable that the United States to whom North-Carolina has ceded her weſtern territory, may claim the lands on the weſt ſide of the Miſſiſſippi, which were within the original charter bounds of that State.

CLIMATE.

The weſtern hilly parts of this State are as healthy as any of the United States. The country is fertile, full of ſprings and rivulets of pure water. The air is ſerene a great part of the year and the inhabitants live to old age, which cannot ſo generally be ſaid of the inhabitants of the flat country. Though the days in ſummer are extremely hot, the nights are cool and refreſhing. Autumn is very pleaſant, both in regard to the temperature and ſerenity of the weather, and the richneſs and variety of the vegetable productions which the ſeaſon affords. The winters are ſo mild in ſome years, that autumn may be ſaid to continue till ſpring. Wheat harveſt is in the beginning of June, and that of Indian corn early in September.

In the flat country, near the ſea coaſt, the inhabitants, during the ſummer and autumn, are ſubject to intermitting fevers, which often prove fatal, as bilious or nervous ſymptoms prevail. Theſe fevers are ſeldom immediately dangerous to the natives who are temperate, or to ſtrangers who are prudent. They, however, if ſuffered to continue for any length of time, bring on other diſorders, which greatly impair the natural vigour of the mind, debilitate the conſtitution, and terminate in death. The countenances of the inhabitants during theſe ſeaſons have generally a pale yellowiſh caſt, occaſioned by the prevalence of bilious ſymptoms. They have very little of the bloom and freſhneſs of the people in the northern States.

It has been obſerved that more of the inhabitants, of the men eſpecially, die during the winter by pleuriſies and peripneumonies, than during the warm months by bilious complaints. Theſe pleuriſies are brought on by intemperance, and by an imprudent

expoſure to the weather. Were the inhabitants cautious and prudent in theſe reſpects, it is alledged by their phyſicians, that they might in general eſcape the danger of theſe fatal diſeaſes. The uſe of flannel next to the ſkin during the winter is reckoned an excellent preventative of the diſeaſes incident to this climate.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SEA COAST, &c.

North-Carolina, in its whole width, for ſixty miles from the ſea, is a dead level. A great proportion of this tract lies in foreſt, and is barren. In all the champaign country, marine productions are found by digging eighteen or twenty feet below the ſurface of the ground. The ſea coaſt, the ſounds, inlets, and the lower parts of the rivers have uniformly a muddy, ſoft bottom. Sixty or eighty miles from the ſea, the country riſes into hills and mountains.

The ſeveral rivers in this State are the Chowan, formed by the confluence of the Meherrin, Nottaway, and black rivers; all of which riſe in Virginia. It falls into the north-weſt corner of Albemarle ſound, and is three miles wide at its mouth, but narrows faſt as you aſcend it.

The Roanoke, a long rapid river, formed by Staunton river, which riſes in Virginia, and Dan river, which riſes in South-Carolina. The low lands on this river, are ſubject to inundations. It is navigable only for ſhallops, nor for theſe, but about ſixty or ſeventy miles, on account of falls, which in a great meaſure obſtruct the water communication with the back country. It empties, by ſeveral mouths, into the ſouth weſt end of Albemarle ſound. The planters on the banks of this river are ſuppoſed to be the wealthieſt in North-Carolina. One of them it is ſaid, raiſes about three thouſand barrels of corn, and four thouſand buſhels of peas, annually.

The Cuſhai is a ſmall river, which empties into Albemarle ſound, between the Chowan and the Roanoke.

Pamlico, or Tar, a river which opens into Pamlico ſound; its courſe is from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt. It is navigable for veſſels drawing nine feet water to the town of Waſhington, about forty milesfrom its mouth; and for ſcows or flats, carrying thirty orforty hogſheads, fifty miles farther, to the town of Tarborough. Beyond this place the river is inconſiderable, and is not navigable.

The Neus, a river which empties into Pamlico ſound below Newbern; it is navigable for ſea veſſels about twelve miles above

the town of Newbern; for ſcows fifty miles; and for ſmall boats two hundred miles.

The Trent river, from the ſouth-weſt, which falls into the Neus at Newbern, is navigable for ſea veſſels about twelve miles above the town, and for boats thirty.

There are ſeveral other rivers of leſs note, among which are the Paſquotank, Perquimins, Little river, Alligator, &c. which diſcharge themſelves into Albemarle ſound. All the rivers in North-Carolina, and, it may be added, in South-Carolina, Georgia, and the Floridas, which empty into the Atlantic ocean, are navigable by any veſſel that can paſs the bar at their mouth. While the water courſes continue wide enough for veſſels to turn round, there is generally a ſufficient depth of water for them to proceed.

Cape Fear, more properly Clarendon river, opens into the ſea at cape Fear, in about latitude 33° 45′. As you aſcend it, you paſs Brunſwick on the left, and Wilmington on the right. The river then divides into north-eaſt and north-weſt branches, as they are called. It is navigable for large veſſels to Wilmington, and for boats to Fayetteville, near ninety miles farther. This river affords the beſt navigation in North-Carolina. Yadkin river riſes in this State, and running ſouth-eaſtwardly, croſſes into South-Carolina, where it takes the name of Pedee, and paſſes to the ſea below George-town.

The rivers of this State would be much more valuable, were it not that they are barred at their mouths. This circumſtance, and the coaſt furniſhing no good harbours, will prevent the State from building large ſhips, for which they have an abundance of excellent timber. Several cauſes have been aſſigned for all the harbours and rivers being barred, ſouth of the Cheſapeak. Some ſuppoſe the bars are formed by the current of the long rivers throwing up the ſands, where their rapidity terminates; others with more probability ſay, that a bank is thrown up by the gulf ſtream, which runs near theſe ſhores.

The banks of the rivers in this, and the other neighbouring States, often overflow after great rains, which does much damage to the plantations. A gentleman on the ſpot aſſerts, that he has ſeen the water thirty feet below the banks of the river, juſt after it had been ten feet above them. This is owing to the narrowneſs of the mouths of the rivers, which do not afford a ſufficient channel for the waters, accumulating every mile, to diſcharge themſelves into the ocean.

Pamlico ſound is a kind of lake or inland ſea, from ten to twenty miles broad, and nearly one hundred miles in length. It is ſeparated from the ſea, in its whole length, by a beach of ſand hardly a mile wide, generally covered with ſmall trees or buſhes. Through this bank are ſeveral ſmall inlets by which boats may paſs. But Ocrecok inlet is the only one that will admit veſſels of burthen into the diſtricts of Edenton and Newbern. This inlent is in latitude 35° 10′, and opens into Pamlico ſound between Ocrecok iſland and Corebank; the land on the north is called Ocrecok; on the ſouth Portſmouth. A bar of hard ſand croſſes this inlet, on which, at low tide, there is fourteen feet water. Six miles within this bar is a hard ſand ſhoal, called the Swaſh, lying acroſs the channel. On each ſide of the channel are dangerous ſhoals, ſometimes dry. There is from eight to nine feet water at full tide, according to the winds on the Swaſh. Common tides riſe eighteen inches on the bar, and ten on the Swaſh. Between the bar and the Swaſh is good anchoring ground, called the Upper and Lower anchorages. Ships drawing ten feet water do not come farther than the firſt anchorage, till lightened. Few mariners, though acquainted with the inlets, chooſe to bring in their own veſſels, as the bar often ſhifts during their abſence on a voyage. North of Pamlico ſound, and communicating with it, is Albemarle ſound ſixty miles in length, and from eight to twelve in breadth.

Core ſound lies ſouth of Pamlico, and communicates with it. Theſe ſounds are ſo large when compared with their inlets from the ſea, that no tide can be perceived in any of the rivers which empty into them, nor is the water ſalt even in the mouths of theſe rivers.

Cape Hatteras is in latitude 35° 15′. At the time of Sir Walter Raleigh's approaching the American ſhores, the ſhoals in the vicinity of Hatteras were found to be extremely dangerous, and no veſſels in that latitude ventured within ſeven leagues of the land. From a ſurvey of the ancient drafts of this part of the coaſt there can be no doubt but the fears of former navigators were not without foundation, as theſe ſhoals are laid down very large in extent, and in many places covered with not more than five or ſix feet water, at a great diſtance from the land.

The conſtant experience of the coaſting trade of the United States demonſtrates, either that the ancient drafts were purpoſely

falſified in order to deter ſeamen from venturing too near a coaſt, with which they had as yet a very ſlender acquaintance, or *which is the moſt probable*, that by the ſtrong currents hereabouts, which are only counter currents of the gulph ſtream, the ſands, which were originally heaped up in this part of the ocean by ſome ancient convulſion of nature, have been gradually wearing away, and diminiſhing to what we find them to be at this time.

At preſent the out ſhoals, which lie about fourteen miles ſouth-weſt of the cape, are but of five or ſix acres extent, and where they are really dangerous to veſſels of moderate draught, not more than half that number of acres. On the ſhoaleſt part of theſe there is, at low water, about ten feet, and here at times the ocean breaks in a tremendous manner, ſpouting, as it were, to the clouds, from the violent agitations of the gulph ſtream, which touches the eaſtern edge of the banks, from whence the declivity is ſudden, that is to ſay, from ten fathoms to no ſoundings. On the ſpot abovementioned, which is firm ſand, it has been the lot of many a good veſſel, in a gale of wind, to ſtrike, and go to pieces. In moderate weather, however, theſe ſhoals may be paſſed over, if neceſſary, at full tide, without much danger, by veſſels not drawing more than eight, nine, or ten feet water.

From this bank, which was formerly of vaſt extent, and called the Full Moon Shoal, a ridge runs the whole diſtance to the Cape, about a north-weſt courſe: this ridge, which is about half a mile wide, has on it at low tide, generally ten, eleven, and twelve feet water, with gaps at equal intervals affording good channels of about fifteen or ſixteen feet water. The moſt noted of theſe channels, and moſt uſed by coaſting veſſels, is about one mile and a half from the land, and may eaſily be known by a range of breakers which are always ſeen on the weſt ſide, and a breaker head or two on the eaſtern ſide, which, however, are not ſo conſtant, only appearing when the ſea is conſiderably agitated. This channel is at leaſt two and a half miles wide, and might at full ſea be ſafely paſſed by the largeſt ſhips: theſe however rarely attempt it. The common tides ſwell about ſix feet, and always come from the ſouth-eaſt. A little north of the cape is good anchoring in four or five fathoms, and with the wind to the weſtward, a boat may land in ſafety, and even bring off caſks of *freſh water*, plenty of which is *to be found every where on the beach, by digging a foot or two, and putting a barrel into the ſand.*

Cape Lookout is ſouth of Cape Hatteras, oppoſite Core ſound, and has already been mentioned as having had an excellent harbour, entirely filled up with ſand ſince the year 1777.

Cape Fear is remarkable for a dangerous ſhoal, called from its form the Frying-pan. This ſhoal lies at the entrance of Cape Fear river, the ſouth part of it, ſix miles from Cape Fear pitch, in latitude 33° 32′.

There are in this State two ſwamps, that have obtained the names of Great and Little Diſmal.

Great Diſmal is on the dividing line between Virginia and North-Carolina. It is chiefly owned by two companies. The Virginia company, of whom the Preſident of the United States is one, owns one hundred thouſand acres. The North-Carolina company owns forty thouſand acres. In the midſt of this Diſmal there is a lake about ſeven miles long, called Drummond's pond. The waters of which in rainy ſeaſons diſcharge themſelves to the ſouthward into the Paſquotank, and to the north and eaſtward into the branches of the Nanſemond, Elizabeth river, and a river which runs into Currituck ſound; a navigable canal is to be dug from the head of the Paſquotank to the head of Elizabeth river in Virginia; the diſtance is about fourteen miles. This canal will paſs about a mile to the eaſtward of Drummond's pond, and will receive water from that lake; to paſs through the lake would not be ſafe for low-ſided veſſels. The company by whom this canal is to be cut, have been incorporated by the concurring laws of Virginia and North-Carolina. In September, 1791, the ſubſcription was nearly full, and the company choſe their directors, and other officers. By this canal the exports of Norfolk muſt be greatly increaſed.

Little Diſmal is in Currituck county on the ſouth ſide of Albemarle ſound. This Diſmal had not drawn the public attention as an object of importance before the end of the late war, at which time it was chiefly taken up. It is now ſuppoſed to contain one of the moſt valuable rice eſtates in America. In the midſt of this Diſmal there is a lake of about eleven miles long, and ſeven miles broad. In the year 1785, and 1786, Joſiah Collins, Eſq. of Edenton, in company with Meſſrs. Allen and Dickinſon of that place, took up near one hundred thouſand acres of land round the lake, for the purpoſe of making a navigable canal from the lake to the head of Skuppernong river; the diſtance of which is five and a half miles. This canal, twenty feet wide, was finiſhed in 1790, and the company in 1791 raiſed above one hundred and twenty acres of rice on

the margin. The natural channel by which the lake uſed to diſcharge its waters is now ſtopped, and the waters paſs off by the canal. About five hundred yards from the lake, the company have erected ſeveral ſaw mills. The water in the lake is higher than the ſurface of the ground for about half a mile diſtance on both ſides of the canal; whence it follows, that the company can at any time lay under water about ten thouſand acres of a rich ſwamp, which proves admirably fitted for rice.

SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, &c.

On the banks of ſome of the rivers, particularly of the Roanoke, the land is fertile and good, interſperſed through the other parts are glades of rich ſwamp, and ridges of oak land of a black fertile ſoil.

Wheat, rye, barley, oats, and flax, grow well in the back hilly country. Indian corn and pulſe of all kinds in all parts. Ground peas run on the ſurface of the earth, and are covered by hand with a light mould, and the pods grow under ground; they are eaten raw or roaſted, and taſte much like an hazle nut. Cotton and hemp are alſo conſiderably cultivated here, and might be raiſed in much greater plenty. The cotton is planted yearly: the ſtalk dies with the froſt. The labour of one man will produce one thouſand pounds in the ſeeds, or two hundred and fifty, fit for manufacturing. The country is generally friendly to the raiſing of ſheep, which yield from three quarters of a pound to two pounds and a half of wool, which is ſhort and not very fine.

The large natural growth of the plains in the low country is almoſt univerſally pitch pine, which is a tall, handſome tree, far ſuperior to the pitch pine of the northern States. This tree may be called the ſtaple commodity of North-Carolina. It affords pitch, tar, turpentine, and various kinds of lumber, which together conſtitute at leaſt one half of the exports of this State. This pine is of two kinds, the common and the long-leaved. The latter has a leaf ſhaped like other pines, but is nearly half a yard in length, hanging in large cluſters. No country produces finer white and red oak for ſtaves. The ſwamps abound with cyprus and bay trees. The latter is an evergreen, and is food for the cattle in the winter. The leaves are ſhaped like thoſe of the peach tree, but larger. The moſt common kinds of timber in the back country are, oak, walnut, and pine. A ſpecies of oak grows in the moiſt, ſandy ſoil, called black jack. It ſeldom grows larger than eight or nine inches diameter. It

is worthy of remark, that the trees in the low country, near the ſea coaſt, are loaded with vaſt quantities of a long ſpecies of moſs, which, by abſorbing the noxious vapour that is exhaled from ſtagnated waters, contributes much, it is ſuppoſed, to the healthineſs of the climate. This hypotheſis is confirmed by experience, ſince it is commonly obſerved, that the country is much leſs healthy for a few years after having been cleared, than while in a ſtate of nature.

The miſsletoe is common in the back country. This is a ſhrub which differs in kind, perhaps, from all others. It never grows out of the earth, but on the tops of trees. The roots, if they may be ſo called, run under the bark of the tree, and incorporate with the wood. It is an evergreen, reſembling the garden box wood.

The principal wild fruit are plums, grapes, ſtrawberries, and blackberries.

The country is generally covered with herbage of various kinds, and a ſpecies of wild graſs. It abounds with medicinal plants and roots; among others are the ginſeng; Virginia ſnake root; Seneca ſnake root, an herb of the emetic kind, like ipecacuana; lion's heart, which is a ſovereign remedy for the bite of a ſerpent. A ſpecies of the ſenſitive plant is alſo found here; it is a ſort of brier, the ſtalk of which dies with the froſt, but the root lives through the winter, and ſhoots again in the ſpring. The lighteſt touch of a leaf cauſes it to turn and cling cloſe to the ſtalk. Although it ſo eaſily takes the alarm, and apparently ſhrinks from danger, in the ſpace of two minutes after it is touched, it perfectly recovers its former ſituation. The mucipula veneris is alſo found here. The rich bottoms are overgrown with canes; the leaves are green all the winter, and afford an excellent food for cattle; they are of a ſweetiſh taſte, like the ſtalks of green corn, which they in many reſpects reſemble.

There is a long ridge of lime-ſtone, which, extending in a ſouth-weſterly direction, croſſes the whole State of North-Carolina. It croſſes Dan river to the weſtward of the Sawro towns, croſſes the Yadkin about fifty miles north-weſt from Saliſbury, and thence proceeds by the way of King's mountain to the ſouthern States. No lime-ſtone has been found to the eaſtward of that ridge. A ſpecies of rock has been found in ſeveral places, of which lime is made, which is obviouſly a concretion of marine ſhells. The State is traverſed nearly in the ſame direction by an other ſtratum of rocks which paſſes near Warrenton. It is a circumſtance worthy of obſervation, that the ſprings of water

on the north-weſt ſide of the ridge are apt to fail in dry ſeaſons; on the ſouth-weſt ſide they ſeldom fail.

The river Yadkin, where it paſſes Saliſbury, is about four hundred yards broad, but it is reduced, between two hills, about twenty five miles to the ſouthward of that town, to the width of eighty or one hundred feet. For two miles it is narrow and rapid, but the moſt narrow and rapid part is not above half a mile in length. In this narrow part, ſhad are caught in the ſpring of the year by hoop-nets, in the eddies, as faſt as the ſtrongeſt men are able to throw them out. Perhaps there is not in the United States a more eligible ſituation for a large manufacturing town. Boats with forty or fifty hogſheads may paſs eaſily from theſe rapids to George-town.

CIVIL DIVISIONS.

This State is divided into eight diſtricts which are ſubdivided into fifty-four counties, as follows;

DISTRICT OF EDENTON.

Chowan,	Paſquotank,	Hertford,
Currituck	Perquimons,	Bertie.
Camden,	Gates,	Tyrrel.

DISTRICT OF WILMINGTON.

New Hanover,	Duplin,	Onſlow.
Brunſwick,	Bladen,	

DISTRICT OF NEWBERN.

Craven,	Johnſton,	Wayne,
Beaufort,	Pitt,	Hyde,
Carteret,	Dobbs,	Jones.

Theſe three diſtricts are on the ſea-coaſt, extending from the Virginia line ſouthward, to South-Carolina.

DISTRICT OF HALIFAX.

Halifax,	Edgecombe,	Franklin,
Northampton,	Warren,	Naſh.
Martin,		

DISTRICT OF HILLSBOROUGH.

Orange,	Granville,	Wake,
Chatham,	Caſwell,	Randolph.

DISTRICT OF SALISBURY.

Rowan,	Iredell,	Stokes,
Mecklenburgh,	Surry,	Guilford.
Rockingham,	Montgomery.	

DISTRICT OF MORGAN.

Burke,	Lincoln,	Wilkes.
Ruthford.		

DISTEICT OF FAYETTE.

Cumberland,	Richmond,	Sampſon,
Moore,	Robiſon,	Anſon.

Theſe five diſtricts, beginning on the Virginia line, cover the whole State weſt of the three maritime diſtricts before mentioned; and the greater part of them extend quite acroſs the State from north to ſouth.

CHIEF TOWNS.

Newbern, Edenton, Wilmington, Haliſax, Hillſborough, Saliſbury, and Fayetteville, each in their turns have been the ſeat of the General Aſſembly. At preſent they have no capital. According to the conſtitution of this State, the General aſſemblies are to meet at any place they think fit on their own adjournments. The effect of this power was ſuch as might be expected, in a ſtate where there is no very large city or town nearly central; it was the ſource of conſtant intrigue and diſquietude. The Aſſembly ſeldom ſat twice in ſucceſſion in the ſame place. The public officers were ſcattered over every part of the country. You could ſeldom viſit the governor, the ſecretary, the treaſurer, or the comptroller, in leſs riding than two or three hundred miles. Hence records were loſt, accounts were badly kept, and the State from that ſingle misfortune, is ſuppoſed to have loſt more than a million of dollars. It was equally clear to all parties that the government ſhould not be itenirant, and the convention which met in the year 1788, to conſider of the new federal conſtitution according to their inſtructions, took this part of their own conſtitution into their conſideretion, and by a very ſmall majority reſolved that the ſeat of government ſhould be fixed at ſome place to be agreed on by commiſſioners, within ten miles of Wake courthouſe. This is a healthy and central ſituation. But an act of the legiſlature became neceſſary to give effect to this ordinance, and in ſubſequent aſſemblies, there has been generally a ſimilar majority,

that is to ſay, a majority of one or two to oppoſe the ordinance. The profits that might ariſe to a few publicans and ſhopkeepers at ſome other town in which the Aſſembly might meet, occaſioned more activity and procured more votes than the patriotic deſire of terminating diſputes and ſecuring a quiet, orderly, and good government. For the honour of reaſon, by which men ſhould be goverened rather than by paſſion, it is to be wiſhed that their legiſlatures, in ſimilar circumſtances, had not acted in a ſimilar manner.

The General Aſſembly of the State, at their ſeſſion in December, 1791, however, paſſed a law for carrying the ordinance into effect, and appropriated ten thouſand pounds towards erecting public buildings.

NEWBERN.

Newbern is the largeſt town in the State. It ſtands on a flat, ſandy point of land, formed by the confluence of the rivers Neus on the north, and Trent on the ſouth. Oppoſite the town, the Neus is about a mile and a half, and the Trent three quarters of a mile wide. The town contains about four hundred houſes,* all built of wood, excepting the *ci devant* palace, the church, the jail and two dwelling houſes, which are of brick. The palace is a building erected by the province before the revolution, and was formerly the reſidence of the governors. It is large and elegant, two ſtories high, with two wings for offices, a little advanced in front towards the town; theſe wings are connected with the principal building by a circular arcade. This once handſome and well-furniſhed building, is now much out of repair. One of the halls is now uſed for a dancing, and the other for a ſchool-room; which are the only preſent uſes of this palace. The arms of the king of Great Britain ſtill appear in a pediment in front of the building. The Epiſcopal church is a ſmall brick building, with a bell. It is the only houſe for public worſhip in the place. A rum diſtillery has lately been erected in this town. It is the county town of Cravan county, and has a court-houſe and gaol. The court-houſe is raiſed on brick arches ſo as to render the lower part a convenient market-place; but the principal marketing is done with the people in their canoes and boats at the river ſide.

EDENTON.

Edenton is ſituated on the north ſide of Albemarle ſound; and has about one hundred and fifty indifferent wood houſes, and a

* In September, 1791, near one third part of this town was conſumed by fire.

few handſome buildings. It has a brick church for Epiſcopalians, which for many years has been much neglected, and ſerves only to ſhew that the people once had a regard, at leaſt, for the externals of religion. Its local ſituation is advantageous for trade but not for health. It is the county town of Chowan county, and has a court-houſe and gaol. In or near the town lived the proprietary, and the firſt of the royal governors.

WILMINGTON.

Wilmington is a town of about one hundred and eighty houſes, ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the eaſtern branch of Cape Fear or Clarendon river, thirty-four miles from the ſea. The courſe of the river, as it paſſes by the town is from north to ſouth, and is about one hundred and fifty yards wide,

In 1786 a fire broke out, ſuppoſed to have been kindled by the negroes, and conſumed about twenty-five or thirty houſes. The town is rebuilding ſlowly.

HILLSBOROUGH.

Hillſborough is an inland town, ſituated in a high, healthy, and fertile country, one hundred and eighty miles north-weſt from Newbern. It is ſettled by about ſixty or ſeventy families.

SALISBURY.

Saliſbury is agreeably ſituated, about five miles from Yadkin river, and contains about ninety dwelling houſes.

HALIFAX.

Halifax is a neat little town ; it ſtands on the weſtern bank of the Roanoke, about ſix miles below the falls, and has about thirty or forty dwelling houſes.

FAYETTEVILLE.

Fayetteville ſtands on the weſt ſide of Clarendon, commonly called Cape Fear river, and about a mile from its banks. It is well-built on both ſides of a creek, from which the town was formerly called Croſs Creek. Two ſmall creeks unite near the town, and an iſland, juſt below the junction, divides the creek. Some perſon took it into his head that the creeks croſſed each other without mixing their waters: and the ſtrangeneſs or improbability of the thing, as in many other caſes, ſeems to have been the reaſon, why it was believed. Since the peace this

town has flouriſhed, but a conſiderable part of it was burnt in 1792. It is ſituated on a ſettlement of Scotch Highlanders.

WASHINGTON.

Waſhington is ſituated in the county of Beaufort, on the north ſide of Tar river, in latitude 35° 30′, diſtant from Ocrecok inlet ninety miles. From this town is exported tobacco of the Peterſburgh, quality pork, beef, Indian corn, peas, beans, pitch, tar, turpentine, roſin, &c. and pine boards, ſhingles and oak ſtaves. About one hundred and thirty veſſels enter annually at the cuſtom-houſe in this town.

GREENEVILLE.

Greeneville, ſo called after Major-general Nathaniel Greene, is ſituated in Pitt county, on the ſouth bank of Tar river, in latitude 35° 35′, diſtant from Ocrecok inlet one hundred and ten miles. At this town there is an academy eſtabliſhed, called the Pitt Academy.

TARBOROUGH.

Tarborough is ſituated in the county of Edgecomb, on the ſouth bank of Tar river, in latitude 35° 45′, diſtant from Ocrecok inlet one hundred and forty miles. At this town large quantities of tobacco of the Peterſburgh quality, pork, beef and Indian corn, are collected for exportation.

POPULATION.

From the marſhal's return it appears, that the number of inhabitants, in the year 1791, was three hundred and ninety-three thouſand ſeven hundred and fifty-one, of whom two hundred and ninety-three thouſand one hundred and ſeventy-nine were citizens: perhaps there are few inſtances of ſuch a rapid increaſe of inhabitants as we find in this State; in the year 1710, we are well aſſured, that the number of inhabitants in North-Carolina did not exceed ſix thouſand: this extraordinary increaſe muſt ariſe, in a great meaſure, from the migration of inhabitants from other States, or from diſtant countries; but this will not fully account for the preſent ſtate of population in North-Carolina. By examining the return, we find there are one hundred and forty-ſeven thouſand four hundred and ninety-four white male inhabitants; we alſo find, that the number of males under ſixteen years exceed the number above

ſixteen, by ſeven thouſand five hundred and eighteen, which is about one nineteenth of the whole. This is a very remarkable fact, as it reſpects the increaſe of the human ſpecies. We find a ſmall difference in the States of Delaware, Virginia and Georgia, in favour of thoſe under ſixteen. The difference in Kentucky is ſimilar to that of North-Carolina. In the other States, the number above ſixteen is greateſt, and in the ſeveral kingdoms in Europe, as far as our information reaches, the inhabitants above ſixteen are univerſally much more numerous than thoſe under that age. The great difference that appears in North-Carolina in favour of children, cannot be explained by ſuppoſing that the climate is ſickly, for we know that ſuch climates are equally fatal to young and old. The idea too of a ſickly climate does not accord with the prodigious increaſe of inhabitants in this State, nor with another fact, viz. that there is a conſiderable proportion of very old inhabitants in the State. To explain this we muſt obſerve, that the human ſpecies, and all other animals, are found to increaſe in proportion to the comforts of life, and the eaſe with which they can ſupport their progeny. Remove the rigours of an inhoſpitable climate, and the more uniform diſſuaſive to matrimony, *the apprehended difficulty of ſupporting a family*, and the human ſpecies would double not in twenty but in fifteen years. In North-Carolina, neither the cold of winter, nor the heat of ſummer, are in the back country at all diſagreeable: land continues to be plenty and cheap; grain is raiſed with ſo much eaſe, and the trouble of providing for cattle in winter ſo trifling, that a man ſupports his family with half the labour that is required in the cold climates. Under theſe advantages, we are not to wonder that people in all ranks of life ſhould marry very young; we have heard of grandmothers in this State who were not more than twenty-ſeven years old.

The following tables ſhew the proportion of population in the different parts of the State, according to the return made in 1791.

EDENTON DISTRICT.

COUNTIES.	Free white males of 16 years and upwards.	Free white males under 16 years of age.	Free white females.	All other free persons.	Slaves.	Total.
Chowan, including town of Edenton,	641	559	1182	41	2588	5011
Perquimons,	885	923	1717	37	1878	5440
Pasquotank,	951	1034	1810	79	1623	5497
Camden,	727	758	1480	30	1038	4033
Currituck,	1017	1024	1960	115	1103	5219
Gates,	790	775	1515	93	2219	5392
Hertford,	814	823	1533	216	2442	5828
Bertie,	1762	1841	3514	348	5141	12606
Tyrrel,	807	959	1777	35	1166	4744
	8394	8696	16488	994	19198	53770

NEWBERN DISTRICT.

Craven, including town of Newbern,	1709	1538	3227	337	3658	10469
Jones,	736	794	1541	70	1681	4822
Johnston,	1039	1119	2082	64	1329	5634
Dobbs,	1162	1293	2478	45	1915	6893
Wayne,	1064	1219	2256	37	1557	6133
Pitt,	1461	1507	2915	25	2367	8275
Beaufort,	951	926	1824	129	1632	5462
Hyde,	795	718	1522	37	1048	4120
Carteret,	718	707	1502	92	713	3732
	9635	9821	19348	836	15900	55540

WILMINGTON DISTRICT.

New-Hanover, including Wilmington,	834	695	1497	67	3738	6831
Brunswick,	380	398	779	3	1511	3071
Bladen,	837	830	1683	58	1676	5084
Duplin,	1035	1187	2054	3	1383	5662
Onslow,	828	930	1788	84	1748	5387
	3914	4040	7801	215	20059	26035

FAYETTE DISTRICT.

COUNTIES.	Free white males of 16 years and upwards.	Free white males under 16 years of age.	Free white females.	All other free persons.	Slaves.	Total.
Cumberland, including Fayetteville,	1791	1557	3059	83	2181	8671
Moore,	849	968	1570	12	371	3770
Richmond,	1096	1205	2116	55	583	5055
Robiſon,	1131	1141	2244	277	533	5326
Sampſon,	1145	1281	2310	140	1182	6065
Anſon,	1034	1183	2047	41	828	5133
	7046	7[illegible]	13352	608	5679	34020

HALIFAX DISTRICT.

Halifax, including town of Halifax,	1835	1778	3403	443	6506	13965
Northampton,	1334	1273	2503	468	4409	9981
Warren,	1070	1319	2220	68	4720	9397
Franklin,	1089	1400	2316	37	2717	7559
Naſh,	1143	1426	2627	188	2009	7393
Edgecombe,	1659	1879	3495	70	3152	10255
Martin,	1064	1009	2022	96	1889	6080
	9194	10084	18586	1304	25402	64630

HILLSBOROUGH DISTRICT.

Orange, including Hillſborough,	2433	2709	4913	101	2060	12216
Granville,	1581	1873	3050	315	4163	10982
Caſwell,	1801	2110	3377	72	2736	10096
Wake,	1772	2089	3688	180	2463	10192
Chatham,	1756	2160	3664	9	1632	9221
Randolph,	1582	1952	3266	24	452	7276
	10925	12893	21958	701	13506	59983

SALISBURY DISTRICT.

COUNTIES.	Free white males of 16 years and upwards.	Free white males under 16 years.	Free white females.	All other free persons.	Slaves.	Total.
Rowan, including Salisbury, -	3288	3837	6864	97	1742	15828
Mecklenburgh, -	2378	2573	4771	70	1603	11395
Iredell, - - -	1118	1217	2239	3	858	5435
Montgomery, -	967	1121	1798	5	834	4725
Guilford, - - -	1607	1799	3242	27	516	7191
Rockingham - -	1173	1413	2491	10	1100	6187
Surry, - - - -	1531	1762	3183	17	698	7191
Stokes, - - -	1846	2104	3778	13	787	8528
	13908	15826	28366	242	8138	66480

MORGAN DISTRICT.

Burke, - - - -	1716	2111	3685	11	595	8118
Wilkes, - - - -	1614	2252	3726	2	549	8143
Rutherford, - - -	1584	2145	3463	2	614	7808
Lincoln, - - - -	2058	2294	3937		935	9224
	6972	8802	14811	15	2693	33293

SUMMARY OF POPULATION.

Edenton Diſtrict, -	8394	8696	16488	994	19198	53770
Newbern do. - -	9635	9821	19348	836	15900	55540
Wilmington do. - -	3914	4049	7801	215	10053	26035
Fayette do. - - -	7046	7335	13352	608	5679	34020
Halifax do. - - -	9194	10084	18586	1364	25402	64630
Hillſborough do. -	10935	12893	21958	701	13506	59983
Saliſbury do. - - -	13908	15826	28366	242	8138	66480
Morgan do. - - -	6972	8802	14811	15	2693	33293
	69988	77506	140710	4975	100571	393271

To the return the following note was prefixed:

"The Marſhal begs leave to obſerve, that the aſſiſtants having not returned the numbers of the different towns ſeparate from the counties in which they were ſituated, renders it out

of his power to make a diſtinct return of them, but is ſatisfied that not one town in North-Carolina contains more than two thouſand inhabitants.

What is the preſent number of inhabitants cannot be determined with preciſion; but, on the moſt moderate calculation, they muſt be more than four hundred and ſeventy thouſand.

RELIGION AND CHARACTER.

The weſtern parts of this State, which have been ſettled within the laſt forty years, are chiefly inhabited by Preſbyterians from Pennſylvania, the deſcendants of people from the north of Ireland, and are exceedingly attached to the doctrines, diſcipline and uſages of the church of Scotland. They are a regular, induſtrious people. Almoſt all the inhabitants between the Catawba and Yadkin rivers are of this denomination, and they are in general well ſupplied with a ſenſible and learned miniſtry. There are interſperſed ſome ſettlements of Germans, both Lutherans and Calviniſts, but they have very few miniſters.

The Moravians have ſeveral flouriſhing ſettlements in this State. In 1751 they purchaſed of Lord Granville one hundred thouſand acres of land, between the Dan and Yadkin rivers, about ten miles ſouth of Pilot mountain, in Surry county, and called it Wachovia, after an eſtate of Count Zinzendorf, in Auſtria. In 1755, this tract, by an act of Aſſembly, was made a ſeparate pariſh by the name of Dobb's pariſh. The firſt ſettlement called Bethabara, was begun in 1753 by a number of the brethren from Pennſylvania, in a very wild uninhabited country, which, from that time, began to be rapidly ſettled by farmers from the Middle States.

In 1759, Bethany, a regular village, was laid out and ſettled. In 1766, Salem, which is now their principal ſettlement, and nearly in the center of Wachovia, was ſettled by a collection of tradeſmen. The ſame conſtitution and regulations are eſtabliſhed here as in other regular ſettlements of the united brethren. Beſides, there are in Wachovia three churches, one in Friedland, one in Friedburgh, and another at Hope, each of which has a miniſter of the brethren's church. Theſe people, by their induſtry and attention to various branches of manufacture, are very uſeful to the country around them.

The friends, or Quakers, have a ſettlement at New-Garden, in Guilford county, and ſeveral congregations at Perquimins

and Paſquotank. The Methodiſts and Baptiſts are numerous and increaſing. Beſides the denominations already mentioned, there is a very numerous body of people in this, and in all the Southern States, who cannot properly be claſſed with any ſect of Chriſtians, having never made any profeſſion of Chriſtianity.

The inhabitants of Wilmington, Newbern, Edenton, and Halifax diſtricts, making about three-fifths of the State, once profeſſed themſelves of the Epiſcopal church; the clergy in theſe diſtricts were chiefly miſſionaries, and in forming their political attachments, at the commencement of the late war, perſonal ſafety, or real intereſt, or perhaps a conviction of the impolicy of oppoſing Great-Britain, from whence they received their ſalaries, induced them almoſt univerſally to declare themſelves in favour of the Britiſh government, and to emigrate. There may be one or two of the original clergy remaining, but at preſent they have no particular paſtoral charge; indeed the inhabitants in the diſtricts above mentioned ſeem now to be making the experiment, whether Chriſtianity can exiſt long in a country where there is no viſible Chriſtian church: the Baptiſts and Methodiſts have ſent a number of miſſionary preachers into theſe diſtricts, and ſome of them have large congregations; it is probable, that one or the other of theſe denominations, and perhaps both, may acquire conſiſtency, and eſtabliſh permanent churches.

The North-Carolinians are moſtly planters, and live from half a mile to three and four miles from each other on their plantations; they have a plentiful country, no ready market for their produce, little intercourſe with ſtrangers, and a natural fondneſs for ſociety, which induce them to be hoſpitable to ſtrangers.

The general topics of converſation among the men, when cards, the bottle, and occurrences of the day do not intervene are negroes, the prices of indigo, rice, tobacco, &c. They appear to have little taſte for the ſciences. Political inquiries and philoſophical diſquiſitions are attended to but by a few men of genius and induſtry, and are too laborious at preſent for the minds of the people at large in this State. Leſs attention and reſpect are paid to the women here, than in thoſe parts of the United States where the inhabitants have made greater progreſs in the arts of civiliſed life; indeed it is a truth confirmed by obſervation, that in proportion to the advancement of civilization, in the ſame proportion will reſpect for the women be increaſed; ſo that the progreſs of civilization in countries, in

ſtates, in towns, and in families, may be marked by the degree of attention which is paid by huſbands to their wives, and by the young men to the young women.

Temperance and induſtry are not to be reckoned among the virtues of the North-Carolinians; the time which they waſte in drinking, idling and gambling, leaves them very little opportunity to improve their plantations or their minds; the improvement of the former is left to their overſeers and negroes; the improvement of the latter is too often neglected. Were the time which is thus waſted ſpent in cultivating the ſoil, and in treaſuring up knowledge, they might be both wealthy and learned: for they have a productive country, and are by no means deſtitute of genius.

Time that is not employed in ſtudy or uſeful labour, in every country, is generally ſpent in hurtful or innocent exerciſes, according to the cuſtom of the place, or the taſte of the parties. The citizens of North-Carolina, who are not better employed, ſpend their time in drinking, or gaming at cards and dice, cock-fighting or horſe-racing.

A ſtrange and very barbarous practice prevailed among the lower claſs of the people before the revolution, in the back parts of Virginia, North and South Carolinas, and Georgia; it was called *gouging*, and was neither more nor leſs than a man when boxing, putting out the eye of his antagoniſt with his thumb. HOW QUICK UNDER A MILD AND UPRIGHT GOVERNMENT, IS THE REFORMATION OF MANNERS! In a particular county in this State, where, at the quarterly court twenty years ago, a day ſeldom paſſed without ten or fifteen boxing matches, it is now a rare thing to hear of a fight.

North-Carolina, as already obſerved, has had a rapid growth; in the year 1710 it contained but about twelve hundred fencible men; it is now, in point of numbers, the fourth State in the Union. During this amazing progreſs in population, which has been greatly aided by emigrations from Pennſylvania, Virginia, and other States, while each has been endeavouring to increaſe his fortune, the human mind, like an unweeded garden, has been ſuffered to ſhoot up in wild diſorder. But when we conſider, that, during the late revolution, this State produced many diſtinguiſhed patriots and politicians, that ſhe ſent her thouſands to the defence of Georgia and South-Carolina, and gave occaſional ſuccours to Virginia; when we conſider, too, the difficulties ſhe had to encounter from a mixture of inhabitants, collected from different parts, ſtrangers to each other,

and intent upon gain, we ſhall find many things in their general character worthy of praiſe.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.

A great proportion of the produce of the back country, conſiſting of tobacco, wheat, Indian corn, &c. is carried to market in South-Carolina and Virginia. The ſouthern interior countries carry their produce to Charleſton; and the northern to Peterſburgh in Virginia. The exports from the lower parts of the State are tar, pitch, turpentine, roſin, Indian corn, boards, ſcantling, ſtaves, ſhingles, furs, tobacco, pork, lard, tallow, bees-wax, myrtle-wax, and a few other articles, amounting in the year, ending September 30th, 1791, to five hundred and twenty-four thouſand five hundred and forty-eight dollars. Their trade is chiefly with the Weſt-Indies and the northern States. From the latter they receive flour, cheeſe, cyder, apples, potatoes, iron wares, cabinet wares, hats, and dry goods of all kinds imported from Great-Britain, France, and Holland, teas, &c. From the Weſt-Indies, rum, ſugar, and coffee.

It is no uncommon thing for the farmer to mark from five hundred to one thouſand calves in a year. No farther attention is paid to them till they are fit for ſlaughter; then they are taken up, killed, barrelled and ſent to the Weſt-India market. Their pork is raiſed with as little trouble; large quantities of which before the war, were ſent to New-England, particularly to Boſton and Salem.

The late war, by which North-Carolina was greatly convulſed, put a ſtop to ſeveral iron works. At preſent there are four or five furnaces in the State that are in blaſt, and a proportionable number of forges. There is one in Guildford county, one in Surry, and one in Wilkes, all on the Yadkin, and one in Lincoln. The quality of the iron is excellent.

One paper mill has lately been erected at Salem by the Moravians to great advantage.

COLLEGES AND ACADEMIES.

The General Aſſembly of North-Carolina, in December, 1789, paſſed a law incorporating forty gentlemen, five from each diſtrict, as truſtees of the univerſity of North-Carolina; to this univerſity they gave, by a ſubſequent law, all the debts due to the State from ſheriffs or other holders of public money, and which had been due before the year 1783; they alſo gave it all

eſcheated property within the State. Whenever the truſtees ſhall have collected a ſufficient ſum of the old debts, or from the ſale of eſcheated property, the value of which is conſiderable, to pay the expenſe of erecting buildings; they are to fix on a proper place, and proceed in the finiſhing of them: a conſiderable quantity of land has already been given to the univerſity, and the General Aſſembly, in December, 1791, loaned five thouſand pounds to the truſtees, to enable them to proceed immediately with the buildings.

There is a very good academy at Warrenton, another at Williamſborough in Granville, and three or four others in the State, of conſiderable note.

CONSTITUTION.

DECLARATION OF RIGHTS.

I. That all political power is veſted in and derived from the people only.

II. That the people of this State ought to have the ſole and excluſive right of regulating the internal government and police thereof.

III. That no man, or ſet of men are entitled to excluſive or ſeparate emoluments or privileges from the community, but in conſideration of public ſervices.

IV. That the legiſlative, executive, and ſupreme judicial powers of government ought to be for ever ſeparate and diſtinct from each other.

V. That all powers of ſuſpending laws, or the execution of laws, by any authority, without the conſent of the repreſentatives of the people, is injurious to their rights, and ought not to be exerciſed.

VI. That elections of members to ſerve as repreſentatives in General Aſſembly ought to be free.

VII. That in all criminal proſecutions every man has a right to be informed of the accuſation againſt him, and to confront the accuſers and witneſſes with other teſtimony, and ſhall not be compelled to give evidence againſt himſelf.

VIII. That no freeman ſhall be put to anſwer any criminal charge but by indictment, preſentment, or impeachment,

IX. That no freeman ſhall be convicted of any crime, but by the unanimous verdict of a jury of good and lawful men, in open court as heretofore uſed.

X. That exceſſive bail ſhall not be required, nor exceſſive fines impoſed, nor cruel or unuſual puniſhments inflicted.

XI. That general warrants, whereby an officer or meſſenger may be commanded to ſearch ſuſpected places without evidence of the fact committed, or to ſeize any perſon or perſons not named, whoſe offences are not particularly deſcribed and ſupported by evidence, are dangerous to liberty, and ought not to be granted.

XII. That no freeman ought to be taken, impriſoned, or diſſeized of his freehold, liberties, or privileges, or outlawed or exiled, or in any manner deſtroyed or deprived of his life, liberty, or property, but by the law of the land.

XIII. That every freeman reſtrained of his liberty, is intitled to a remedy, to inquire into the lawfulneſs thereof, and to remove the ſame if unlawful, and that ſuch remedy ought not to be denied or delayed.

XIV. That in all controverſies at law reſpecting property, the ancient mode of trial by jury is one of the beſt ſecurities of the rights of the people, and ought to remain ſacred and inviolable.

XV. That the freedom of the preſs is one of the great bulwarks of liberty, and therefore ought never to be reſtrained.

XVI. That the people of this State ought not to be taxed, or made ſubject to the payment of any impoſt or duty, without the conſent of themſelves, or their repreſentatives in General Aſſembly freely given.

XVII. That the people have a right to bear arms for the defence of the State; and as ſtanding armies in time of peace are dangerous to liberty, they ought not to be kept up; and that the military ſhould be kept under ſtrict ſubordination to, and governed by the civil power.

XVIII. That the people have a right to aſſemble together, to conſult for their common good, to inſtruct their repreſentatives, and to apply to the legiſlature for redreſs of grievances.

XIX. That all men have a natural and unalienable right to worſhip Almighty God according to the dictates of their own conſciences.

XX. That for redreſs of grievances, and for amending and ſtrengthening the laws, elections ought to be often held.

XXI. That a frequent recurrence to fundamental principles is abſolutely neceſſary to preſerve the bleſſings of liberty.

XXII. That no hereditary emoluments, privileges, or honours ought to be granted or conferred in this State.

XXIII. That perpetuities and monopolies are contrary to the genius of a free ſtate, and ought not be allowed.

XXIV. That retroſpective laws, puniſhing facts committed before the exiſtence of ſuch laws, and by them only declared criminal, are oppreſſive, unjuſt, and incompatible with liberty, wherefore no *ex poſt facto* law ought to be made.

XXV. The property of the ſoil in a free government being one of the eſſential rights of the collective body of the people, it is neceſſary, in order to avoid future diſputes, that the limits of the State ſhould be aſcertained with preciſion; and as the former temporary line between North and South-Carolina was confirmed and extended by commiſſioners, appointed by the legiſlatures of the two States, agreeable to the order of the late King George II. in council, that line, and that only, ſhould be eſteemed the ſouthern boundary of this State; that is to ſay, beginning on the ſea ſide at a cedar ſtake, at or near the mouth of Little river, being the ſouthern extremity of Brunſwick county, and running from thence a north-weſt courſe through the Boundary Houſe which ſtands in thirty-three degrees fifty-ſix minutes, to thirty-five degrees north latitude, and from thence a weſt courſe, ſo far as is mentioned in the charter of King Charles II. to the late proprietors of Carolina. Therefore all the territory, ſeas, waters, and harbours, with their appurtenances, lying between the line above deſcribed, and the ſouthern line of the State of Virginia, which begins on the ſea-ſhore, in thirty-ſix degrees thirty-minutes north latitude, and from thence runs weſt, agreeable to the ſaid charter of King Charles, are the right and property of the people of this State, to be held by them in ſovereignty; any partial line, without the conſent of the legiſlature of this State, at any time thereafter directed or laid out in any wiſe nothwithſtanding. Provided always, that this declaration of rights ſhall not prejudice any nation or nations of Indians from enjoying ſuch hunting grounds as may have been, or hereafter ſhall be ſecured to them by any former or future legiſlature of this State. And provided alſo, That it ſhall not be conſtrued ſo as to prevent the eſtabliſhment of one or more governments weſtward of this State, by conſent of the legiſlature. And provided further, That nothing herein contained ſhall affect the titles or poſſeſſions of in-

dividuals, holding or claiming under the laws heretofore in force, or grants heretofore made by the late King George II. or his predeceſſors, or the late lords proprietors, or any of them.

FRAME OF GOVERNMENT.

Whereas allegiance and protection are in their nature reciprocal, and the one ſhould of right be refuſed when the other is withdrawn; and whereas George the Third, King of Great-Britain, and late ſovereign of the Britiſh American Colonies, hath not only withdrawn from them his protection, but by an act of Britiſh legiſlature, declared the inhabitants of theſe States out of the protection of the Britiſh crown, and all their property found upon the high ſeas liable to be ſeized and confiſcated to the uſes mentioned in the ſaid act; and the ſaid George the Third has alſo ſent fleets and armies to proſecute a cruel war againſt them, for the purpoſe of reducing the inhabitants of the ſaid Colonies to a ſtate of abject ſlavery; in conſequence whereof, all government under the ſaid King, within the ſaid Colonies hath ceaſed, and a total diſſolution of government in many of them hath taken place: and whereas the continental Congreſs having conſidered the premiſes, and other previous violations of the rights of the good people of America, have therefore declared, that the thirteen United Colonies are of right wholly abſolved from all allegiance to the Britiſh crown, or any other foreign juriſdiction whatſoever; and that the ſaid Colonies now are, and forever ſhall be, free and independent States; wherefore, in our preſent ſtate, in order to prevent anarchy and confuſion, it becomes neceſſary that government ſhould be eſtabliſhed in this State; therefore we, the repreſentatives of the freeman of North-Carolina, choſen and aſſembled in Congreſs, for the expreſs purpoſe of framing a conſtitution, under the authority of the people, moſt conducive to their happineſs and proſperity, do declare, that a government for this State ſhall be eſtabliſhed in manner and form following, to wit:

I. That the legiſlative authority ſhall be veſted in two diſtinct branches, *both dependent on the people*, to wit, a SENATE, and HOUSE OF COMMONS.

II. That the Senate ſhall be compoſed of repreſentatives annually choſen by ballot, one for each county in the State.

III. That the Houſe of Commons ſhall be compoſed of repreſentatives annually choſen by ballot, two for each county, and

one for each of the towns of Edenton, Newbern, Wilmington, Saliſbury, Hillſborough, and Halifax.

IV. That the Senate and Houſe of Commons, aſſembled for the purpoſe of legiſlation, ſhall be denominated, THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY.

V. That each member of the Senate ſhall have uſually reſided in the county in which he is choſen, for one year immediately preceding his election, and for the ſame time ſhall have poſſeſſed and continue to poſſeſs, in the county which he repreſents, not leſs than three hundred acres of land in fee.

VI. That each member of the Houſe of Commons ſhall have uſually reſided in the county in which he is choſen, for one year immediately preceding his election, and for ſix months ſhall have poſſeſſed and continue to poſſeſs in the county which he repreſents, not leſs than one hundred acres of land in fee, or for the term of his own life.

VII. That all freemen of the age of twenty-one years, who have been inhabitants of any one county within the State twelve months immediately preceding the day of any election, and poſſeſſed of a freehold within the ſame county, of fifty acres of land for ſix months next before, and at the day of election, ſhall be entitled to vote for a member of the Senate.

VIII. That all freemen of the age of twenty-one years, who have been inhabitants of any county within the State twelve months immediately preceding the day of any election, and ſhall have paid public taxes, ſhall be entitled to vote for members of the Houſe of Commons for the county in which he reſides.

IX. That all perſons poſſeſſed of a freehold in any town in this State having a right of repreſentation, and alſo all freemen who have been inhabitants of any ſuch town twelve months next before, and at the day of election, and ſhall have paid public taxes, ſhall be entitled to vote for a member to repreſent ſuch town in the Houſe of Commons. Provided always, That this ſection ſhall not entitle any inhabitants of ſuch town to vote for members of the Houſe of Commons for the county in which he may reſide, nor any freeholder in ſuch county who reſides without or beyond the limits of ſuch town, to vote for a member for ſaid town.

X. That the Senate and Houſe of Commons when met, ſhall each have power to chooſe a ſpeaker, and other their officers; be judges of

the qualifications and elections of their members; ſit upon their own adjourments from day to day; and prepare bills to be paſſed into laws. The two Houſes ſhall direct writs of election for ſupplying intermediate vacancies, and ſhall alſo jointly, by ballot, adjourn themſelves to any future day and place.

XI. That all bills ſhall be read three times in each Houſe before they paſs into laws, and be ſigned by the ſpeaker of both Houſes.

XII. That every perſon who ſhall be choſen a member of the Senate or Houſe of Commons, or appointed to any office or place of truſt, before taking his ſeat, or entering upon the execution of his office, ſhall take an oath to the State, and all officers ſhall alſo take an oath of office.

XIII. That the General Aſſembly ſhall, by joint ballot of both Houſes, appoint judges of the ſupreme courts of law and equity, judges of admiralty, and attorney-general, who ſhall be commiſſioned by the governor, and hold their offices during good behaviour.

XIV. That the Senate and Houſe of Commons ſhall have power to appoint the generals and field officers of the militia, and all officers of the regular army of this State.

XV. That the Senate and Houſe of Commons, jointly, at their firſt meeting after each annual election, ſhall by ballot elect a governor for one year, who ſhall not be eligible to that office longer than three years in ſix ſucceſſive years. That no perſon under thirty years of age, and who has not been a reſident in this State above five years, and having in the State a freehold in lands and tenements above the value of one thouſand pounds, ſhall be eligible as a governor.

XVI. That the Senate and Houſe of Commons, jointly, at their firſt meeting after each annual election, ſhall by ballot elect ſeven perſons to be a council of ſtate for one year, who ſhall adviſe the governor in the execution of his office, and that four members ſhall be a quorum. Their advice and proceedings ſhall be entered in a journal to be kept for that purpoſe only, and ſigned by the members preſent to any part of which any member preſent may enter his diſſent. And ſuch journals ſhall be laid before the General Aſſembly, when called for by them.

XVII. That there ſhall be a ſeal of this State, which ſhall be kept by the governor, and uſed by him as occaſion may require;

and ſhall be called, *The Great Seal of the State of North-Carolina*, and ſhall be affixed to all grants and commiſſions.

XVIII. The governor for the time being ſhall be Captain-general and commander in chief of the militia; and in the receſs of the General Aſſembly ſhall have power, by and with the advice of the Council of State, to embody the militia for the public ſafety.

XIX. That the governor for the time being ſhall have power to draw for, and apply ſuch ſums of money as ſhall be voted by the General Aſſembly for the contingencies of government, and be accountable to them for the ſame. He alſo may, by and with the advice of the Council of State, lay embargoes, or prohibit the exportation of any commodity, for any term not exceeding thirty days at any one time, in the receſs of the General Aſſembly; and ſhall have the power of granting pardons and reprieves, except where the proſecution ſhall be carried on by the General Aſſemby, or the law ſhall otherwiſe direct; in which caſe he may, in the receſs, grant a reprieve until the next ſitting of the General Aſſembly; and may exerciſe all the other executive powers of government, limited and reſtrained as by this Conſtitution is mentioned, and according to the laws of the State. And on his death, inabilty or abſence from the State, the ſpeaker of the Senate for the time being, and in caſe of his death inability, or abſence from the State, the ſpeaker of the Houſe of Commons, ſhall exerciſe the powers of government after ſuch death, or during ſuch abſence or inability of the governor, or ſpeaker of the Senate, or until a new nomination is made by the General Aſſembly.

XX. That in every caſe where any officer, the right of whoſe appointment is by this conſtitution veſted in the General Aſſembly, ſhall during their receſs die, or his office by other means become vagant, the governor ſhall have power, with the advice of the Council of State, to fill up ſuch vacancy by granting a temporary commiſſion, which ſhall expire at the end of the next ſeſſion of the General Aſſembly.

XXI. That the governor, judges of the ſupreme court of law and equity, judges of admiralty, and attorney-general, ſhall have adequate ſalaries during their continuance in office.

XXII. That the General Aſſembly ſhall, by joint ballot of both Houſes, annually appoint a Treaſurer or Treaſurers for this State.

XXIII. That the governor and other officers offending againſt the State, by violating any part of this conſtitution, mal-adminiſtration, or corruption, may be proſecuted on the impeachment of the General Aſſembly, or preſentment of the grand jury of any court of ſupreme juriſdiction in this State.

XXIV. That the General Aſſembly ſhall by joint ballot of both Houſes, triennially appoint a ſecretary for this State.

XXV. That no perſons who heretofore have been, or hereafter may be receivers of public monies, ſhall have a ſeat in either Houſe of General Aſſembly, or be eligible to any office in this State, until ſuch perſon ſhall have fully accounted for and paid into the treaſury all ſums for which they may be accountable and liable.

XXVI. That no treaſurer ſhall have a ſeat either in the Senate, Houſe of Commons, or Council of State, during his continuance in that office, or before he ſhall have finally ſettled his accounts with the public for all the monies which may be in his hands, at the expiration of his office belonging to the State, and hath paid the ſame into the hands of the ſucceeding treaſurer.

XXVII. That no officer in the regular army or navy in the ſervice and pay of the United States, of this or any other State, nor any contractor or agent for ſupplying ſuch army or navy with cloathing or proviſions, ſhall have a ſeat either in the Senate, Houſe of Commons, or Council of State, or be eligible thereto; and any member of the Senate, Houſe of Commons, or Council of State, being appointed to, and accepting of ſuch office, ſhall thereby vacate his ſeat.

XXVIII. That no member of the Council of State ſhall have a ſeat either in the Senate or Houſe of Commons.

XXIX. That no judge of the ſupreme court of law or equity, or judge of admiralty, ſhall have a ſeat in the Senate, Houſe of Commons, or Council of State.

XXX. That no ſecretary of this State, attorney-general, or clerk of any court of record, ſhall have a ſeat in the Senate, Houſe of Commons, or Council of State.

XXXI. That no clergymen or preacher of the goſpel, of any denomination, ſhall be capable of being a member of either the Senate, Houſe of Commons, or Council of State, while he continues in the exerciſe of the paſtoral function.

XXXII. That no perſon who ſhall deny the being of God, or the truth of the Proteſtant religion, or the divine authority either of the Old or New Teſtament, or who ſhall hold religious principles incompatible with the freedom and ſafety of the State, ſhall be capable of holding any office, or place o truſt or profit in the civil department within this State.

XXXIII. That the juſtices of the peace within their reſpective counties in this State, ſhall in future be recommended to the governor for the time being, by the repreſentatives in General Aſſembly, and the governor ſhall commiſſion them accordingly; and the juſtices, when ſo commiſſioned, ſhall hold their offices during good behaviour, and ſhall not be removed from office by the General Aſſembly, unleſs for miſbehaviour, abſence, or inability.

XXXIV. That there ſhall be no eſtabliſhment of any one religious church or denomination in this State in preference to any other; neither ſhall any perſon, on any pretence whatſoever, be compelled to attend any place of worſhip contrary to his own faith or judgment; nor be obliged to pay for the purchaſe or any glebe, or the building of any houſe of worſhip, or for the maintenance of any miniſter or miniſtry, contrary to what he believes right, or has voluntarily and perſonally engaged to perform; but all perſons ſhall be at liberty to exerciſe their own mode of worſhip. Provided, that nothing herein contained ſhall be conſtrued to exempt preachers of treaſonable or ſeditious diſcourſes from legal trial and puniſhment.

XXXV. That no perſon in this State ſhall hold more than one lucrative office at any one time. Provided, that no appointment in the militia, or the office of a juſtice of the peace, ſhall be conſidered as a lucrative office.

XXXVI. That all commiſſions and grants ſhall run in the name of *The State of North-Carolina*, and bear teſt, and be ſigned by the governor. All writs ſhall run in the ſame manner, and bear teſt, and be ſigned by the clerks of the reſpective courts. Indictments ſhall conclude, *Againſt the peace and dignity of the State.*

XXXVII. That the delegates for this State to the Continental Congreſs, while neceſſary, ſhall be choſen annually by the General Aſſembly by ballot, but may be ſuperſeded in the mean time in the ſame manner; and no perſon ſhall be elected to ſerve in that capacity for more than three years ſucceſſively.

XXXVIII. That there ſhall be a ſheriff, coroner, or coroners, and conſtables, in each county within this State.

XXXIX. That the perſon of a debtor, where there is not a ſtrong preſumption of fraud, ſhall not be continued in priſon, after delivering up *bonâ fide*, all his eſtate, real and perſonal, for the uſe of his creditors, in ſuch manner as ſhall be hereafter regulated by law. All priſoners ſhall be bailable by ſufficient ſureties, unleſs for capital offences, when the proof is evident or the preſumption great.

XL. That every foreigner who comes to ſettle in this State, having firſt taken an oath of allegiance to the ſame, may purchaſe, or by other juſt means acquire, hold and transfer land, or other real eſtate; and after one year's reſidence ſhall be deemed a free citizen.

XLI. That a ſchool or ſchools ſhall be eſtabliſhed by the legiſlature for the convenient inſtruction of youth, with ſuch ſalaries to the maſters, paid by the public, as may enable them to inſtruct at low prices; and all uſeful learning ſhall be duly encouraged and promoted in one or more univerſities.

XLII. That no purchaſe of lands ſhall be made of the Indian natives, but on behalf of the public, by authority of the General Aſſembly.

XLIII. That the future legiſlature of this State ſhall regulate entails in ſuch manner as to prevent perpetuities.

XLIV. That the declaration of rights is hereby declared to be part of the Conſtitution of this State, and ought never to be violated on any pretence whatſoever.

XLV. That any member of either Houſe of General Aſſembly ſhall have liberty to diſſent from and proteſt againſt any act or reſolve which he may think injurious to the public, or any individual, and have the reaſons of his diſſent entered on the journals.

XLVI. That neither houſe of the General Aſſembly ſhall proceed upon public buſineſs, unleſs a majority of all the members of ſuch Houſe are actually preſent; and that upon a motion made and ſeconded, the yeas and nays upon any queſtion ſhall be taken and entered on the journals; and that the journals of the proceedings of both Houſes of the General Aſſembly ſhall be printed and made public immediately after their adjournment.

This Conſtitution is not intended to preclude the preſent Congreſs from making a temporary proviſion for the well-ordering of this State, until the General Aſſembly ſhall eſtabliſh a government agreeable to the mode herein before deſcribed.

This declaration of rights and frame of government was agreed to and reſolved upon by the repreſentatives of the freemen of the State of North-Carolina, elected and choſen for that particular purpoſe, in Congreſs aſſembled, at Halifax, December 18, 1776.

TERRITORY SOUTH OF THE OHIO,

OR THE

TENESSE GOVERNMENT.

SITUATION, EXTENT, AND BOUNDARIES.

THIS part of the territory of the United States is ſituated between 6° 20′ and 16° 30′ weſt longitude from Philadelphia, and 35° and 36° 30′ north latitude; it extends three hundred and ſixty miles in length and one hundred and five miles in breadth, and contains the whole of the tract of country ceded to the United States by the State of North-Carolina in the year 1789. It is bounded on the north by the State of Kentucky and part of Virginia, on the eaſt by a range of mountains, which ſeparates it from North-Carolina,* on the ſouth by South-Carolina and Georgia, and on the weſt by the Miſſiſſippi.

CLIMATE.

The climate in general is moderate and healthy. In the tract lying between the Great Iſland, as it is called, and the Kanhawa, the ſummers are remarkably cool, and the air rather moiſt. South-weſt of this, as far as the Indian towns, the climate is much warmer, and the ſoil better adapted to the productions of the Southern States.

The diſeaſes to which adults are moſt liable, are pleuriſies, rheumatiſms, and ſometimes, though rarely, agues and fevers: ſo healthy have been the inhabitants, that from the firſt ſettlement of the country to 1788, not a ſingle phyſician had ſettled among them. It is to the inhabitants a real advantage, that they are almoſt beyond the reach of thoſe luxuries which are enjoyed, and thoſe epidemical diſeaſes which are conſequently frequent in populous towns on the ſea coaſt. An inhabitant of this diſ-

* This range of mountains are known by the various names of the Allegany, Stone, Yellow, Iron and Bald mountains.

trict writes, " Our phyſicians are, a fine climate, healthy robuſt mothers and fathers, plain and plentiful diet, and enough of exerciſe : there is not a regular bred phyſician reſiding in the whole diſtrict."

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, &c.

Cumberland mountain, in its whole extent, from the Great Kanhawa to the Tenneſſee, conſiſts of the moſt ſtupendous piles of craggy rocks of any mountain in the weſtern country ; in ſeveral parts of it, for miles, it is inacceſſible even to the Indians, on foot ; in one place particularly, near the ſummit of the mountain, there is a moſt remarkable ledge of rocks of about thirty miles in length and two hundred feet thick, ſhewing a perpendicular face to ſouth-eaſt more noble and grand than any artificial fortification in the known world, and apparently equal in point of regularity. Through this ſtupendous pile, *according to a modern hypotheſis*, had the waters of all the upper branches of the Tenneſſee to force their way ; the attempt would have been impracticable at any other place than the one mentioned, for more than one hundred miles eaſtwardly. Here then ſeems to have been the chaſm, left by the Creator, to convey off thoſe waters which muſt otherwiſe have overflowed, and rendered uſeleſs a vaſt tract of valuable country encloſed within the mountains.

The Tenneſſee, called alſo the Cherokee, and abſurdly the Hogohege river, is the largeſt branch of the Ohio ; it riſes in the mountains of Virginia, latitude 37°, and purſues a courſe of about one thouſand miles ſouth and ſouth-weſt, nearly to latitude 34°, receiving from both ſides a number of large tributary ſtreams it then wheels about to the north in a circuitous courſe, and mingles with the Ohio, nearly ſixty miles from its mouth ; from its entrance into the Ohio to the Muſcle ſhoals, a diſtance of two hundred and fifty miles, the current is very gentle, and the river deep enough, at all ſeaſons, for the largeſt row boats : the Muſcle ſhoals are about twenty miles in length. At this place the river ſpreads to the width of three miles, and forms a number of iſlands and is of difficult paſſage, except when there is a ſwell in the river. From theſe ſhoals to the whirl or ſuck, the place where the river breaks through the Great ridge, or Cumberland mountain, is two hundred and fifty miles, the navigation all the way excellent.

The Whirl, as it is called, is in about latitude 35°; it is reckoned a greater curioſity than the burſting of the Potomack through the Blue ridge. The river, which a few miles above is half a mile wide, is here compreſſed to the width of about one hundred yards; juſt as it enters the mountain, a large rock projects from the northern ſhore in an oblique direction, which renders the bed of the river ſtill narrower, and cauſes a ſudden bend; the water of the river is of courſe, thrown with great rapidity againſt the ſouthern ſhore, whence it bounds round the point of the rock and produces the whirl, which is about eighty yards in circumference. Canoes have often been carried into the whirl, and eſcaped by the dexterity of the rowers without damage. In leſs than a mile below the whirl the river ſpreads into its common width and, except the Muſcle ſhoals already mentioned, flows beautiful and placid till it mingles with the Ohio.

Six miles above the whirl are the Chiccamogga towns, on the banks of the river, and of a large creek of the ſame name; from theſe towns to the mouth of the Hiwaſſee is ſixty miles by water, and about forty by land; this river is a ſouth branch of the Tenneſſee, and navigable till it penetrates the mountains on its ſouth ſide. The climate, the fine ſprings, and fertile plains, render the banks of this river a moſt delightful place of ſettlement. From a branch of the Hiwaſſee, called Amoia, there is a ſhort portage to a branch of the Mobile, and the road all the diſtance firm and level.

Paſſing up the Tenneſſee, ſixty miles from the mouth of the river Hiwaſſee, you come to the mouth of Peleſon or Clinch river from the north, which is large and navigable for boats upwards of two hundred miles, receiving in its courſe, beſides inferior ſtreams, Powell's river, which is nearly as large as the main river, and boatable for one hundred miles: this laſt-mentioned river runs through Powell's valley, an excellent tract of country abounding with fine ſprings.

From the Peleſon to the junction of the Holſtein and Tenneſſee is computed forty miles; this laſt is the branch which formerly gave its name to the main river, not from its ſize, but from its notoriety, having on its banks a vaſt number of Indian villages, and the chief town of Cherokee Indians, called Chota, and was therefore called Cherokee river; but the name of Tenneſſee has of late obtained a preference; it croſſes the valley at nearly right

angles with the mountains, and has on its banks a number of beautiful plains, which are chiefly improved as corn fields by the Indians. In 1788, the whites had advanced their ſettlements within ten miles of the Indian villages. Forty miles from the Tenneſſee up the Holſtein branch, comes in Frank river, vulgarly called French Broad, four or five hundred yards wide; thence, purſuing the Holſtein two hundred miles, you come to Long Iſland, which is the higheſt navigation yet uſed; thence about one hundred miles is the ſource of the river. One mile below Long-Iſland comes in North-Holſtein, and twenty miles above it the Wattago; the former is one hundred yards wide at its mouth, and with a ſmall expence might be made navigable to Campbell's Salines, ſeventy miles farther up. In the Tenneſſee and its upper branches are great numbers of fiſh, ſome of which are very large and of an excellent flavour.

The head waters of the Great Kanhawa are in the weſtern part of North-Carolina, in the moſt eaſtern ridge of the Allegany or Appalachian mountains, and ſouth of the 36° of latitude. Its head branches encircle thoſe of the Holſtein, from which they are ſeparated by the Iron mountain, through which it paſſes, ten miles above the lead mines; thence ſteering its courſe along the foot of the Allegany mountain, until it receives Little river from the eaſt, it turns to the north, which is its general courſe till it meets the Ohio. About ſixty miles from Little river it receives Green Briar river from the eaſt, which is the only tributary ſtream in all that diſtance. About forty miles below the mouth of Green Briar river, in Virginia, in the Kanhawa, is a remarkable cataract. A large rock, a little elevated in the middle, croſſes the bed of the river, over which the water ſhoots and falls about fifty feet perpendicularly, except at one ſide, where the deſcent is more gradual.

The Shawanhee, now called Cumberland river, of the ſouthern branches of the Ohio, is next in ſize to the Tenneſſee, and extends eaſtwardly nearly as far, but runs in a much more direct courſe; it is navigable for ſmall craft as far as Naſhville; from the ſouth it receives Harper's, Coney, Obey's and Clear Fork rivers; and from the north, Red and Rock Caſtle rivers, beſides many ſmaller ſtreams.

Of this territory, above half is covered with mountains which are uninhabitable; ſome of theſe, particularly Cumberland, or Great Laurel ridge, are the moſt ſtupenduous piles in the United States; they abound with ginſeng and ſtone coal. Clinch

mountain is ſouth of theſe, in which Burk's garden and Morris's nob might be deſcribed as curioſities.

The Iron mountain, which conſtitutes the boundary between this diſtrict and North-Carolina, extends from near the lead mines, on the Kanhawa, through the Cherokee county, to the ſouth of Chota, and terminates near the ſources of the Mobile. The caverns and caſcades in theſe mountains are innumerable.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

The farmers on Cumberland river, for the ſake of deſcribing their lands, diſtinguiſh them by firſt, ſecond and third quality. Land of the firſt quality will bear Indian corn or hemp, but it will not bear wheat without great reduction. Land of the ſecond quality does not bear wheat to advantage until it has been reduced by two or three crops of corn, hemp, tobacco or cotton. Land of the third bears every kind of grain that is uſually ſown on dry ground in the Atlantic States. It is agreed by all who have viſited the Cumberland ſettlement, that one hundred buſhels of Indian corn are frequently gathered from an acre of their beſt land; ſixty or ſeventy buſhels from an acre is very common, but the farmer who expects to gather ſuch a crop muſt be careful, while the corn is ſoft, to guard it againſt bears and racoons. Wheat, barley, oats, rye, buck-wheat, Indian corn, peaſe, beans, potatoes, flax, hemp, tobacco, indigo, rice and cotton, have already been planted in that ſettlement, and they all thrive in great perfection: the uſual crop of cotton is eight hundred pounds to the acre, the ſtaple is long and fine. It is alledged, however, that the lands on the ſmall rivers that run into the Miſſiſſippi, have a decided preference to thoſe on the Cumberland river, for the production of cotton and indigo. No experiments have been made on land near the Miſſiſſippi within the ceded territory; but there is a ſmall ſettlement farther down the river, within the limits of the United States, on a ſimilar ſoil, where the growth and quality of cotton is ſo remarkable, that its culture is more profitable than any other crop. The ſoil on thoſe rivers is deep and light, having a ſmall mixture of ſand with a black earth; hence, as the planters alledge, it proves favourable to the culture of all kinds of roots, as well as of indigo and cotton.

The lands on the waters of Tenneſſee and Cumberland rivers are generally well timbered; in ſome places there are glades of

rich land without timber, but theſe are not frequent nor large. The general growth is poplar, hickory, black walnut, buck eye or the horſe cheſnut, ſycamore, locuſt and the ſugar maple. The under-growth, in many places, is cane fifteen or twenty feet high, ſo cloſe together as to exclude all other plants: where the cane does not abound, we find red bud, wild plum, ſpice wood, red and white mulberry, ginſeng, Virginia and Seneka ſnake root, angelica, ſweet aniſe, ginger and wild hops. The glades are covered with clover, wild rye, buffalo graſs and pea vine. On the hills, at the head of rivers, we find ſtately red cedars; many of theſe trees are four feet in diameter, and forty feet clear of limbs.

A few years ſince, this country abounded with large herds of wild cattle, improperly called buffaloes; but the improvident or ill-diſpoſed among the firſt ſettlers have deſtroyed multitudes of them out of mere wantonneſs; they are ſtill to be found on ſome of the ſouth branches of Cumberland river. Elk, or mooſe, are ſeen in many places, chiefly among the mountains. The deer are become comparatively ſcarce, ſo that no perſon makes a buſineſs of hunting them for their ſkins only. Enough of bears and wolves yet remain. Beavers and otters are caught in plenty in the upper branches of Cumberland and Kentucky rivers.

They have pheaſants, patridges or quails, and turkies in abundance through the year. During the winter their waters are covered with ſwans, wild geeſe, brant and duck. Catfiſh have been caught in thoſe rivers that weighed above one hundred pounds, and perch that weighed above twenty pounds.

The mammoth appears to have been an inhabitant of this country, as his bones have been dug up by labourers at Campbell's Salines, on North-Holſtein, when ſinking ſalt pits; they were from three to ſeven feet below the ſurface of the earth.

Campbell's ſalines are the only ones that have yet been diſcovered on the upper branches of the Tenneſſee and on this ſide the wilderneſs, though great ſearch has been made for them. The tract which contains theſe ſalines is a great natural curioſity; it was diſcovered by Captain Charles Campbell about 1745, who was one of the firſt explorers of the weſtern country. In 1753, he procured a patent for it from the governor of Virginia. His ſon the late General William Campbell, who behaved ſo gallantly in the American war in the years 1780 and 1781, became owner of it on his death. But it was not till the time

of his death, when ſalt was very ſcarce and dear, that ſalt water was diſcovered, and ſalt made by a poor man; ſince that time, under the direction of Colonel Arthur Campbell, it has been improved to a conſiderable extent, and many thouſands of inhabitants are ſupplied from it with ſalt of a ſuperior quality, and at a low price. The tract conſiſts of about three hundred acres of flat marſh land, of as rich a ſoil as can be imagined: in this flat, pits are ſunk in order to obtain the ſalt water; the beſt is found from thirty to forty feet deep. After paſſing through the rich ſoil or mud, from ſix to ten feet, you come to a very brittle lime-ſtone rock, with cracks or chaſms, through which the ſalt water iſſues into the pits, whence it is drawn by buckets and put into the boilers, which are placed in furnaces adjoining the pits. The hills that ſurround this flat are covered with fine timber, and not far diſtant a coal mine has been diſcovered.

On Frank river, about thirty miles in a direct line from its mouth, a large, clear, medicinal ſpring has lately been diſcovered, which, on experiment, has been found to relieve various complaints of the human body; its temperature rather exceeds blood heat.

On the ſame river, nearer its mouth, a valuable lead mine has been diſcovered.

On the banks of the Holſtein are many mines of iron ore, of the beſt kind, ſome of which have been opened and worked to advantage, and enough might be made to ſupply the whole weſtern country: theſe mines are the moſt valuable, as there is ſaid to be none of this ore near the Miſſiſſippi, and very little north of the Ohio.

Up the Hiwaſſee river, in the mountains on the ſouth ſide, a mine has been diſcovered and ore taken, from which, it is ſaid, gold was extracted by an artiſt, while the Britiſh were in poſſeſſion of Georgia: it is certain, that but few Indians know the ſpot and thoſe who do are very anxious to keep it a ſecret: the gentleman who gave this information has been within view of the place. The mountain is very high and barren, and has ſeveral of the appearances deſcribed by mineraliſts. The diſcovery was made by means of the river undermining the baſe of a large cliff or ſpur of the mountain, which occaſioned a great column of the earth or rock to tumble into the water: this diſrupture diſcovered the vein of yellow metal at a great depth.

CIVIL DIVISIONS AND CHIEF TOWNS.

This territory is divided into two diſtricts, each of which is again divided into counties as follows:

WASHINGTON DISTRICT.

Waſhington,	Greene,	South, of French
Sullivan,	Hawkins,	Broad.

MERO DISTRICT.

Davidſon,	Sumner,	Tenneſſee.

The chief towns are Naſhville and Abingdon.

NASHVILLE.

This is the ſhire town of Davidſon county, and is the largeſt town in the terrtiory. The courts are held here; it has two houſes for public worſhip, and a handſomely endowed academy, eſtabliſhed in 1786.

ABINGDON.

Abingdon is the county town of Waſhington county: it contained in 1788 about twenty houſes, and was rapidly increaſing: it is about two hundred and ſixty miles from Richmond in Virginia, in a direct line, and three hundred and ten as the road runs, bearing a little to the ſouth of weſt latitude 36° 30′.

ROADS.

The following are the diſtances on the new road from Naſhville, in Davidſon county, to Fort Campbell, near the junction of Holſtein river with the Tenneſſee.

	Miles.		Miles.
From Naſhville to Stony river	9	Smith's creek -	6
Big ſpring -	6	Coney river -	11
Cedar lick -	4	Mine lick -	9
Little ſpring -	6	Falling creek -	9
Barton's creek -	4	War path -	7
Spring creek -	5	Bear creek -	18
Martin's ſpring -	5	Camp creek -	8
Blair's ſpring -	5	King's ſpring -	16
Buck ſpring -	12	Grovet's creek -	7
Fountaines -	8		

	Miles.		Miles.
From foot of Cumberland mountain -	2	To Campbell's ſtation, near Holſtein	10
Through the mountain to Emmery's river, a branch of the Peleſon	11	To the Great iſland	100
To the Pappa ford of the Peleſon or Clinch river -	12	To Abingdon in Waſhington county	35
		To Richmond in Virginia	310
		Total	635

By this new road, a pleaſant paſſage may be had to the weſtern country with carriages, as there will be only the Cumberland mountain to paſs, and that is eaſy of aſcent: and beyond it, the road is generally level and firm, abounding with fine ſprings of water.

POPULATION.

In 1765, there were but about ten families ſettled weſt of the Kanhawa, ſo many had joined them in 1773, that the ſettlement was erected into a county, and in 1776, again ſubdivided into three.—In 1788, the number of inhabitants was reckoned at forty thouſand: they muſt have greatly increaſed ſince that period—the following is the return made by the governor in 1791

WASHINGTON DISTRICT.

COUNTIES.	Free white males of 21 years and upwards.	Free white males under 21 years.	Free white females.	All other free perſons.	Slaves.	Total.
Waſhington - -	100	1792	2524	12	535	5872
Sulivan - - -	806	1242	1995	107	297	4447
Greene - - -	1293	2374	3580	40	454	7741
Hawkins - - -	1204	1970	2921	68	807	6970
South of French Broad	681	1082	1627	66	163	3619
	4993	8460	12647	293	2256	28649

MERO DISTRICT.

Davidſon - - -	639	855	1288	18	659	3459
Sumner - - -	404	582	854	8	348	2196
Tenneſſee - -	235	380	576	42	154	1387
	1278	1817	2718	68	1161	7042

To this return the following note was perfixed: There are ſeveral captains who have not as yet returned the ſchedules of the numbers of their diſtricts, namely;—in Greene county, three—in Davidſon, one—and South of French Broad, one diſtrict.

Though it is manifeſt the deficiency in this return is great, yet we have not ſufficient data to determine it, but we may reaſonably ſuppoſe the preſent number of inhabitants to exceed ſixty thouſand.

In 1788, the militia of this diſtrict amounted to between ſeven and eight thouſand effective men, who were principally armed with rifles. It is ſuppoſed that their number is increaſed to nearly double ſince that period.

RELIGION AND CHARACTER.

The Preſbyterians are the prevailing denomination of Chriſtians in this diſtrict: they have a Preſbytery, called the Abington Preſbytery, eſtabliſhed by act of ſynod, which, in 1788,

conſiſted of twenty three large congregations, who were then ſupplied by only ſix miniſters. There are alſo ſome of the Baptiſts and Methodiſt denominations.

The inhabitants of this diſtrict emigrated chiefly from Pennſylvania, and that part of Virginia which lies weſt of the Blue ridge. The anceſtors of theſe people were generally of the Scotch nation, ſome of whom emigrated firſt to Ireland, and from thence to America. A few Germans and Engliſh are intermixed. The proportion of the whites to the blacks in this diſtrict, judging from the foregoing imperfect cenſus, is as ten to one. In 1788 it was thought there were twenty white perſons to one negro. The erection of this territory into a ſeparate government, it is believed, will tend to leſſen the negro population.

There is nothing in the character of this people that diſtinguiſhes them from the ſettlers of new countries in general. Among the bulk of the inhabitants a great ſimplicity of manners prevails; duplicity, or the etiquette of cities and populous places, is unknown among them. If a man deceives another, he is deemed and called a liar; and it frequently happens that "a bloody noſe" is the conſequence. Wreſtling, jumping, running foot races, and playing at ball, are the common diverſions. Dancing is coming into faſhion. Card playing is a rare amuſement The hunting ſhirt is ſtill worn by the militia on duty, and by hunters in purſuit of game. At home, and at public aſſemblies, they dreſs like the Virginians.

Great was the damage ſuſtained by the inhabitants of this country during the war, occaſioned by the incurſions of the Indians; and it is much to their honour, that when they were offered protection by the Britiſh, in the early ſtage of the war, they nobly refuſed it.

COMMERCE.

As the waters of the Cumberland from Naſhville, and of the Tenneſſee from the Muſcle ſhoals to the Ohio, are navigable to the Ohio an Miſſiſſippi, the people of courſe, who live in the interior of the country, have the ſame advantages of water conveyance for trade, as thoſe who live on the Ohio or Miſſiſſippi, to New Orleans or elſewhere.

Beſides, there is another probable avenue through which trade will be carried on with this country, which is from Mobile up the waters of the Mobile river as far as it is navigable, thence by a land carriage of about fifty miles, at moſt, to Ocochappo creek,

which empties into the Tenneſſee at the lower end of the Muſcle ſhoals. The mouth of this creek is the center of a piece of ground, the diameter of which is five miles, ceded by the ſouthern Indians at the treaty of Hopwell, on Keowee, to the United States, for the eſtabliſhment of trading poſts.

This country furniſhes many valuable articles of export, ſuch as fine waggon and ſaddle horſes, beef, cattle, ginſeng, deer ſkins and furs, cotton, hemp, and flax, which may be tranſported by land; alſo iron, lumber, pork, and flour, which might be exported in great quantities, if the navigation of the Miſſiſſippi were opened; but there are few of the inhabitants who underſtand commerce, or are poſſeſſed of proper capitals; of courſe it is badly managed: land jobbing engroſſes too much of the attention of the inhabitants. The degraded ſtate of commerce has rendered neceſſary a general attention to home manufactures: and it is to be hoped that the eyes of the people will ſoon be opened to their true intereſt, and agriculture, commerce and manufactures, each receive proper attention.

LEARNING AND LITERATURE.

The inhabitants of this diſtrict have not been inattentive to the intereſts of ſcience. An academy and ſeveral grammar ſchools have been eſtabliſhed; and a ſociety, who ſtile themſelves, "A Society for promoting Uſeful Knowledge:" it is of modern date, but much good is expected from it. A taſte for literature is increaſing among them.

The government is ſimilar to that eſtabliſhed by Congreſs in the territory of the United States, north-weſt of the Ohio. The governor is the executive, and, in his abſence, the ſecretary, and the governor and three judges the legiſlative power in the diſtrict.

The public revenue amounts to about five or ſix thouſand pounds, raiſed chiefly by a tax on ſlaves, lands, and horſes.

INDIANS.

The Indian tribes, within and in the vicinity of this diſtrict, are the Cherokees and Chicaſaws. The Cherokees have been a warlike and numerous nation; but by continual wars, in which it has been their deſtiny to be engaged with the northern Indian tribes, they were reduced, at the commencement of

the laſt war, to about two thouſand fighting men; ſince which they have been reduced more than one half, and have become weak and puſillanimous.

The Chicaſaws, of all the Indian tribes within the limits of the United States, merit the moſt from the Americans, having at all times maintained a brotherly attachment to them; they glory in ſaying, that they never ſhed the blood of an Anglo-American. There is ſo great an affinity between the Chicaſaw and Choctaw languages, that the common people can converſe together, each ſpeaking in his own dialect. They are a perſonable people, and have an openneſs in their countenances and behaviour, uncommon among ſavages. Theſe nations ſay, they are the remnant of a great nation that once lived far to the weſt, which was deſtroyed by the Spaniards, for whom they ſtill retain an hereditary hatred. Would it not be the policy of Congreſs to treat with theſe nations? and might not a reciprocal friendſhip be mutually ſerviceable to the Union and the Indians?

STATE OF

SOUTH-CAROLINA.

SITUATION, EXTENT, AND BOUNDARIES.

THIS State is ſituated between 32° and 35° north latitude, and 4° and 9° weſt longitude from Philadelphia. Its length is two hundred miles, and its breadth one hundred and twenty-five. It is bounded on the north by North-Carolina, on the eaſt by the Atlantic ocean, on the ſouth-weſt and ſouth by Savannah river, and a branch of its head waters called Tugulo river, which ſaid rivers divide it from the State of Georgia.*

CLIMATE.

The climate of this State is different in different parts: along the ſea coaſt, billious diſeaſes, and fevers of various kinds,

* The boundary line dividing the two States of South-Carolina and Georgia was long the ſubject of controverſy; the former claiming the lands lying between the North-Carolina line, and a line to run due weſt from the mouth of Tugulo and Keowee river; the latter contended that the ſource of Keowee river was to be conſidered as the head of Savannah river.

For the purpoſe of ſettling this controverſy, commiſſioners were appointed in April 1787, by the contending States, veſted with full powers to determine the controverted boundary, which they fixed as follows:

"The moſt nothern branch or ſtream of the river Savannah, from the ſea or mouth of ſuch ſtream, to the fork or confluence of the rivers now called Tugulo and Keowee, and from thence the moſt northern branch or ſtream of the ſaid river Tugulo, till it interſects the nothern boundary line of South-Carolina, if the ſaid branch of Tugulo extend ſo far north, reſerving all the iſlands in the ſaid rivers Savannah and Tugulo to Georgia; but if the ſaid branch or ſtream of Tugulo does not extend to the north boundary line of South-Carolina, then a weſt line to the Miſſiſſippi to be drawn from the head ſpring or ſource of the ſaid branch of Tugulo river, which extends to the higheſt northern latitude, ſhall for ever hereafter form the ſeparation, limit and boundary between the States of South-Carolina and Georgia."

are prevalent between July and October. The probability of dying is much greater between the 20th of June and the 20th of October, than in the other eight months in the year.

One cauſe of theſe diſeaſes is, a low marſhy country, which is overflowed for the ſake of cultivating rice. The exhalations from theſe ſtagnated waters, from the rivers and from the neighbouring ocean, and the profuſe perſpiration of vegetables of all kinds, which cover the ground, fill the air with moiſture: this moiſture falls in frequent rains and copious dews. From actual obſervation it has been found that the average annual fall of rain for ten years was forty-two inches, without regarding the moiſture that fell in fogs and dews. The great heat of the day relaxes the body, and the agreeable coolneſs of the evening invites to an expoſure to theſe heavy dews.

The diſagreeable effects of this climate, experience has proved, might in a great meaſure be avoided by thoſe inhabitants, whoſe circumſtances will admit of their removal from the neighbourhood of the rice ſwamps to healthier ſituations, during the months of July, Auguſt, September, and October; and in the worſt ſituations, by temperance and care. Violent exerciſe on horſeback, but chiefly, expoſure to the meridian rays of the ſun, ſudden ſhowers of rain, and the night air, are too frequently the cauſes of fevers and other diſorders. Would the ſportſman deny themſelves, during the fall months, their favourite amuſements of hunting and fiſhing, or confine themſelves to a very few hours, in the morning or evening; would the induſtrious planter viſit his fields only at the ſame hours; or would the poorer claſs of people pay due attention to their manner of living, and obſerve the precautions recommended to them by men of knowledge and experience, much ſickneſs and many diſtreſſing events might be prevented. The upper country, ſituated in the medium between extreme heat and cold, is as healthful as any part of the United States.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SEA COAST, &c.

The whole State, to the diſtance of eighty miles from the ſea, is level, and almoſt without a ſtone. In this, diſtance, by a gradual aſcent from the ſea coaſt, the land riſes about one hundred and ninety feet. Here, if you proceed in a W. N. W. courſe from Charleſton commences a curiouſly uneven country, preſenting a proſpect ſomething like that of a high ſwelling ſea,

formed by a prodigious number of ſmall ſand hills. Some little herbage, and a few ſmall pines grow, even on this ſoil. The inhabitants are but few, and have but a ſcanty ſubſiſtence on corn and ſweet potatoes, which grow here tolerably well. This curious country continues for ſixty miles, till you arrive at a place called the Ridge, one hundred and forty miles from Charleſton. This ridge is a remarkable tract of high ground, as you approach it from the ſea, but level as you advance north-weſt from its ſummit. It is a fine high, healthy belt of land, well watered, and of a good ſoil, and extends from the Savannah to Broad river, in about 6° 30′ weſt longitude from Philadelphia. Beyond this ridge commences a country exactly reſembling the northern States. Here hills and dales, with all their verdure and variegated beauty, preſent themſelves to the eye. Wheat fields, which are rare in the low country, begin to be common. Here Heaven has beſtowed its bleſſing with a moſt bounteous hand. The air is much more temperate and healthful than nearer the ſea. The hills are covered with valuable woods; the vallies watered with beautiful rivers, and the fertility of the ſoil is equal to every vegetable production. This, by way of diſtinction, is called the Upper Country, where are different modes and different articles of cultivation; where the manners of the people, and even their language, have a different tone. The land ſtill riſes by a gradual aſcent; each ſucceeding hill overlooks that which immediately precedes it, till, having advanced two hundred and twenty miles in a north-weſt direction from Charleſton, the elevation of the land above the ſea coaſt is found to be eight hundred feet. Here a mountainous country commences with the Tryon and Hogback mountains; the elevation of which, above their baſe, is three thouſand eight hundred and forty feet, and above the ſea coaſt four thouſand ſix hundred and forty. From the top of theſe mountains there is an extenſive view of this State. North-Carolina, and Georgia: and as no object intervenes to obſtruct the view, a man with teleſcopic eyes might diſcern veſſels at ſea. The mountains weſt and north-weſt riſe much higher than theſe, and form a ridge which divides the waters of Tenneſſee and Santee rivers.

This State is watered by four large navigable rivers, beſides a great number of ſmaller ones, which are paſſable in boats. The river Savannah waſhes it in its whole length from ſouth-eaſt to north-weſt. The Ediſto riſes in two branches from a remarkable ridge in the interior part of the State. Theſe branches unite below Orangeburgh, which ſtands on the North

Fork, and Ediſto river, which, having paſſed from Jackſonſburgh, leaving it on the ſouth, branches and embraces Ediſto iſland.

Santee is the largeſt and longeſt river in this State: it empties into the ocean by two mouths, a little ſouth of George-town. About one hundred and twenty miles in a direct line from its mouth, it branches into the Congaree and Wateree; the latter or northern branch paſſes the Catabaw nation of Indians, and bears the name of the Catabaw river from this ſettlement to its ſource. The Congaree branches into Saluda and Broad rivers. Broad river again branches into Enoree, Tyger and Pacolet rivers, on the latter of which are the celebrated Pacolet ſprings.

Pedee river riſes in North-Carolina, where it is called Yadkin river: in this State, however, it takes the name of Pedee; and, receiving the waters of Lynche's creek, Little Pedee, and Black river, it joins the Wakkamaw river, near George-town. Theſe united ſtreams, with the acceſſion of a ſmall creek, on which George-town ſtands, from Winyaw bay, which, about twelve miles below, communicates with the ocean. All theſe rivers, Ediſto excepted, riſe from various ſources in that ridge of mountains which divides the waters which flow into the Atlantic ocean, from thoſe which fall into the Miſſiſſippi.

The rivers of a ſecondary ſize, as you paſs from north to ſouth, are Wakkamaw, Black river, Cooper, Aſhepoo, and Combahee. Theſe rivers afford, to the proprietors of their banks, a conſiderable quantity of tide ſwamp or rice land, flooded from the rivers, except in extraordinary droughts.

In the third claſs are comprehended thoſe rivers which extend but a ſhort diſtance from the ocean, and ſerve, by branching into numberleſs creeks, as drains to take off the quantity of rain water which comes down from the large inland ſwamps; or are merely arms of the ſea; of this kind are Aſhley, Stono, Cooſaw, Broad, Colleton, May, New, and Right's rivers. The tide, in no part of this State, flows more than twenty five miles from the ſea.

A company has been incorporated for the purpoſe of connecting Cooper and Santee rivers by a canal of twenty-one miles in length. The ſum ſuppoſed to be neceſſary to complete this extenſive work is fifty-five thouſand ſix hundred and twenty pounds ſterling. Twenty-five per cent. are allowed by the legiſlature in tolls for all monies advanced by ſtockholders. The ad-

vantage of a canal at this place, to one who inſpects a map of the Carolinas, muſt appear to be great, both to the public and to the proprietors.

The only harbours of note are thoſe of Charleſton, Port Royal, and George-town. Charleſton harbour is ſpacious, convenient, and ſafe: it is formed by the junction of Aſhley and Cooper rivers: its entrance is guarded by fort Johnſon. Twelve miles from the city is a bar, over which are four channels; one by the name of Ship Channel, has eighteen feet water; another ſixteen and a half; the other two are for ſmaller veſſels. The tides riſe from five to eight feet. Port Royal has an excellent harbour, of ſufficient extent to contain the largeſt fleet in the world.

The bar at the entrance of Winyaw bay, which leads to George-town, does not admit of veſſels drawing more than eleven feet water; and is, in many reſpects, a very dangerous place. This circumſtance has proved injurious to the growth of George-town, which is otherwiſe exceedingly well ſituated for all the purpoſes of an extenſive trade.

The ſea coaſt is bordered with a chain of fine ſea iſlands, around which the ſea flows, opening an excellent inland navigation for the conveyance of produce to market.

North of Charleſton harbour lie Bull's, Dewee's, and Sullivan's iſlands, which form the north part of the harbour. James iſland lies on the other ſide of the harbour, oppoſite Charleſton, containing about fifty families. Further ſouth-weſt is John's iſland, larger than James; Stono river, which forms a convenient and ſafe harbour, divides theſe iſlands. Contiguous to John's iſland, and connected with it by a bridge, is Wadmelaw; eaſt of which are the ſmall iſles of Keyway and Simmon. Between theſe and Ediſto iſland is N. Ediſto inlet, which alſo affords a good harbour for veſſels of eaſy draft of water. South of Ediſto iſland is S. Ediſto inlet, through which enter, from the northward, all the veſſels bound to Beaufort, Aſhepoo, Combahee and Cooſaw.

On the ſouth-weſt ſide of St. Helena iſland lies a cluſter of iſlands, one of the largeſt of which is Port Royal. Adjacent to Port Royal lie St. Helena, Ladies iſland, Paris iſland, and the Hunting iſlands, five or ſix in number, bordering on the ocean, ſo called from the number of deer and other wild game found upon them. All theſe iſlands, and ſome others of leſs note, belong to St. Helena pariſh.

Croſſing Broad river, you come to Hilton Head, the moſt ſouthern ſea iſland in Carolina. Weſt and ſouth-weſt of Hilton Head lie Pickney's, Bull's, Dawfuſkie's, and ſome ſmaller iſlands,

between which and Hilton Head are Calibogie river and ſound, which form the outlet of May and New rivers.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

The ſoil of this State may be divided into four kinds; firſt, the pine barren, which is valuable only for its timber. Interſperſed among the pine barren are tracts of land free of timber, and every kind of growth but that of graſs. Theſe tracts are called ſavannahs, conſtituting a ſecond kind of ſoil, good for grazing. The third kind is that of the ſwamps and low grounds on the rivers, which is a mixture of black loam and fat clay, producing naturally canes in great plenty, cypreſs, bays, loblolly pines, &c. In theſe ſwamps rice is cultivated, which conſtitutes the ſtaple commodity of the State. The high lands, commonly known by the name of oak and hiccory lands, conſtitute the fourth kind of ſoil. The natural growth is oak, hiccory, walnut, pine, and locuſt. On theſe lands, in the low country, Indian corn is principally cultivated; and in the back country, beſides this, they raiſe tobacco in large quantities, wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, cotton, and ſilk.

There is little fruit in this State, eſpecially in the lower parts of it. The oranges are chiefly ſour; figs are plenty; a few limes and lemons, pomegranates, pears, and peaches, apples are ſcarce, and are imported from the northern States. Melons, eſpecially the water melon, are raiſed here in great perfection.

The river ſwamps, in which rice can be cultivated with any tolerable degree of ſafety and ſucceſs, do not extend higher up the rivers than the head of the tides; and in eſtimating the value of this ſpecies of rice land, the height which the tide riſes is taken into conſideration, thoſe lying where it riſes to a proper pitch for overflowing the ſwamps being the moſt valuable. The beſt inland ſwamps, which conſtitute a ſecond ſpecies of rice land, are ſuch as are furniſhed with reſervoirs of water. Theſe reſervoirs are formed by means of large banks thrown up at the upper parts of the ſwamps, whence it is conveyed, when needed to the fields of rice.

The ſoil on the iſlands is generally better adapted to the culture of indigo than the main, and leſs ſuited to rice: cotton grows very well upon them. The natural growth is the live oak, which is ſo excellent for ſhip timber, and the palmetto or cabbage tree, the utility of which, in the conſtruction of forts, was experienced during the late war.

At the diſtance of about one hundred and ten miles from the ſea, the river ſwamps terminate, and the high lands extend quite to the rivers, and form banks, in ſome places, ſeveral hundred feet above the ſurface of the water, and afford many extenſive and delightful views. Theſe high banks are interwoven with layers of leaves and different coloured earth, and abound with quarries of free-ſtone, pebbles, flint, chryſtals, iron ore in abundance, ſilver, lead, ſulphur, and coarſe diamonds.

The ſwamps above the head of the tide are occaſionally planted with corn, cotton, and indigo. The ſoil is very rich, yielding from forty to fifty buſhels of corn an acre.

It is curious to obſerve the gradations from the ſea coaſt to the upper country, with reſpect to the produce, the mode of cultivation, and the cultivators. On the iſlands, upon he ſea coaſt, and for forty or fifty miles back, and on the rivers much farther, the cultivators are all ſlaves. No white man, to ſpeak generally, ever thinks of ſettling a farm and improving it for himſelf without negroes. If he has no negroes, he hires himſelf as overſeer to ſome rich planter, who has more than he can or will attend to, till he can purchaſe for himſelf. The articles cultivated are corn and potatoes, which with the ſmall rice, are food for the negroes; rice, indigo and cotton, for exportation. The culture of this laſt article is capable of being increaſed equal to almoſt any demand. The ſoil was cultivated, till lately, almoſt wholly by manual labour. The plough, till ſince the peace, was ſcarcely uſed: now, the plough and harrow and other improvements are introduced into the rice ſwamps with great ſucceſs, and will no doubt become general. In the middle ſettlements, negroes are not ſo numerous; the maſter attends perſonally to his own buſineſs. The land is not properly ſituated for rice: it produces moderately good indigo weed, and ſome tobacco is raiſed for exportation. The farmer is contended to raiſe corn, potatoes, oats, rye, poultry, and a little wheat. In the upper country, there are but few negroes; generally ſpeaking, the farmers have none, and depend, like the inhabitants of the northern States, upon the labour of themſelves and families for ſubſiſtence; the plough is uſed almoſt wholly. Indian corn in great quantities, wheat, rye, potatoes, &c. are raiſed for food, and much tobacco and ſome wheat, cotton and indigo, for exportation.

Rice ground is prepared only by effectually ſecuring it from the water, except ſome higher parts of it, which are ſometimes

dug up with a hoe, or mellowed by a plough or harrow. When the rice is young, the overflowing of the water does not prevent its growth. Thoſe who have water in reſerve, commonly let it in upon their rice, after firſt going through with the hoe, while it is young, though it is deemed beſt to keep out the graſs by the hoe only. The water is commonly kept on the rice eight or ten days after hoeing. When the ear is formed, the water is continued on till it is ripe: it is hoed three or four times. When the graſs is very thick, a negro cannot hoe more than one ſixteenth of an acre in a day. From three pecks to a buſhel is ſown on an acre. It produces from fifty to eighty buſhels of rough rice an acre; one hundred and twenty buſhels of rough rice have been produced on one acre; twenty buſhels of which make about five hundred pounds, or eight and a quarter buſhels clean rice for market. After it is threſhed, it is winnowed, and then ground in a mill, conſtructed of two blocks in a ſimple manner; then winnowed by a fan conſtructed for that purpoſe, then beat in a mortar by hand, or, now generally, by horſe or water machines, then ſifted, to ſeparate the whole rice from that which is broken and the flour. The whole rice is then barrelled in caſks of about five hundred pounds, or eight and a quarter buſhels. The ſmall rice ſerves for proviſions, and the flour for provender, the chaff for manure, and the ſtraw for fodder. The blade is green and freſh while the ear is ripe. The price is in the general from nine ſhillings and four-pence, to ten ſhillings and ſix-pence a hundred; reckoning the dollar at four ſhillings and eight-pence.

CIVIL DIVISIONS.

The proprietors who firſt ſent ſettlers to Carolina, divided it into counties and pariſhes. The counties were generally named after the proprietors. No county courts, however, were eſtabliſhed, and this diviſion, though for a long time kept up in the province, became in a great meaſure obſolete, previous to the revolution: ſince the revolution, county courts have been eſtabliſhed, and the State is now divided into diſtricts and counties, and the counties are ſubdivided; in the lower country into pariſhes, and in the upper country into ſmaller or voting diſtricts.

There are ſeven principal diſtricts, in which are contained thirty-five counties, as follows:

BEAUFORT DISTRICT,

On the ſea coaſt between Combatee and Savannah rivers.

Hilton, Lincoln, Granville.
Shrewſbury,

CHARLESTON DISTRICT,

Between Santee and Combahee rivers.

Charleſton, Marion, Colleton,
Waſhington, Berkeley, Bartholomew,

GEORGE-TOWN DITRICT.

Between Santee river and North-Carolina.

Wenyah, Kingſton, Liberty.
Williamſburgh,

ORANCEBURGH DISTRICT,

Weſt of Beaufort Diſtrict.

Louiſburgh, Lexington, Winton,
Orange,

CAMDEN DISTRICT,

Weſt of George-Town Diſtrict.

Clarendon, Clermont, York,
Richland, Lancaſter, Cheſter,
Fairfield,

CHERAWS DISTRICT,

Weſt of George-Town Diſtrict.

Malborough, Cheſterfield, Darlington.

NINETY-SIX DISTRICT,

Comprehending all the other parts of the State.

Abberville, Union, Grenville,
Edgefield, Laurens, Pendleton.
Newbury, Spartenburgh,

The committee appointed by the act of Aſſembly to divide the diſtricts into counties, were to lay them as nearly forty miles ſquare as was practicable, due regard being paid to ſituations, natural boundaries, &c.

CHIEF TOWNS.

CHARLESTON.

Charleſton is the only conſiderable town in South-Carolina: it is ſituated on the tongue of land which is formed by the confluence of Aſhley and Cooper rivers, which are large and navigable. Theſe rivers mingle their waters immediately below the town, and form a ſpacious and convenient harbour, which communicates with the ocean juſt below Sullivan's iſland: which it leaves on the north, ſeven miles ſouth-eaſt of the town. In theſe rivers the tide riſes, in common about ſix feet and a half.* The continued agitation which this occaſions in the waters which almoſt ſurround Charleſton: the refreſhing ſea breezes which are regularly felt, and the ſmoke riſing from ſo many chimneys, render Charleſton more healthy than any part of the low country in the ſouthern States. On this account it is the reſort of great numbers of gentlemen, invalids from the Weſt-India iſlands, and of the rich planters from the country, who come here to ſpend the ſickly months, as they are called, in queſt of health and of the ſocial enjoyments which the city affords; and in no part of America are the ſocial bleſſings enjoyed more rationally and liberally than in Charleſton. Unaffected hoſpitality, affability, eaſe in manners and addreſs, and a diſpoſition to make their gueſts welcome, eaſy, and pleaſed with themſelves, are characteriſtics of the reſpectable people in Charleſton.

The land on which the town is built is flat and low, and the water brackiſh and unwholeſome. The ſtreets from caſt to weſt extend from river to river, and, running in a ſtraight line, not only open beautiful proſpects each way, but afford excellent opportunities, by means of ſubterraneous drains, for removing all nuiſances, and keeping the city clean and healthy. Theſe ſtreets are interſected by others, nearly at right angles, and throw the town into a number of ſquares, with dwelling houſes in front, and office houſes and little gardens behind. Some of the ſtreets are conveniently wide, but moſt of them are much too narrow, eſpecially for ſo populous a city, in ſo warm a climate. Beſides their being a nurſery for various diſeaſes from their confined ſituation, they have been found extremely inconvenient in

* It is worthy of remark, that the tide uniformly riſes conſiderably higher in the night than in the day; often from ten to twelve inches. The fact is certain; the cauſe is unknown.

caſe of fires, the deſtructive effects of which have been frequently felt in this city. The houſes, which have been lately built, are brick, with tiled roofs. Some of the buildings in Charleſton are elegant, and moſt of them are neat, airy, and well furniſhed. The public buildings are, an exchange, ſtate houſe lately rebuilt, armoury, poor houſe, two large churches for Epiſcopalians, two for Congregationaliſts, or Independents, one for Scotch Preſbyterians, one for Baptiſts, one for German Lutherans, two for the Methodiſts, a large houſe for worſhip being lately finiſhed by them, one for French Proteſtants, beſides a meeting houſe for Quakers, a Roman Catholic Chapel, and a Jewiſh ſynagogue.

But littte attention is paid to the public markets. A great proportion of the moſt wealthy inhabitants have plantations, from which they receive ſupplies of almoſt every kind of proviſion. The country abounds with poultry and wild ducks: their beef, mutton, and veal, are not of the beſt kind. Few fiſh are brought to market.

In 1787, it was computed that there was one thouſand ſix hundred houſes in this city, nine thouſand ſix hundred white inhabitants, and five thouſand four hundred negroes; and what evinces the healthineſs of the place, upwards of two hundred of the white inhabitants were above ſixty years of age. In 1791, there were ſixteen thouſand three hundred and fifty nine inhabitants, of whom ſeven thouſand ſix hundred and eighty-four were ſlaves.

Charleſton was incorporated in 1783, and divided into thirteen wards, which chuſe as many wardens, from among whom the citizens elect an intendent of the city. The intendant and wardens form the city council, who have power to make and enforce by-laws for the regulation of the city.

BEAUFORT.

Beaufort on Port Royal iſland, is a pleaſant little town, of about ſixty or ſeventy houſes, and two hundred and fifty inhabitants, who are diſtinguiſhed for their hoſpitality and politeneſs. The courts which were formerly held here, are now held at Cooſawhatchie.

GEORGE-TOWN.

This town, the ſeat of juſtice in George-town diſtrict, ſtands on a ſpot of land near the junction of a number of rivers, which, when united in one broad ſtream, by the name of Winyaw, fall into the ocean twelve miles below the town.

COLUMBIA.

Columbia, which has lately been made the ſeat of government by the legiſlature, ſtands juſt below the junction of Saluda and Broad rivers on the Congaree. The public officers have, however, in ſome inſtances been divided, for the accommodation of the inhabitants of the lower counties, and a branch of each retained in Charleſton.

CAMDEN.

Camden, on the Wateree, north-weſt of Santee hills, one hundred and thirty miles north-weſt from Charleſton, is regularly built, upon a good plan; but a ſmall part of it is yet executed.

PURYSBURGH.

Puryſburgh is a hilly village, about twenty miles above Savannah, on the north bank of the river of the ſame name. It was early ſettled by foreigners, with a view to the culture of ſilk, which for a while they attended to with ſpirit. The mulberry trees are yet ſtanding, and ſome attention is ſtill paid to the making of this article: but the profits of the rice and indigo have diverted the original planters from almoſt every other purſuit. Beſides theſe, are Jackſonborough, Orangeburgh, and Cambridge, which are all inconſiderable villages of from thirty to ſixty dwelling houſes.

POPULATION.

According to the cenſus of 1791, the number of inhabitants in this State was as follows;

GEORGE-TOWN DISTRICT.

COUNTIES AND PARISHES.	Free white males of 16 years and upwards.	Free white males under 16 years.	Free white females.	All other free persons.	Slaves.	Total.
All Saints Parish, -	104	102	223	1	1795	2225
Prince George's do.	1345	1450	2236	80	6651	11762
PrinceFrederick'sdo.	907	915	1596	32	4685	8135
	2356	2467	4055	113	13131	22122

CHERAWS DISTRICT.

Total, - - - -	1779	1993	3446	59	3229	10706

CAMDEN DISTRICT.

Fairfield County, -	1335	1874	2929		1485	7623
Chefter do. - - -	1446	1604	2831	47	938	6866
York do. - - -	1350	1612	2690	29	923	6604
Richland do. - -	596	710	1173	14	1437	3930
Clarendon do. - -	444	516	830		602	2392
Claremont do. - -	517	841	1080		2110	4548
Lancaster do. - -	1253	1537	2074	68	1370	6302
	6941	8694	13607	158	8865	38265

NINETY-SIX DISTRICT.

Edgefield County, -	2333	2571	4701	65	3619	13289
Pendleton do. - -	2007	2535	4189	3	834	9568
Spartanburgh do. -	1868	2173	3866	27	866	8800
Abbeville do. - -	1904	1948	3653	27	1665	9197
Lauren's do. - -	1969	2270	3971	7	1120	9337
Grenville do. - -	1400	1627	2861	9	606	6503
Union do. - - -	1500	1809	3121	48	1215	7693
Newberry do. - -	1992	2232	3962	12	1144	9342
	14973	17165	30324	198	11069	73729

BEAUFORT DISTRICT.

COUNTIES AND PARISHES.	Free white males of 16 years and upwards.	Free white males under 16 years of age.	Free white females.	All other free persons.	Slaves.	Total.
Total, - - - -	1266	1055	2043	153	14236	18753

ORANGEBURGH DISTRICT.

North part, - - -	1780	1698	3258	21	4529	11281
South do. - - -	1421	1478	2782	149	1402	7232
	3201	3171	6040	170	5931	18513

CHARLESTON DISTRICT.

St. Philip's Parish, St. Michael's do. -	2810	1561	3718	586	7684	16359
St. Bartholomew's do.	625	491	1017	135	10338	12606
St. John's, Berkley do	209	152	331	60	5170	5922
St. George's, Dorchester, do. -	337	311	604	25	3022	4299
St. Steven's do. -	81	45	100	1	2506	2733
St. James's, Santee, do	140	110	187	15	3345	3797
St. Thomas do. - -	145	67	185	34	3405	3836
Christ Church do. -	156	138	272	11	2377	2954
St. James's, Goose Creek, do, -	158	79	202	15	2333	2787
St. John's, Colleton, do. - -	209	104	272	22	4705	5312
St Andrew's do. -	125	71	174	31	2546	2947
St. Paul's do. - -	65	48	103	15	3202	3433
	5060	3177	7165	950	50633	66085

SUMMARY OF POPULATION.

George-town district,	2356	2467	4055	118	13131	22122
Cheraws do. - -	1779	1993	3446	59	3229	10706
Camden do. - - -	6941	8694	13607	158	8865	38265
Ninety-six do. - -	14973	17165	30324	198	11069	73729
Beaufort do. - -	1266	1055	2043	153	14236	18753
Orangeburgh do. -	3201	3171	6040	170	5934	18513
Charleston do. - -	5060	3177	7165	950	50633	66985
	35576	37722	66680	1801	107094	249173

It would be impoſſible, without other data than we poſſeſs, to determine with any degree of certainty what is the preſent number of inhabitants in this State; but many circumſtances tend to prove, that it has kept pace in point of increaſe with moſt of the other States in the Union; it cannot, therefore, at this period, contain leſs than three hundred thouſand.

MILITARY STRENGTH.

There are between thirty and forty thouſand fighting men in this State. About ten men are kept to guard Fort Johnſon, on James iſland, at the entrance of Charleſton harbour, by which no veſſel can paſs, unleſs the maſter or mate make oath, that there is no malignant diſtemper on board. The militia laws, enacting that every freeman, between ſixteen and fifty years of age, ſhall be prepared for war, have been but indifferently obeyed ſince the peace. An unuſual degree of military ſpirit however, ſeems lately to have ariſen among the citizens of Charleſton. A number of volunteer uniform companies have been lately formed in this city, beſides a troop of horſe, and the ancient battalion of artillery. The military ardour has been encouraged in this and ſeveral other parts of the Union by the ſituation of affairs in Europe.

RELIGION AND CHARACTER.

Since the revolution, by which all denominations were put on an equal footing, there have been no diſputes between different religious ſects. They all agree to differ on doctrinal points, and all agree in promoting the grand duties of Chriſtianity toward God and man.

The upper parts of this State are ſettled chiefly by Preſbyterians, Baptiſts and Methodiſts. From the moſt probable calculations it is ſuppoſed, that as to numbers they may be ranked as follows: Preſbyterians, including the Congregational and Independent churches, Epiſcopalians, Baptiſts, Methodiſts, &c.

Diſſolute pleaſures, and luxury of every kind form a grand feature of the national character of the Carolinians. We cenſure not the profuſion of their tables; it is the profuſion of Heaven; but to the pleaſures of the table they are too much addicted. Here and in every ſpecies of luxurious indulgence, they ſeem galloping hard after the diſſolute Europeans; and ſmall are the powers requiſite to diſcern, that they are not very far behind them.

The Carolinians ſooner arrive at maturity, both in the bodies and minds, than the natives of colder climates. They

poſſeſs a natural quickneſs and vivacity of genius, ſuperior to the inhabitants of the north; but too generally want that enterpriſe and perſeverance which are neceſſary for the higheſt attainments in the arts and ſciences. They have, indeed, few motives to enterpriſe; inhabiting a fertile country, which, by the labour of ſlaves, produces plentifully and creates affluence; in a climate which favours indulgence, eaſe, and a diſpoſition for convivial pleaſures, they too generally reſt contented with barely knowledge enough to tranſact the common affairs of life. There are not a few inſtances, however, in this State, in which genius has been united with application, and the effects of their union have been haappily experienced, not only by this State, but by the whole Union.

The wealth produced by the labour of the ſlaves, furniſhes their proprietors with the means of hoſpitality; and no people in the world uſe theſe means with more liberality. Some of the inhabitants ſpare no pains or expenſe in giving the higheſt poliſh of education to their children, by enabling them to travel, and by other means unattainable by thoſe who have but moderate fortunes.

The Carolinians are generally affable and eaſy in their manners, and polite and attentive to ſtrangers. The ladies want the bloom of the north, but have an engaging ſoftneſs and delicacy in their appearance and manners, and many of them poſſeſs the polite and elegant accompliſhments.

Hunting is the moſt faſhionable amuſement in this State; at this the country gentlemen are extremely expert, and with ſurpriſing dexterity purſue their game through the woods. Gaming of all kinds is more diſcountenanced among faſhionable people, in this than in any of the ſouthern States. Twice a year, ſtatedly however, a claſs of ſportive gentlemen in this and the neighbouring States, have their horſe-races. Bets of ten or fifteen hundred guineas have been ſometimes laid on theſe occaſions.

Bacchus is much reſpected in this country, and no objection can be made to the ſway of ſo mirth inſpiring a friend, when limited by prudence and moderation. But as that ſeldoms happens, the objections againſt this cuſtom become ſerious and weighty: it is a ſpecies of luxury the moſt dangerous, becauſe leading directly to all others; but it is a ſpecies for which the Carolinians are moſt excuſeable. Without the aſſiſtance of wine, in all warm climates, the mind is enervate, the ſpirits become languid, and the imagination barren. It is known to all phyſicians, that

wine, by its tonic quality, obviates debility induced by climate; and that the effects of putrid miasmata are destroyed by its antiseptic power. Hence the use of wine, in warm and sickly climates, becomes obvious; and hence a cause arises, why the inhabitants of those climates are so generally addicted to the bottle.

With the introduction of luxury in this country, the power of religion has visibly declined amongst all the different denominations of Christians; but if the Carolinians are not religious, it may be truly said, they are not superstitious. Theatrical amusemements have been introduced and encouraged among them. These, though they form a species of refined luxury, are, of many others the least dangerous; their political damage, at least is not so great; for while they add a polish to the manners of the people, they seldom impoverish the country: actors are generally profuse in living; they seldom deprive a country of its cash: hence money in their hands is not lost; quite the reverse, it is put in circulation.

In countries where slavery is encouraged, the ideas of the people are, in general, of a peculiar cast; the soul often becomes dark and narrow, and assumes a tone of savage brutality. Such at this day are the inhabitants of Barbary and the West-Indies. But, thank God! nothing like this has yet disgraced an American State. We may look for it in Carolina, but we shall be disappointed. The most elevated and liberal Carolinians abhor slavery; they will not debase themselves by attempting to vindicate it; he who would encourage it, abstracted from the idea of bare necessity, is not a man, he is a brute in human form. For "*disguise thyself as thou wilt, O slavery, still thou art a bitter draught;*" it is interest, louder than the voice of reason, which alone exclaims in thy favour.

Among their neighbours, the Carolinians stand accused of haughtiness and insolent carriage. Nothing is apparently more true than this charge; nothing is really more false. Surrounded by slaves, and accustomed to command, they acquire a forward, dictatorial habit, which can never be laid aside. In order to judge of their dispositions, we must study them with attention. Genuine affability, and generosity, form their distinguishing characteristics; for these, for the exercise of hospitality, and all the social virtues, we may venture to assert, that no country on earth has excelled Carolina.

There is no instance, perhaps, in which the richer class of people trespass more on the rules of propriety than in the mode of conducting their funerals. That a decent respect should be

paid to the dead, is the natural dictate of refined humanity; but this is not done by ſumptuous and expenſive entertainments, ſplendid decorations, and pompous ceremonies, which a miſguided faſhion has introduced and rendered neceſſary in this State. Wine, punch, and all kinds of liquors, tea, coffee, cake, &c. in profuſion, are handed round on theſe ſolemn occaſions. In ſhort, the Scripture obſervation, "*It is better to go to the houſe of mourning than to the houſe of feaſting,*" is unintelligible and wholly inapplicable here, as it is difficult to diſtinguiſh the houſe of mourning from the houſe of feaſting.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.

In the middle, and eſpecially in the upper country, the people are obliged to manufacture their own cotton and woollen cloths, and moſt of their huſbandry tools: but in the lower country the inhabitants, for theſe articles depend almoſt entirely on their merchants. Late accounts from the interior parts of this State inform us, that the inhabitants manufacture, entirely in the family way, as much as they have occaſion for; that cotton hemp and flax are plenty; that they have a conſiderable ſtock of good ſheep; that great exertions are made, and much done in the houſhold way; that they have long been in the habit of doing ſomething in family manufactures, but within a few years paſt great improvements have been made. The women do the weaving, and leave the men to attend to agriculture.

This State furniſhes all the materials, and of the beſt kind, for ſhip building. The live oak, and the pitch and yellow pines, are of a ſuperior quality. Ships might be built here with more eaſe, and to much greater advantage, than in the middle and eaſtern States. A want of ſeamen is one reaſon why this buſineſs is not more generally attended to.

So much attention is now paid to the manufacture of indigo in this State, that it bids fair to rival that of the French. It is to be regretted, that it is ſtill the practice of the merchants concerned in the Carolina trade, to ſell, at foreign markets, the Carolina indigo, of the firſt quality, as French. This country, while it increaſes the immediate profit of the merchant, ſinks the character of the Carolina article; and in one view almoſt neceſſitates the trader to continue a practice begun in folly and knavery.

There has been a vaſt conſumption of foreign imported articles; but the quantities and value of their exports generally leave a balance in favour of the State.

The amount of exports from the port of Charleſton, in the year ending November, 1787, was then eſtimated, from authentic documents, at five hundred and five thouſand two hundred and ſeventy-nine pounds, nineteen ſhillings and five pence, ſterling money. The number of veſſels cleared from the cuſtom houſe the ſame year was nine hundred and forty-ſeven, meaſuring ſixty-two thouſand one hundred and eighteen tons: ſeven hundred and thirty-five of theſe, meaſuring forty-one thouſand five-hundred and thirty one tons, were American; the others belonged to Great-Britain, Spain, France, the United Netherlands and Ireland.

The principal articles exported from this State are, rice, indigo, tobacco, ſkins of various kinds, beef, pork, cotton, pitch, tar, roſin, turpentine, myrtle-wax, lumber, naval ſtores, cork, leather, pink root, ſnake root, ginſeng, &c. In the moſt ſucceſsful ſeaſons, there have been as many as one hundred and forty thouſand barrels of rice, and one million three hundred thouſand pounds of indigo exported in a year. From the 15th of December, 1791, to September, 1792, one hundred and eight thouſand five hundred and ſixty-ſeven tierces of rice, averaging five hundred and fifty pounds nett weight each, were exported from Charleſton. In the year ending September 30th, 1791, excluſive of two quarters, for which no returns were made, the amount of exports from this State was one million and eight hundred and ſixty-ſix thouſand and twenty-one dollars.

There is in this State, beſides a branch of the national bank, a bank, by the name of the South-Carilona bank, which was eſtabliſhed in 1792, in Charleſton.

STATE OF LITERATURE.

Gentlemen of fortune, before the late war, ſent their ſons to Europe for education. During the late war and ſince, they have generally ſent them to the middle and northern States. Thoſe who have been at this expenſe in educating their ſons, have been but comparatively few in number, ſo that the literature of the State is at a low ebb. Since the peace, however, it has begun to flouriſh. There are ſeveral reſpectable academies at Charleſton; one at Beaufort, on Port Royal iſland; and ſeveral others in different parts of the State. Three colleges have lately been incorporated by law; one at Charleſton, one at Winnſborough, in the diſtrict of Camden, and the other at Cambridge, in the diſtrict of Ninety-ſix. The public and private donations for

the ſupport of theſe three colleges were originally intended to have been appropriated jointly, for the erecting and ſupporting of one reſpectable college. The diviſion of theſe donations has fruſtrated this deſign. Part of the old barracks in Charleſton has been handſomely fitted up, and converted into a college, and there are a number of ſtudents: but it does not yet merit a more dignified name than that of a reſpectable academy. The Mount Sion college, at Winnſborough, is ſupported by a reſpectable ſociety of gentlemen, who have long been incorporated. This inſtitution flouriſhes, and bids fair for uſefulneſs. The college at Cambridge is no more than a grammar-ſchool. To put the literature of this State upon a reſpectable footing, nothing is wanting but a ſpirit of enterpriſe among its wealthy inhabitants.

CHARITABLE AND OTHER SOCIETIES.

Theſe are the South-Carolina, Mount Sion Library, and St. Cecilia ſocieties; a ſociety for the relief of the widows and orphans of clergymen, a medical ſociety lately inſtituted in Charleſton, and a muſical ſociety. At Beaufort and on St. Helena are ſeveral charitable ſocieties, incorporated with funds to a conſiderable amount, deſigned principally for the education of poor children, and which promiſe, at a future day, to be of great public utility. What are called Jockey Clubs have increaſed within a few years.

PUBLIC REVENUE AND EXPENSES.

The public revenue of this State is, nominally, ninety thouſand pounds ſterling; but a great part of this is either not collected, or paid in ſecurities, which are much depreciated. The expenſes of government are about ſixteen thouſand pounds ſterling per annum.

The great bulk of the revenue of the State is raiſed by a tax on lands and negroes. The lands, for the purpoſe of being taxed according to their value, are divided into three grand diviſions; the firſt reaches from the ſea-coaſt to the extent of the flowing of the tides; the ſecond, from theſe points to the fall of the rivers; and from thence to the utmoſt verge of the weſtern ſettlement makes the third. Theſe grand diviſions, for the ſake of more exactly aſcertaining the value of the lands, are ſubdivided into twenty-one different ſpecies: the moſt valuable of which is eſtimated at ſix pounds, and the leaſt valuable at one ſhilling per acre. One per cent. on the value

thus eſtimated is levied from all granted lands in the State. The collection of taxes is not annexed to the office of ſheriff, but is committed to particular gentlemen appointed for that purpoſe who are allowed two and a half per cent, in Charleſton, and five per cent, in the other parts of the State, on all they collect.

CONSTITUTION.

The legiſlative authority is veſted in a General Aſſembly, conſiſting of a Senate and Houſe of Repreſentatives. There are one hundred and twenty-four Repreſentatives, and thirty five ſenators appointed among the ſeveral diſtricts. The repreſentatives are choſen for two years, muſt be free white men, twenty-one years old, and have been inhabitants of the State three years. If reſident in the diſtrict, they muſt have a freehold of five hundred acres of land, and ten negroes or real eſtate worth one hundred and fifty pounds ſterling, clear of debt; if non-reſident, muſt have a freehold in the diſtrict worth five hundred pounds ſterling clear of debt. The ſenators are choſen for four years, and divided into two claſſes, one claſs being choſen every ſecond year. They muſt be free white men, thirty years old, and have been inhabitants five years. If reſident in the diſtrict, they muſt have a freehold worth three hundred pounds ſterling, clear of debt; if non-reſident, a freehold worth one thouſand pounds ſterling, clear of debt. Every free white man, twenty-one years old, having been an inhabitant of the State two years, and been a freeholder of fifty acres of land or a town lot, ſix months, or having been reſident in the diſtrict ſix months, and paid a tax of three ſhillings ſterling, has a right to vote for members of the legiſlature. The General Aſſembly is choſen on the ſecond Monday in October, and meets on the fourth Monday in November annually. Each houſe chooſes its own officers, judges of the qualifications of its members, and has a negative on the other. A majority of each make a quorum from day to day, and compel the attendance of members. They are protected, in their perſons and eſtates, during the ſeſſions, and ten days before and after; except in caſes of treaſon, felony, and breach of the peace. They are paid out of the public treaſury from which no money is drawn but by the legiſlative authority. Revenue bills originate in the lower houſe, but may be altered or rejected by the ſenate. Army and navy contractors, and all officers, excepting officers in the militia, juſtices of the peace, and juſtices of the county courts which have no ſalaries, are excluded from the General Aſſembly. The clergy are excluded from civil offices. The executive authority is veſted in a governor,

choſen for two years, by both houſes of Aſſembly jointly; but he cannot be re-elected till after four years. He muſt be thirty years old, have been an inhabitant of the State ten years, and have an eſtate in it worth one thouſand five hundred pounds ſterling, clear of debt. He can hold no other office except in the militia. A lieutenant-governor is choſen in the ſame manner, for the ſame time, and poſſeſſing the ſame qualifications; and holds the office of governor in caſe of vacancy. The governor is commander in chief of the military force; has power to remit fines and forfeitures, and grant reprieves and pardons, except in caſes of impeachment: to require information of executive officers; to convene the General Aſſembly on extraordinary occaſions, and to adjourn them to any time not beyond the fourth Monday in November next enſuing, in caſe they cannot agree on the time themſelves. He muſt inform the General Aſſembly of the condition of the State; recommended ſuch meaſures as he ſhall judge expedient; and take care that the laws are faithfully executed in mercy. The legiſlature has power to veſt the judicial authority in ſuch courts as it ſhall think proper. The judges hold their commiſſion during good behaviour; thoſe of the ſuperior courts are elected by joint ballot of both houſes of Aſſembly; have a ſtated ſalary, and can hold no other office. All officers take and an oath of fidelity to their duty, and to the conſtitution of this State, and of the United States; and for malconduct, may be impeached by the Houſe of Repreſentatives, and tried by the Senate. This conſtitution aſſerts the ſupreme power of the people; liberty of conſcience; trial by jury; and ſubordination of the military to the civil power. It excludes *ex poſt facto* laws; bills of attainder; exceſſive bail; and titles of nobility and hereditary diſtinction.

The legiſlature has power, under certain regulations, to make amendments to the conſtitution. And a convention may be called by a vote of two-thirds of both branches of the whole repreſentation.

This conſtitution was ratified June 3d, 1790.

LAWS.

The laws of this State have nothing in them of a particular nature excepting what ariſes from the permiſſion of ſlavery. The evidence of a ſlave cannot be taken againſt a white man; and the maſter who kills his ſlave is not puniſhable otherwiſe than by a pecuniary mulct, and twelve months impriſonment*.

* We are not abſolutly certain, that theſe unjuſt diſtinctions have not ſince been done away. *Editor*

A commintee was appointed, at the ſeſſion of the legiſlature in 1792, to put in train the buſineſs of reviſing and amending the negroe act, or the law for governing the ſlaves. The iſſue has meliorated the condition of the ſlaves, and afforded an evidence to the world of the enlightened policy, and increaſing humanity of the citizens of this State. Prior to this a diſpoſition to ſoften the rigors of ſlavery was manifeſted, by allowing them fiſh, tobacco, and ſummer clothing, which formerly was not cuſtomary. Thus while a veſtige of ſlavery remains the ſituation of the ſlaves is rendered tolerable, and no doubt can be entertained but that farther ſteps will be taken to prepare their minds for the enjoyment of that freedom which the federal government has acknowledged to be their right, and which they have paved the way for their obtaining.

A law, altering the mode of deſcent of inteſtate eſtates, which formerly deſcended according to the laws of England, was paſſed in 1792. According to the preſent law, a more equal partition takes place, and more conformable to a republican government, to the dictates of natural affection, and the principles of common ſenſe.

By a late regulation, the judges of the court, who before had a ſalary of five hundred pounds each, and fees, have now ſix hundred pounds and no fees. The cheif juſtice has eight hundred pounds.

PRACTICE OF LAW, COURTS, &c.

From the firſt ſettlement of this country in 1669, to the year 1769, a ſingle court, called the court of common pleas, was thought ſufficient to tranſact the judicial buſineſs of the State. This court was invariably held at Charleſton, where all the records were kept, and all civil buſineſs tranſacted. As the province increaſed, inconveniencies aroſe, and created uneaſineſs among the people.

To remedy theſe inconveniencies an act was paſſed in 1769, by which the province was divided into ſeven diſtricts, which have been mentioned. The court of common pleas, inveſted with the powers of the ſame court in England, ſat four times a year in Charleſton. By the above-mentioned act, the judges of the court of common pleas were empowered to ſit as judges of the court of ſeſſions, inveſted with the powers of the court of king's bench in England, in the criminal juriſdiction. The act likewiſe directed the judges of the courts of common pleas and ſeſſions in Charleſton diſtrict, to divide, and two of the judges to proceed on what is called the northern circuit, and the other two on the ſouthern

circuit, distributing justice in their progress. This mode of administering justice continued till 1785, when, by the unanimous exertions of the two upper districts, an act was passed, establishing county courts in all the counties of the four districts of Camden, Ninety-Six, Cheraws, and Orangeburgh. The county courts are empowered to sit four times a year. Before the establishment of county courts, the lawyers all resided at Charleston, under the immediate eye of government; and the Carolina bar was as pure as any in the United States. Since this establishment, lawyers have flocked in from all quarters, and settled in different parts of the country, and law-suits in consequence have been multiplied beyond all former knowledge.

DAMAGE BY THE LATE WAR.

The damages which this State sustained in the late war are thus estimated: the three entire crops of 1779, 1780, and 1781, all of which were used by the British; the crop of 1782, taken by the Americans; about twenty-five thousand negroes; many thousand pounds worth of plate, and household furniture in abundance; the villages of George-town and Camden burnt; the loss to the citizens directly by the plunderings and devastations of the British army, and indirectly by American impressments, and by the depreciation of the paper currency, together with the heavy debt of one million, two hundred thousand pounds sterling, incurred for the support of the war, in one aggregate view, make the price of independence to South-Carolina, exclusive of the blood of its citizens, upwards of three million pounds sterling.

INDIANS.

The Catabaws are the only nation of Indians in this State. They have but one town, called Catabaw, situated on Catabaw river, in latitude 34° 49′, on the boundary line between North and South Carolinas, and contains about four hundred and fifty inhabitants, of which about one hundred and fifty are fighting men.

It is worthy of remark, that this nation was long at war with the six nations, into whose country they often penetrated, which it is said no other Indian nation from the south or west ever did. The six nations always considered them as the bravest of their enemies, till they were surrounded by the settlements of white people, whose neighbourhood, with other concurrent causes, have rendered them corrupt and enervated.

STATE OF

GEORGIA.

SITUATION, EXTENT, AND BOUNDARIES.

THIS State is ſituated between 31° and 35° north latitude and 5° and 16° weſt longitude: its length is ſix hundred miles, and its breadth two hundred and fifty. It is bounded on the eaſt, by the Atlantic ocean; on the ſouth, by Eaſt and Weſt Florida; on the weſt, by the river Miſſiſſippi; and on the north and north-eaſt, by South-Carolina, and the lands ceded to the United States by North-Carolina, or the Tenneſſee government.

CLIMATE, &c.

In ſome parts of this State, at particular ſeaſons of the year, the climate cannot be eſteemed ſalubrious. In the low country near the rice ſwamps, bilious complaints, and fevers of various kinds, are pretty univerſal during the months of July, Auguſt and September, which for this reaſon, are called the ſickly months.

The diſorders peculiar to this climate originate partly from the badneſs of the water, which in the low country, except in and about Savannah, and ſome other places, where good ſprings are found, is generally brackiſh, and partly from the noxious putrid vapours which are exhaled from the ſtagnant waters in the rice ſwamps. Beſides, the long continuance of warm weather produces a general relaxation of the nervous ſyſtem, and as a great proportion of the inhabitants have no neceſſary labour to call them to exerciſe, a large ſhare of indolence is the natural conſequence; and indolence, eſpecially amongſt a luxurious people, is ever the parent of diſeaſe. The immenſe quantities of ſpirituous liquors which are uſed to correct the brackiſhneſs of the water, form a ſpecies of intemperance, which too often proves ruinous to the conſtitution. Parents of infirm, ſickly habits, often, in more ſenſes than one, have children of their own

likeneſs. A conſiderable part of the diſeaſes of the preſent inhabitants may, therefore, be conſidered as hereditary.

Before the ſickly ſeaſon commences, many of the rich planters remove with their families to the ſea iſlands, or ſome elevated healthy ſituation, where they reſide three or four months for the benefit of the freſh air. In the winter and ſpring, pleuriſies, peripneumonies, and other inflamitory diſorders, occaſioned by ſudden and violent colds, are generally common and frequently fatal. Conſumptions, epilepſies, cancers, palſies and appoplexies, are not ſo common among the inhabitants of the ſouthern as northern climates.

The winters in Georgia are very mild and pleaſant. Snow is ſeldom or never ſeen. Vegetation is not frequently prevented by ſevere froſts. Cattle ſubſiſt well through the winter, without any other food than what they obtain in the woods and ſavannahs and are fatter in that than in any other. In the hilly country, which begins about fifty, and in ſome places one hundred miles from the ſea, the air is pure and ſalubrious, and the water plenty and good. From June to September, the mercury in Fahrenheit's thermometer commonly fluctuates from 76° to 90°; in winter, from 40° to 60°. The moſt prevailing winds are ſouth-weſt and eaſt; in winter north-weſt. The eaſt wind is warmeſt in winter, and cooleſt in ſummer. The ſouth wind, in the ſummer and fall particularly, is damp, ſultry, unelaſtic, and of courſe, unhealthy.

In the South-eaſt parts of this State, which lie within a few degrees of the torrid zone, the atmoſphere is kept in motion by impreſſions from the trade winds. This ſerves to purify the air, and render it fit for reſpiration; ſo that it is found to have a very advantageous effect on perſons of conſumptive habits.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.

The eaſtern part of the State, between the mountains and the ocean, and the rivers Savannah and St. Mary's, a tract of country, more than one hundred and twenty miles from north to ſouth, and forty or fifty from eaſt to weſt, is entirely level, without a hill or ſtone. At the diſtance of about forty or fifty miles from the ſea-board, or ſalt-marſh, the lands begin to be more or leſs uneven. The ridges gradually riſe one above another into hills, and the hills ſucceſſively increaſing in height, till they finally terminate in mountains. That vaſt chain of mountains which commences with the Katt's Kill, near Hudſon river in the State of New-York, known by the names of the

Allegany and Appalachian mountains, terminate in this State, about ſixty miles ſouth of its northern boundary. From the foot of this mountain ſpreads a wide-extended plain, of the richeſt ſoil, and in a latitude and climate well adapted to the cultivation of moſt of the Eaſt-India productions.

The rivers in this State are numerous, and ſome of them of the utmoſt importance.

Savannah river divides this State from South-Carolina: its courſe is nearly from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt. It is formed principally of two branches, known by the names of Tugulo and Keowee, which ſpring from the mountains, and unite fifteen miles north-weſt of the northern boundary of Wilkes county. It is navigable for large veſſels up to Savannah, and for boats of one hundred feet keel as far as Auguſta. After riſing a fall juſt above this place, it is paſſable for boats to the mouth of Tugulo river. After it takes the name of Savannah, at the confluence of the Tugulo and Keowee, it receives a number of tributary ſtreams from the Georgia ſide, the principal of which is Broad river, which riſes in the county of Franklin, and runs ſouth-eaſt through part of Wilkes county, and mingles with the Savannah at the town of Peterſburgh and might, with a trifling expenſe, be made boatable twenty-five or thirty miles through the beſt ſettlements in Wilkes county. Tybee bar, at the entrance of Savannah river, in latitude 31° 57′, has ſixteen feet water at half tide.

Ogeechee river, about eighteen miles ſouth of the Savannah, is a ſmaller river, and nearly parallel with it in its courſe.

Alatamaha,* about ſixty miles ſouth of Savannah river, has its ſource in the Cherokee mountains, near the head of the Tugulo, the great weſt branch of Savannah, and, before it leaves the mountains, is joined and augmented by innumerable rivulets; thence it deſcends through the hilly country, with all its collateral branches, and winds rapidly amongſt hills two hundred and fifty miles, and then enters the flat, plain country, by the name of the Oakmulge; thence meandering one hundred and fifty miles, it is joined on the eaſt ſide by the Ocone, which likewiſe heads in the lower ridges of mountains. After this confluence, having now gained a vaſt acquiſition of waters, it aſſumes the name of Alatamaha, when it becomes a large majeſtic river, flowing with gentle windings through a vaſt foreſt, near one hundred miles,

* Pronounced Oltamawhaw.

and enters the Atlantic by ſeveral mouths. The north channel, or entrance, glides by the heights of Darien, on the eaſt bank, about ten miles above the bar, and, running from thence with ſeveral turnings, enters the ocean between Sapello and Wolf iſlands. The ſouth channel, which is eſteemed the largeſt and deepeſt, after its ſeparation from the north, deſcends gently, winding by M'Intoſh's and Broughton Iſlands; and laſtly, by the weſt coaſt of St. Simon's iſland, enters the ocean, through St. Simon's ſound, between the ſouth end of the iſland of that name, and the north end of Jekyl iſland. On the weſt banks of the ſouth channel, ten or twelve miles above its mouth, and nearly oppoſite Darien, are to be ſeen the remains of an ancient fort or fortification; it is now a regular tetragon terrace, about four feet high, with baſtions at each angle; the area may contain about an acre of ground, but the foſſe which ſurrounded it is nearly filled up. There are large live oaks, pines and other trees growing upon it, and in the old fields adjoining. It is ſuppoſed to have been the work of the French or Spaniards. A large ſwamp lies betwixt it and the river, and a conſiderable creek runs cloſe by the works, and enters the river through the ſwamp, a ſmall diſtance above Broughton iſland. About ſeventy or eighty miles above the confluence of the Oakmulge and Ocone, the trading path from Auguſta to the Creek nation croſſes theſe fine rivers, which are there forty miles apart. On the eaſt banks of the Oakmulge, this trading road runs nearly two miles through ancient Indian fields, which are called the Oakmulge fields; they are the rich low lands of the river. On the heights of theſe low grounds are yet viſible monuments or traces, of an ancient town, ſuch as artificial mounts or terraces, ſquares and banks, encircling conſiderable areas. Their old fields and planting land extend up and down the river, fifteen or twenty miles from this ſite. And, if we are to give credit to the account the Creeks give of themſelves, this place is remarkable for being the firſt town or ſettlement, when they ſat down, as they term it, or eſtabliſhed themſelves after their emigration from the weſt, beyond the Miſſiſſippi, their original native country.

Beſides theſe, there is Turtle river, Little Sitilla, or St. Ille, Great Sitilla, Crooked river, and St. Mary's, which form a part of the ſouthern boundry of the United States. St. Mary's river has it ſource from a vaſt lake, or rather marſh, called Ouaquaphenogaw, and flows through a vaſt plain and pine foreſt, about one hundred and fifty miles to the ocean, with which it

communicates between the points of Amelia and Talbert's iſlands, latitude 30° 44′, and is navigable for veſſels of conſiderable burthen for ninety miles. Its banks afford immenſe quantities of fine timber, ſuited to the Weſt-India market. Along this river, every four or five miles, are bluffs convenient for veſſels to haul to and to load.

The rivers in the middle and weſtern parts of this State, are, Apalachicola, which is formed by the Chatahouchee and Flint rivers, Mobile, Paſcagoula and Pearl rivers. All theſe running ſouthwardly, empty into the Gulph of Mexico. The foremen-tioned rivers abound with a great variety of fiſh, among which are the mullet, whiting, ſheepſhead, cat, rock, trout, drum, baſs, brim, white, ſhad, and ſturgeon. The bays and lagoons are ſtored with oyſters and other ſhell fiſh, crabs, ſhrimps, &c. The clams, in particular, are large, their meat white, tender and delicate. The ſhark and great black ſtingray are inſatiable cannibals, and very troubleſome to the fiſhermen.

The lake, or rather marſh, called Ouaquaphenogaw, lies be-tween Flint and Oakmulge rivers, and is nearly three hundred miles in circumference. In wet ſeaſons it appears like an inland ſea, and has ſeveral large iſlands of rich land; one of which the preſent generation of Creek Indians repreſent as the moſt bliſsful ſpot on earth. They ſay it is inhabited by a peculiar race of Indians, whoſe women are incomparably beautiful. They tell you alſo that this terreſtial paradiſe has been ſeen by ſome enter-priſing hunters, when in purſuit of their game, who, being loſt in inextricable ſwamps and bogs, and on the point of periſhing, were unexpectedly relieved by a company of beautiful women, whom they call daughters of the Sun, who kindly gave them ſuch proviſions as they had with them, conſiſting of fruit and corn cakes, and then enjoined them to fly for ſafety to their own country, becauſe their huſbands were fierce men and cruel to ſtrangers. They farther ſay, that theſe hunters had a view of their ſettlements, ſituated on the elevated banks of an iſland, in a beautiful lake; but that in their endeavours to approach it, they were involved in perpetual labyrinths, and, like enchanted land, ſtill as they imagined they had juſt gained it, it ſeemed to fly be-fore them. They determined, at length, to quit the deluſive purſuit, and with much difficulty effected a retreat. When they reported their adventuries to their countrymen, the young warriors were inflamed with an irreſiſtible deſire to invade and conquer ſo charming a country, but all their attempts had hitherto

proved fruitleſs, they never being able again to find the ſpot. They tell another ſtory concerning this ſequeſtered country, which ſeems not improbable, which is, that the inhabitants are the poſterity of a fugitive remnant of the ancient Yamaſes, who eſcaped maſſacre after a bloody and deciſive battle between them and the Creeks. It is certain, that the Creeks conquered and nearly exterminated that once powerful people, and it is probable, that they here found an aſylum, remote and ſecure from the fury of their pround conquerors.

Beſides the St. Mary; the rivers Sitilla, or St. Ille, and the beautiful Little St. Juan, which empties into the bay of Appalachi at St. Mark's, are ſaid to flow from this lake.*

About ſixteen miles from the mouth of Broad river, on its ſouth ſide, is what is called the Gooſepond, a tract of about one hundred and eighty acres, covered with living water about two feet deep: it diſcharges into the river, and is fed by two ſprings.

SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, &c.

The ſoil in this State and its fertility are various, according to ſituation and different improvement. The iſlands on the ſea board, in their natural ſtate, are covered with a plentiful growth of pine, oak and hiccory, live oak, an uncommonly hard and a very valuable wood, and ſome red cedar. The ſoil is a mixture of ſand and black mould, making what is commonly called a grey ſoil. A conſiderable part of it, particularly that whereon grow the oak, hiccory and live oak, is very rich, and yields, on cultivation, good crops of indigo, cotton, corn and potatoes. Theſe iſlands are ſurrounded by navigable creeks, between which and the main land is a large extent of ſalt marſh, fronting the whole State, not leſs, on an average, than four or five miles in breadth, interſected with creeks in various directions, admitting, through the whole, an inland navigation between the iſlands and main land, from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-eaſt corners of the State. The eaſt ſides of theſe iſlands are, for the moſt part, clean, hard, ſandy beaches, expoſed to the waſh of the ocean. Between theſe iſlands are the entrances of the rivers from the interior country, winding through the low ſalt marſhes, and delivering their waters into the ſounds, which form capacious harbours of from three to eight miles over, and which communicate with each other by parallel ſalt creeks.

* Bartram's Travels.

The principal iſlands are, Shidaway, Waſſaw, Oſſabaw, St. Catharine's, Sapelo, Frederica, Jekyl, Cumberland and Amelia.

The ſoil of the main land, adjoining the marſhes and creeks is nearly of the ſame quality with that of the iſlands, except that which borders on thoſe rivers and creeks which ſtretch far back into the country. On theſe, immediately after you leave the ſalts, begin the valuable rice ſwamps, which, on cultivation, afford the preſent principal ſtaple of commerce. Moſt of the rice lands lie on rivers, which as far as the tide flows, are called tide lands; or on creeks and particular branches of water, flowing in ſome deeper or lower parts of the lands, which are called inland ſwamps, and extend back in the country from fifteen to twenty-five miles, beyond which very little rice is planted, though it will grow exceedingly well, as experiment has proved, one hundred and twenty miles back from the ſea. The intermediate lands, between theſe creeks and rivers, are of an inferior quality, being of a grey ſoil, covered chiefly with pine, and a ſort of wild graſs and ſmall reeds, which afford a large range of feeding ground for ſtock both ſummer and winter. Here and there are interſperſed oak and hiccory ridges, which are of a better ſoil, and produce good crops of corn and indigo; but theſe are very little elevated above the circumjacent lands. The lands adjoining the rivers, and, for an hundred miles in a direct line from the ſea, continue a breadth from two to three or four miles, and wherever, in that diſtance, you find a piece of high land that extends to the bank of the river on one ſide, you may expect to find the low or ſwamp ground proportionably wide on the oppoſite ſide of the river. This ſeems to be an invariable rule till you come to that part where the river cuts the mountains.

The ſoil between the rivers, after you leave the ſea board and the edge of the ſwamps, at the diſtance of twenty or thirty miles, changes from a grey to a red colour, on which grows plenty of oak and hiccory, with a conſiderable intermixture of pine. In ſome places it is gravelly, but fertile, and ſo continues for a number of miles, gradually deepening the reddiſh colour of the earth, till it changes into what is called the Mulatto ſoil, conſiſting of a black mould and red earth. The compoſition is darker or lighter according as there is a larger or ſmaller proportion of the black or red earth in it. The mulatto lands are generally ſtrong, and yield large crops of wheat, tobacco, corn, &c. To this kind of land ſucceeds by turns a ſoil nearly black and very rich, on which grow large

quantities of black walnut, mulberry, &c. This ſucceſſion of different ſoils continues uniform and regular, though there are ſome large veins of all the different ſoils intermixed; and what is more remarkable, this ſucceſſion, in the order mentioned, ſtretches acroſs this State nearly parallel with the ſea coaſt, and extends through the ſeveral States nearly in the ſame direction, to the banks of Hudſon river. In this State are produced, by culture, rice, indigo, cotton, ſilk, (though not in large quantities) Indian corn, potatoes, oranges, figs, pomegranates, &c. Rice, at preſent, is the ſtaple commodity; and as a ſmall proportion only of the rice ground is under cultivation, the quantity raiſed in future muſt be much greater than at preſent. But the rapid increaſe of the inhabitants, chiefly by emigrations, whoſe attention is turned to the raiſing of tobacco, and the vaſt extent of land, with a richneſs of ſoil ſuited to the culture of that plant, renders it probable, that tobacco will ſhortly become the ſtaple of this State. Cotton was formerly planted only by the poorer claſs of people, and that only for family uſe. They planted of two kinds, the annual and the Weſt-Indian; the former is low and planted every year; the balls of which are very large, and the phlox long, ſtrong, and perfectly white. The latter is a tall perennial plant, the ſtalk ſomewhat ſhrubby, ſeveral of which riſe up from the root for ſeveral years ſucceſſively, the ſtems of the former year being killed by the winter froſts. The balls of Weſt-India cotton are not quite ſo large as the other, but the phlox or wool is long, extremely fine, ſilky and white. A plantation of this kind will laſt ſeveral years with moderate labour and care. The culture of cotton is now much more attended to; ſeveral indigo planters have converted their plantations into cotton fields. The tobacco lands are equally well adapted to wheat, which may hereafter make an important article of commerce.

On the dry plains grow large crops of ſweet potatoes, which are found to afford a wholeſome nouriſhment, and from which is made by diſtillation, a kind of whiſky, tolerably good, but inferior to that made of rye. It is by properly macerating and waſhing this root that a ſediment or ſtarch is made, which has obtained the name of ſago, and anſwers all the purpoſes of the Indian ſago.

Moſt of the tropical fruits would flouriſh in this State with proper attention. The rice plant has been tranſplanted, and alſo the tea plant, of which ſuch immenſe quantities are conſumed in the United States, was introduced into Georgia by

Mr. Samuel Bowen, about the year 1770, from India. The ſeed was diſſeminated, and the plant now grows, without cultivation, in moſt of the fenced lots in Savannah.

From many conſiderations we may, perhaps, venture to predict, that the ſouth-weſtern part of the State, and the parts of Eaſt and Weſt-Florida, which lie adjoining, will, in ſome future time, become the vineyard of America.

REMARKABLE SPRING.

In the county of Wilkes, within a mile and a half of the town of Waſhington, is a medicinal ſpring, which riſes from a hollow tree, four or five feet in length. The inſide of the tree is covered with a coat of matter, an inch thick, and the leaves around the ſpring are incruſted with a ſubſtance as white as ſnow. It is ſaid to be a ſovereign remedy for the ſcurvy, ſcrophulous diſorders, conſumptions, gouts, and every other diſeaſe ariſing from humours in the blood. A perſon, who had a ſevere rheumatiſm in his right arm, having, in the ſpace of ten minutes, drank two quarts of the water, experienced a momentary chill, and was then thrown into a perſpiration, which, in a few hours, left him entirely free from pain, and in perfect health.

This ſpring, ſituated in a fine healthy part of the State, in the neighbourhood of Waſhington, where are excellent accommodations, will no doubt prove a pleaſant and ſalutary place of reſort for invalids from the maritime and unhealthy parts of this and the neighbouring States.

CIVIL DIVISIONS.

Before the revolution, Georgia, like the other ſouthern States, was divided into pariſhes, but this mode of diviſion is now aboliſhed, and that of counties has ſucceeded it.

That part of the State which is laid out, is divided into three diſtricts, which are ſubdivided into eleven counties, as follows:

LOWER DISTRICT.

Camden,	Liberty,	Effingham.
Glyn,	Chatham,	

MIDDLE DISTRICT.

Richmond,	Burke,	Waſhington.

UPPER DISTRICT.

Wilkes, Franklin, Green.

CHIEF TOWNS.

The chief towns are, St. Patrick's, Brunſwick, Sunbury, Savannah, Ebenezer, Auguſta, Waynſborough, Louiſville, Golphinton, Waſhington, Greenſburgh.

AUGUSTA.

The preſent ſeat of government in this State is Auguſta. It is ſituated on the ſouth-weſt bank of Savannah river, which is here about five hundred yards wide, about one hundred and forty-four miles from the ſea, and one hundred and twenty-ſeven north-weſt of Savannah. The town, which in 1782 contained but three or four houſes, in 1787 contained two hundred; it is on a fine large plain, at the foot of the firſt falls in the river, which in a dry ſeaſon are four or five feet in height; and as it enjoys the beſt ſoil, and the advantage of a central ſituation between the upper and lower counties, is riſing faſt into importance. In the vicinity of this town is the remarkable large bank of oyſter ſhells which we have had occaſion before to notice.

SAVANNAH.

Savannah, the former capital of Georgia, ſtands on a high ſandy bluff, on the ſouth ſide of the river of the ſame name, and ſeventeen miles from its mouth. The town is regularly built in the form of a parallelogram, and, including its ſuburbs, contained, in 1787, two hundred and twenty-ſeven dwelling houſes, one Epiſcopal church, a Preſbyterian church, a Synagogue, and a court houſe. The number of its inhabitants, excluſive of the blacks, amounted at that time to about eight hundred and thirty, ſeventy of whom were Jews.

In Savannah, and within a circumference of about ten miles from it, there were, in the ſummer of 1787, about two thouſand three hundred inhabitants. Of theſe one hundred and ninety-two were above fifty years of age, and all in good health. The ages of a lady and her ſix children, then living in the town, amounted to three hnndred and eighty-five years.

This computation, which was actually made, ſerves to ſhew that Savannah is not really ſo unhealthy as has been commonly repreſented.

SUNBURY.

Sunbury is a ſea port town, beautifully ſituated on the main between Medway and Newport rivers, about fifteen miles ſouth of Great Ogeechee river; it is favoured with a ſafe, capacious, and very convenient harbour, defended from the fury of the ſeas by the north and ſouth points of St. Helena, and South Catherine's iſlands, between which is the bar and entrance into the ſound. Several ſmall iſlands intervene, and partly obſtruct a diſtant view of the ocean; and, interlocking with each other, render the paſſage out to ſea winding, but not difficult. It is a very pleaſant, healthy town, and is the reſort of the planters from the adjacent places of Medway and Newport, during the ſickly months. It was burnt by the Britiſh in the late war, but has ſince been rebuilt. An academy was eſtabliſhed here in 1788, which, under an able inſtructor, has proved a very uſeful inſtitution.

BRUNSWICK.

Brunſwick, in Glyn county, latitude 31° 10', is ſituated at the mouth of Turtle river, at which place this river empties itſelf into St. Simon's ſound. Brunſwick has a ſafe and capacious harbour; and the bar, at the entrance into it, has water deep enough for the largeſt veſſels that ſwim. The town is regularly laid out, but not yet built. From its advantageous ſituation, and from the fertility of the back country, it promiſes to be hererfter one of the firſt trading towns in Georgia.

FREDERICA.

Frederica, on the iſland of St. Simon, is nearly in latitude 31° 15'; it is one of the oldeſt towns in Georgia, and was founded by General Oglethorpe. The fortreſs was regular and beautiful, conſtructed chiefly with brick, but is now in ruins. The town contains but few houſes, which ſtand on an eminence, if conſidered with regard to the marſhes before it, upon a branch of Alatamaha river, which waſhes the weſt ſide of this agreeable iſland, and forms a bay before the town, affording a ſafe and ſecure harbour for veſſels of the largeſt burthens, which may lie along the wharf.

WASHINGTON.

Washington, the chief town in the county of Wilts, is situated in latitude 33° 22′, about fifty miles north-west of Augusta; it had, in 1788, a court house, goal, thirty-four dwelling houses, and an academy, whose funds amounted to about eight hundred pounds sterling, and the number of students to between sixty and seventy.

LOUISVILLE.

The town of Louisville, which is designed as the future seat of government in this State, has been laid out on the bank of Ogeechee river, about seventy miles from its mouth, but is not yet built.

POPULATION.

The population of this State in 1791 was as follows:

LOWER DISTRICT.

COUNTIES.	Free white males of 16 years and upwards.	Free white males under 16 years of age.	Free white females.	All other free persons.	Slaves.	Total.
Camden,	81	44	96	14	70	305
Glyn,	70	36	87	5	215	413
Liberty,	426	264	613	27	4025	5355
Chatham,	816	480	1130	112	8201	16739
Effingham,	627	336	711		750	2424
	2020	1160	2637	158	13261	21536

MIDDLE DISTRICT.

Richmond	1894	1925	3343	39	4116	11317
Burke,	1808	1841	3415	11	2392	9467
Washington,	947	1024	1885	2	694	4552
	4649	4790	8643	52	7202	25336

UPPER DISTRICT.

COUNTIES.	Free white males of 16 years and upwards.	Free white males under 16 years of age.	Free white females.	All other free persons.	Slaves.	Total.
Wilkes, - - - -	5152	6740	12160	180	7268	31500
Franklin, - - - -	225	243	417		156	1041
Greene, - - - -	1027	1111	1882	8	1377	5405
	6404	8094	14459	188	8801	37946

SUMMARY OF POPULATION.

Lower District, - -	2020	1160	2637	158	13261	21536
Middle do. - - -	4649	4790	8643	52	7202	25336
Upper do. - - -	6404	8094	14459	188	8801	37946
	13073	14044	25739	398	29264	84818

RELIGION AND CHARACTER.

The inhabitants of this State, who profeſs the Chriſtian religion, are of the Preſbyterian, Epiſcopalian, Baptiſt, and Methodiſt denominations. They have but a few regular miniſters among them.

No general character will apply to the inhabitants at large. Collected from different parts of the world, as intereſt, neceſſity, or inclination led them, their character and manners muſt, of courſe, partake of all the varieties which diſtinguiſh the ſeveral ſtates and kingdoms from whence they came. Their is ſo little uniformity, that it is difficult to trace any governing principles among them. An averſion to labour is too predominant, owing in part to the relaxing heat of the climate, and partly to the want of neceſſity to excite induſtry. An open and friendly hoſpitality, particularly to ſtrangers, is an ornamental characteriſtic of a great part of this people.

Their diverſions are various. With ſome, dancing is a favourite amuſement; others take a fancied pleaſure at the gaming table, which, however, frequently terminates in the ruin of their happineſs, fortunes, and conſtitutions. In the upper counties, horſe-racing and cock-fighting prevail, two *cruel* diverſions import-

ed from Virginia and the Carolinas, from whence thoſe who practiſe them principally emigrated. But the moſt rational and univerſal amuſement is hunting; and for this Georgia is particularly well calculated, as the woods abound with plenty of deer, racoons, rabbits, wild turkeys, and other game; at the ſame time the woods are ſo thin and free from obſtructions, that you may generally ride half ſpeed in chace without danger: in this amuſement pleaſure and profit are blended.* This exerciſe more than any other, contributes to health, fits for activity in buſineſs and expertneſs in

* The following account of a Georgia planter's method of ſpending his time is extracted from the American Muſeum for 1790:

About ſix in the morning he quits his bed, and orders his horſe to be got ready; he then ſwallows a dram of bitters to prevent the ill effects of the early fogs, and ſets out upon the tour of his plantation. In this route he takes an opportunity to ſtop at the negro houſes, and if he ſees any lurking about home, whoſe buſineſs it is to be in the field, he immediately inquires the cauſe; if no ſufficient cauſe be given, he applies his rattan whip to the ſhoulders of the ſlave, and obliges him inſtantly to decamp. If ſickneſs be alledged, the negroe is immediately ſhut up in the ſick-houſe, bled, purged, and kept on low diet, till he either dies or gets into a way of recovery. After having examined the overſeer relative to the welfare of the poultry, hogs, cattle, &c. he proceeds round the farm, takes a curſory view of the rice, corn, or indigo fields, and examines into the ſtate of the fences and other incloſures; about the hour of eight, his circuit is finiſhed, when, before he alights at his own door, a tribe of young negroes, in the primitive ſtate of nakedneſs, ruſh out to meet him, and receive the horſe.

Breakfaſt being over, he again mounts a freſh horſe, and rides to the county town, or the firſt public houſe in the neighbourhood, where he talks politics, inquires the price of produce, makes bargains, plays a game at all-fours, or appoints days for horſe races or boxing matches; about four o'clock he returns, bringing with him ſome friends or acquaintance to dinner. If the company be lively or agreeable, he rarely riſes from table before ſun ſet. If it be a wet evening, or the weather very diſagreeable, cards or converſation employ him till bed time. If it be fair and no moonlight, after an early ſupper, a fire is kindled in a pan, and two or three of them ſet out ſtored with ſome bottles of brandy, preceded by a negroe who carries the fire, in order to ſhoot deer in the woods, as theſe creatures are ſo attracted by a light, that they conſtantly ſtand ſtill, and fix their eyes upon the blaze, by the reflection of which from the eye-ball they are eaſily diſcovered and ſhot. Sometimes, however, it happens, that tame cattle that have been turned into the woods to range, are killed by miſtake.

About midnight they return, according to luck, with or without game; their ſhins and faces ſadly ſcratched, and themſelves fit for nothing but to be put to bed. This is the general routine of exiſtence among ſuch of the Georgians as live in the more retired and woody parts of the State. Others have their weekly ſocieties, for ſentimental and colloquial amuſement; as to trade and buſineſs, it is entirely managed by overſeers and factors.

war; the game alſo affords them a palatable food, and the ſkins a profitable article of commerce.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.

The chief articles of export are rice, tobacco, of which the county of Wilkes only exported, in 1788, about three thouſand hogſheads, indigo, ſago, lumber of various kinds, naval-ſtores, leather, deer ſkins, ſnake root, myrtle and bees wax, corn, and live ſtock. The planters and farmers raiſe large ſtocks of cattle, from one hundred to fifteen hundred head, and ſome more.

The amount of exports in the year ending September 30th, 1791, was four hundred and ninety-one thouſand four hundred and ſeventy-two dollars. In return for the enumerated exports, are imported Weſt-India goods, teas, wines, various articles of cloathing, and dry goods of all kinds. From the northern States, cheeſe, fiſh, potatoes, apples, cyder, and ſhoes. The imports and exports of this State are principally to and from Savannah, which has a fine harbour, and is a place where the principal commercial buſineſs of the State is tranſacted. The trade with the Indians in furs and ſkins was very conſiderable before the war, but has ſince been interrupted by the wars in which they have been involved. The manufactures of this State have hitherto been very inconſiderable, if we except indigo, ſilk, and ſago. The manner in which the indigo is cultivated and manufactured is as follows; the ground, which muſt be a ſtrong rich ſoil, is thrown into beds of ſeven or eight feet wide, after having been made very mellow, and is then raked till it is fully pulverized: the ſeed is then ſown in April, in rows at ſuch a diſtance as conveniently to admit of hoeing between them. In July the firſt crop is fit to cut, being commonly two and a half feet high; it is then thrown into vats conſtructed for the purpoſe, and ſteeped about thirty hours; after which, the liquor is drawn off into other vats, where it is beat as they call it, by which means it is thrown into much ſuch a ſtate of agitation as cream is by churning. After this proceſs, lime water is put into the liquor, which cauſes the particles of indigo to ſettle at the bottom. The liquor is then drawn off, and the ſediment, which is the indigo, is taken out and ſpread on cloths, and partly dried; it is then put into boxes and preſſed, and, while it is yet ſoft, cut into ſquare pieces, which are thrown into the ſun to dry, and then put up in caſks for the market. They have commonly three cuttings a ſeaſon. A middling crop for thirty acres is one thouſand three hundred pounds.

The culture of ſilk and the manufacture of ſago are at preſent but little attended to. The people in the lower part of this State manufacture none of their own cloathing for themſelves or their negroes: for almoſt every article of their wearing apparel, as well as for their huſbandry tools, they depend on their merchants, who import them from Great-Britan and the northern States. In the upper parts of the country, however, the inhabitants manufacture the chief part of their cloathing from cotton, hemp, and flax; and in general manufactures are on the increaſe.

STATE OF LITERATURE.

The literature of this State, which is yet in its infancy, is commencing on a plan which affords the moſt flattering proſpects. It ſeems to have been the deſign of the legiſlature of this State, as far as poſſible, to unite their literary concerns, and provide for them in common, that the whole might feel the benefit, and no part be neglected or left a pray to party rage, private prejudices and contentions and conſequent ignorance, their inſeparable attendant. For this purpoſe, the literature of this State, like its policy, appears to be conſidered as one object, and in the ſame manner, ſubject to common and general regluations for the good of the whole. The charter, containing their preſent ſyſtem of education, was paſſed in the year 1785. A college, with ample and liberal endowments, is inſtituted in Louiſville, a high and healthy part of the country, near the center of the State. There is alſo proviſion made for the inſtitution of an academy in each county in the State, to be ſupported from the ſame funds, and conſidercd as parts and members of the ſame inſtitution, under the general ſuperintendence and direction of a preſident and board of truſtees, appointed, for their literary accompliſhments, from the different parts of the State, inveſted with the cuſtomary powers of corporations. The inſtitutions thus compoſed and united is denominated, "The Univerſity of Georgia."

That this body of literati, to whom is intruſted the direction of the general literature of the State, may not be ſo detached and independant, as not to poſſeſs the confidence of the State; and, in order to ſecure the attention and patronage of the principal officers of government, the governor and council, the ſpeaker of the Houſe of Aſſembly, and the chief juſtice of the State, are aſſociated with the board of truſtees, in ſome of the great and more ſolemn duties of their office, ſuch as making the laws, appointing the preſident, ſettling the property, and inſtituting

academies. Thus aſſociated, they are denominated, "The Senate of the Univerſity," and are to hold a ſtated, annual meeting, at which the governor of the State preſides,

The Senate appoint a board of commiſſioners in each county, for the particular management and direction of the academy, and the other ſchools in each county, who are to receive their inſtructions from, and are accountable to the Senate. The rector of each academy is an officer of the univerſity, to be appointed by the preſident, with the advice of the truſtees, and commiſſioned under the public ſeal, and is to attend with the other officers at the annual meeting of the Senate, to deliberate on the general intereſts of literature, and to determine on the courſe of inſtruction for the year, throughout the univerſity. The preſident has the general charge and overſight of the whole, and is from time to time to viſit them, to examine into their order and performances.

The funds for the ſupport of their inſtitution are principally in lands, amounting in the whole to about fifty thouſand acres, a great part of which is of the beſt quality, and at preſent very valuable. There are alſo nearly ſix thouſand pounds ſterling in bonds, houſes and town lots in the town of Auguſta. Other public property to the amount of one thoſand pounds in each county, has been ſet apart for the purpoſes of building and furniſhing their reſpective academies.

CONSTITUTION.

The preſent conſtitution of this State was formed and eſtabliſhed in the year 1789, and is nearly upon the plan of conſtitution of the United States.

INDIANS,

The Muſkogee, or Creek Indians, inhabit the middle part of this State, and are the moſt numerous tribe of Indians of any within the limits of the United States: their whole number ſome years ſince was ſeventeen thouſand two hundred and eighty, of which five thouſand eight hundred and ſixty were fighting men. They are compoſed of various tribes, who, after bloody wars, thought it good policy to unite aud ſupport themſelves againſt the Chactaws, &c. They conſiſt of the Appalachies, Alibamas, Abecas, Cawittaws, Cooſas, Conſhacks Cooſactees, Chacſihoomas, Natchez, Oconies, Oakmulgies, Okohoys, Pakanas, Taenſas, Talepooſas, Weetumkas, and ſome others. Their union

has rendered them victorious over the Chactaws, and formidable to all the nations around them. They are a well-made, expert, hardy, ſagacious, politic people, extremely jealous of rights and averſe to parting with their lands. They have abundance of tame cattle and ſwine, turkeys, ducks, and other poultry; they cultivate tobacco, rice, Indian corn, potatoes, beans, peas, cabbage, melons, and have plenty of peaches, plumbs, grapes, ſtrawberries, and other fruits. They are faithful friends, but inveterate enemies; hoſpitable to ſtrangers, and honeſt and fair in their dealings. No nation has a more contemptible opinion of the white men's faith in general than theſe people, yet they place great confidence in the United States, and wiſh to agree with them upon a permanent boundary, over which the ſouthern States ſhall not treſpaſs.

The country which they claim is bounded northward by about the 34th degree of latitude, and extends from the Tombeckbee, or Mobile river, to the Atlantic ocean, though they have ceded a part of this tract on the ſea coaſt, by different treaties, to the State of Georgia. Their principal towns lie in latitude 32°, and longitede 11° 20′ from Philadelphia. They are ſettled in a hilly but not mountainous country; the ſoil is fruitful in a high degree, and well watered, abounding in creeks and rivulets from whence they ary called the Creek Indians.*

The Chactaws, or flat heads, inhabit a very fine and extenſive tract of hilly country, with large and fertile plains intervening, between the Alabama and Miſſiſſippi rivers, in the weſtern part of this State. The nation had, not many years ago, forty-three towns and villages, in three diviſions, containing twelve thouſand one hundred and twenty-three ſouls, of which four thouſand and forty-one were fighting men.

The Chickaſaws are ſettled on the head branches of the Tombeckbee, Mobile, and Yazoo rivers in the north-weſt corner of

* General M'Gillivray, the celebrated chief of the Creeks, is a half-blooded Indian, his mother being a woman of high rank in the Creek nation. He was ſo highly eſteemed among them, that they in a formal manner elected him their ſovereign, and veſted him with conſiderable powers. He has ſeveral ſiſters married to leading men among the Creeks. This gentlemen would gladly have remained a citizen of the United States; but having ſerved under the Britiſh during the late war, his property in Georgia, which was conſiderable was confiſcated. This circumſtance induced him to retire among his friends the Creeks, ſince which he has been an active and zealous partiſan in their intereſts and police.

the State. Their country is an extenſive plain, tolerably well watered from ſprings, and of a pretty good ſoil. They have ſeven towns, the central one of which is in latitude 34° 23′, and longitude 14° 30′ weſt. The number of ſouls in this nation have been formerly reckoned at one thouſand ſeven hundred and twenty five, of which five hundred and ſeventy-five were fighting men.

WE have now with candour and a ſincere attachment to truth, ſketched the hiſtory of the ſeveral States in the federal union. In order to keep within the bounds proſcribed in the plan firſt propoſed, the accounts are reſtrained as far as poſſible to thoſe ſubjects which we conſidered of the greateſt importance, and we have aimed ſo to arrange the various ſubjects as we truſt will afford a ſatisfactory anſwer to every queſtion which the European inquirer may put reſpecting the government, commerce, ſociety, learning, &c. of the United States. To have entered into a minute detail of every object that preſented itſelf to our view would have been comparatively uſeleſs, it might have gratified the curioſiy of a few, but the benefits would have been comparitively ſmall to the public. To this we may add, that many of the ſcenes would have been ſhifting while under deſcription, and the object in itſelf impracticable with reſpect to ſome of the States. In further purſuing our plan, we ſhall endeavour,

1ſt. To point out a few of the many advantages which America poſſeſſes over the different countries of Europe.

2d. What the advantages and proſpects are which an European ſettler has preſented to his view. Under this latter head we ſhall aim to convey all the information we can obtain that may prove advantageous in the paſſage to, or on the arrival at, what we muſt call a LAND OF LIBERTY.

OF THE

ADVANTAGES

WHICH THE UNITED STATES POSSESS OVER EUROPEAN COUNTRIES.

IN RESPECT TO GOVERNMENT.

WHILE the governments of moſt countries in Europe are perfectly deſpotic, and while thoſe which are not actually ſuch, appear to be verging faſt towards it, the government of America is making rapid ſtrides toward perfection; it being contrary to all the old governments in the hands of the people, they have exploded thoſe principles by the operation of which civil and religious diſqualifications and oppreſſions have been inflicted on mankind, and rejecting MERE TOLERATION, they have, with a ſmall exception, placed upon an equal footing every church ſect, and ſociety of religious perſons what ſoever.

Their laws and government have for their baſis the natural and impreſcriptible rights of man: liberty, ſecurity of perſon an property, reſiſtance againſt oppreſſion, doing whatever does not injure another, a right to concur, either perſonally or by their repreſentatives, in the formation of laws and an equal chance of arriving to places of honour, reward or imployment, according to their virtues, or talents. Theſe are the principles of their conſtitution; and laws grafted upon theſe ſimple, but ſubſtantial principles, and a ſyſtem of legal juriſprudence organized, and acting accordingly, form the eſſence of their government; and if ever the government ſwerves materially from theſe fundamental principles, the compact is diſſolved, and things revert again to a co-equal ſtate. By this plain definition of the nature of laws and government, every capacity, and every individual of the community, can judge with preciſion of the purity of legiſlation; this produces the moſt entire conviction in the minds of all men, of the neceſſity there is of acting, in every inſtance, according to the code of reaſon and truth. Every man in

America is equally concerned in the welfare and prosperity of his country and its government; for his own felicity can only be co-existent with it, and to suffer his ambition to run counter to the general weal would be madness in an enlightened commonwealth, as it could only tend to produce his own eternal disgrace and ruin, where the genius of freedom is enthroned in the heart of every citizen.

Europe has long been enslaved by forms and authorities; and while its multifarious laws and customs have served to perplex professional men, the sophistry employed in expounding them has completely bewildered the imagination of its citizens, and produced an obscurity of ideas upon the subject of jurisprudence and government, and a depravity of morals which is truly deplorable.

Religion, or what is called an establishment in Europe, has had and continues to have its share in rivetting the fetters of ignorance. The elucidation of truth has been retarded by the TYRANNY OF THE CHURCH; for while *priests have been the pedagogues of religion, morals, sentiments, and politics*, their INTERESTED VIEWS have caused them to flatter those governments whose interests it has been to keep the people ignorant, because it has secured to them the undisturbed division of the spoils of the great bulk of industrious citizens, while they were offering an indignity to the DEITY as gross as their system has been unnatural and unjust. What can be a greater presumption, or a higher pitch of arrogance, than presuming to arraign or judge of the sentiments of men, the propriety of which is to be determined before a tribunal in Heaven? It is an insult too gross to merit a comment. It has been subversive of all good morals, by affording a veil to cover the hypocrisy of the most designing knaves.

In America this evil has ceased to exist, the monster is destroyed, the natural alliance of church and state is broken, and the people left to the choice of their own religion, as well as of their own pastors; while they revere the former, will no doubt reward the latter as they merit; they will make a rapid progress in all the social virtues, while a class of men, who, from being privileged, had become the curse of Europe for more than three centuries, will in America, from the loss of all privileges but those which are the reward of piety and virtue, be the means of extending the knowledge and happiness of the human race.

In United States, every man who is taxed has a vote in the appointment of the repreſentatives of the State in which he reſides, as well as of the general government. Thus the people have the privilege of objecting to ſuch characters for their governors as have not the public approbation; which has the good effect of producing harmony between the government and the people—of obliging men who aſpire to the honours of their country to reſpect the public opinion; and as all the powers of government originate with, ſo they revert to the people; the judiciary they have reſerved to themſelves through the medium of juries. The legiſlative they intruſt to their repreſentatives who are eſſentially the ſame; and the executive emanates from the legiſlature, ſo that the whole are ultimately reſponſible to the people. The executive to the repreſentatives, and the repreſentatives, to their conſtituents.

A free government has often been compared to a pyramid. This alluſion is made with peculiar propriety in the ſyſtem of government adopted by the United States; it is laid on the broad baſis of the people; its powers gradually riſe, while they are confined, in proportion as they aſcend. When you examine all its parts, they will invariably be found to preſerve that eſſential mark of free government, and without which ſuch a government cannot exiſt—a chain of connection with the people. The advantages reſulting from this ſyſtem, while they are great, will not be confined to the United States, it will draw from Europe many worthy characters who pant for the enjoyment of freedom. It will induce princes, in order to preſerve their ſubjects, to reſtore to them a portion of that liberty of which they have for many ages deprived them. It will be ſubſervient to the great deſigns of Providence with regard to this globe, the multiplication of mankind, their improvement in knowledge, and their advancement in happineſs.

Nor are the immutable principles on which the American government is built, its only advantage to the people at large; the ſame ſpirit that fixed it on the baſis of liberty, has contributed to make the offices of government, poſts of honour and not of profit; hence the American government is adminiſtered at an expenſe ſo exceedingly trifling, that had the aſſertation been made of the practicableneſs of it a few years back, it would have obtained no credit. It is a well-known fact, that the general government of America does not amount to within forty thouſand pounds per annum of the

Engliſh penſion liſt; and if the government of the ſeparate States are added to it, it will not make an addition thereto equal to what the amount of ſinecure places would make to the penſion liſt in Great-Britain; yet men of character and abilities are not waiting to fill its reſpective offices; but on the contrary, while the ſpirit of the government, by opening the channel of promotion to every individual, is truly favourable to the growth of genius, a virtuous ambition to be inſtrumental in promoting the happineſs of mankind, always enſures a ſufficient number of candidates for public confidence.

IN RESPECT OF NATIONAL DEBT.

The debt of the United States is divided into two claſſes, foreign and domeſtic. The foreign debt is compoſed, in capital, of a loan made in France of twenty-four millions of livers at five per cent.; another made in Holland, under the guarantee of France, of ten millions,

	dolls.
at four per cent. both amounting in dollars to	6,296,296
Spain at five per cent.	174,011
In Holland, in four different loans	3,600,000
Total capital	10,070,307
Intereſt to December 31, 1789	1,651,257
Total, capital and intereſt	11,721,564
Domeſtic debt liquidated, capital and intereſt, to the 31ſt of December, 1790	40,414,085
Not liquidated, eſtimated at	2,000,000
Total, foreign and domeſtic	54,124,464

In the proſecution of the war each individual ſtate had occaſion to contract a debt of its own, which, for a variety of reaſons, it was thought beſt that the Congreſs ſhould aſſume and add to the general maſs of the debt of the United States.

The ſums thus aſſumed, which are ſuppoſed to abſorb nearly the whole of all the ſtate debts, amount in the whole to	25,000,000
So that the total amount of the preſent debt of the United States is	79,124,464
Annual intereſt of this ſum, as ſtipulated	4,587,444

Thus we ſee that the Americans pay leſs than a million ſterling a year including the expenſes of their government for having maintained their liberty: while Great-Britain pays more than four millions ſterling additional annual expenſe for having attempted to deprive them of it; and by the meaſures taken by the new government, the Americans are in a fair way not only to pay their intereſt, but to ſink the principal of their debt, and that without direct taxation.

Thus while the European governments draw annually fro their ſubjects at leaſt one fourth of their bona fi e property to defray the intereſt of their public debt, the citizens of the United States are ſcarce ſenſible of any burthen ariſing therefrom; nay, on the contrary, in its preſent ſtate, it is to them a real national advantage.*

EQUALITY OF SITUATION.

This is far from being the leaſt of the advantages which America poſſeſſes over European nations. In the greater part

* If the ſecret hiſtory of the debt contracted in France were publiſhed it would diſcover the origin of many fortunes which have aſtoniſhed us. It is certain, for inſtance, that M. de Vergennes diſpoſed of thoſe loans at pleaſure, cauſed military ſtores and merchandiſe to be furniſhed by perſons attached to him, and ſuffered not their accounts to be diſputed. It is a fact, that in his accounts with Congreſs, there was one million of livres that he never accounted for, after all the demands that were made to him. It is likewiſe a fact, that out of the forty-ſeven millions pretended to be furniſhed in the above articles by France to Congreſs, the employment of twenty-one millions is without vouchers.

M. Beaumarchais, in a memoir publiſhed ſome years ago, pretends to be the creditor of Congreſs for millions. There is a report made to Congreſs by two reſpectable members, in which they prove, that he now owes Congreſs ſeven hundred and forty-two thouſand four hundred and thirteen livres, and a million more, if the wandering million above mentioned has fallen into his hands. Theſe reporters make a ſtriking picture of the manœuvres practiſed to deceive the Americans.

Scarce a doubt, we think, can be entertained, but when the government of France ſhall be ſecured by external and internal tranquility, it will cauſe ſome account to be rendered of the ſums ſquandered in the part which France took in the American war; or rather the ſums which, inſtead of going to ſuccour thoſe brave ſtrugglers for liberty, went to adorn the bed-chambers of an actreſs? Adeline did more miſchief to the Americans than a regiment of Heſſians.

of Europe the diſtance between the higher and lower claſſes of ſociety is ſo great, as to beget on the part of the former a ſupercilious haughtineſs, and almoſt total neglect of all the ſocial virtues. The ſituations in which the privileged ariſtocracy of Europe are placed, may be conſidered as hotbeds of vice, ignorance and folly—nurſed in principles of tyranny and ſuperſtition —born, as many of them are, to the enjoyment of unearned honours, and riches derived from plunder—placed in ſituations where they can gratify every luſt and every brutal appetite, almoſt without controul—and enjoy every advantage that ought only to be the reward of virtue, without application to honeſt induſtry, it is not to be wondered at that they are ſunk in the ſcale of rational beings, and degraded below the level of virtuous ſociety. Perhaps a more contemptible figure cannot be imagined if properly conſidered, than what this claſs of men in general preſent to our view throughout Europe. Often without a ſingle virtue, rolling at eaſe in ſplendour and profuſion, preying upon the fruits of honeſt induſtry, and devouring the hard-earned morſal of the virtuous peaſant. But this is not all, their depravity of manners and boundleſs courſe of diſſipation and debauchery, extend their baneful influence through all the lower claſſes of ſociety, and poiſon all the channels of human happineſs. In America, this claſs of men are unknown, the maſs of inhabitants, excluſive of ſervants, conſiſts of thoſe who poſſeſs in fee ſimple from one hundred to five hundred acres of land, actually in cultivation, together with the tradeſmen immedately dependent on agriculture, moſt of whom are likewiſe farmers, with the ſtorekeepers and mechanics in the different towns; no part of ſociety preys on the other, but all contribute to the general good. A mediocrity of ſituation is common throughout the American States; there are few, indeed, whoſe incomes will reach two thouſand pounds ſterling per ann. and the number nearly as ſmall, and perhaps ſmaller, who are reduced to a dependent ſituation. This happy medium is productive of the moſt beneficial conſequences to their morals and their happineſs; it ſupports that ſpirit of independence and love of liberty which laid the foundation of their government; it keeps far diſtant that ſervility ſo common to the lower orders of Europeans, and preſerves them from the miſery and wretchedneſs attendant on following the vices of the privileged orders.

VARIETY OF CLIMATE, SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

The United States poſſeſs in this reſpect an advantage over moſt of the European kingdoms, for they are not only ſubject to the gradations from almoſt extreme heat to extreme cold, but ſeem capable of ſupplying almoſt all the productions of the earth. Situated in the northern diviſion of that extenſive portion of the globe, between the thirty-firſt and forty-ſixth degrees of northern latitude; the extreme length of their territory is about one thouſand two hundred and fifty miles, the breadth about one thouſand and forty. The ſuperficies are computed to be ſix hundred and forty million acres of land and water: after deducting the ſpace occupied by the capacious lakes and mighty rivers, which fertilize and accommodate this country, and occupy above a ſeventh part of its ſurface, there remain about five hundred and ninety millions of acres of faſt land.

In ſo very extended a ſcene as might be naturally expected, the fruits of the earth are many and various: we find even in the preſent half-tried ſtate of the capacities of the different ſoils and climates, a liſt of invaluable productions, ſome found by the firſt diſcoverers of the country, others introduced by mere accident, and others tranſported from Europe, during the ſimple ſtate of agriculture in the laſt century. In the ſouthern latitudes, particularly the States of Georgia, South-Carolina, and North-Carolina, rice, much ſuperior to that of Italy or the Levant, is raiſed in very great quantities. The comparative value of this grain is twenty-five per cent. in the Engliſh markets for the American, more than the Italian or Levant rice: and from the ample quantity and goodneſs of American rice, it appears that little, if any Mediterranean rice is now imported into England, as it has for ſome time been omitted in the general account of prices. The South-Carolina crop alone, of 1789, appears to have been above one hundred thouſand tierces, weighing ſixty millions of pounds. It is expected that Virginia will add this article to her liſt of exports, as it is ſuppoſed a large body of ſwamp in her moſt eaſtern counties is capable of producing it; and mountain rice has been raiſed by way of experiment in the new country near the head of the Ohio.

Tobacco is a ſtaple article of all the States, from Georgia as far north as Maryland, including both. Virginia alone, generally exported before the revolution, fifty-five thouſand hogſheads, weighing fifty-five millions of pounds; Maryland thirty thouſand hogſheads. The Carolinas and Georgia, which raiſed

but little of this article before the revolution, have, of late years, produced very large quantities: and as Virginia and Maryland are turning more of their attention to the cultivation of wheat, Indian corn, flax, and hemp, the Carolinas and Georgia will probably extend the cultivation of this plant, to which their ſoil and climate are well ſuited. The ſoil of Kentucky and the Cumberland and Tenneſſee country ſeems alſo to be eminently calculated for the culture of this plant.

Indigo, of an excellent quality, is produced by North-Carolina, South-Carolina, and Georgia. Of this valuable commodity, one million three hundred thouſand pounds weight have been ſhipped from the city of Charleſton alone in one year: but this, and the other two articles before mentioned, are raiſed in much leſs proportions in North-Carolina than in South-Carolina and Georgia. The uniform of the national troops has been heretofore of blue cloth, as alſo of the militia in general. Their clergy alſo by their cuſtoms wear this colour, and it is generally liked among the moſt frugal and moſt expenſive people. Theſe circumſtances will no doubt be duly attended to in future laws and regulations, and will operate very favourably for the indigo planters, without any expenſe to the country.

Cotton has been lately adopted as an article of culture in the ſouthern States; and as the prices of rice, tobacco, and indigo decline, it muſt be very beneficial to the owners and purchaſers of lands in that part of the Union. This article is raiſed with eaſe in Spain, every part of which kingdom lies further north than the Carolinas, and in the ſame latitudes as Virginia, Maryland, and the Delaware States. It is alſo raiſed in that part of Aſiatic Turkey which lies between Scanderoon and Smyrna, which are in the latitudes of the three laſt States. As the inhabitants increaſe very rapidly by emigration and the courſe of nature, it is certain they cannot procure wool from their own internal reſources in ſufficient quantities. The owners of cotton plantations may therefore expect a conſtant and great demand for this article, as a ſubſtitute for wool, beſides its ordinary uſes for light goods.

Tar, pitch, and turpentine are produced in immenſe quantities in North-Carolina, which State ſhips more of theſe articles, particularly the laſt, than all the reſt of the Union. Tar and pitch are alſo produced in the ſouthern parts of Jerſey, and more or leſs in all the States ſouthward of that.

Beſides theſe, myrtle wax, and thoſe two invaluable timbers, the live oak and red cedar, are peculiar to the Carolinas and

Georgia; and they have Indian corn, hemp, flax, boards, ſtaves, ſhingles, leather, beef, pork, butter, minerals, foſſils, and many other articles in common with the middle, or eaſtern States; alſo ſkins, furs, and ginſeng from their Indian country.

The wheat country of the United States lies in Virginia, Maryland, Delaware, Pennſylvania, New-Jerſey, and New-York, and the weſternmoſt parts of Connecticut, as alſo the weſtern parts of the two Carolinas, and probably of Georgia, for their own uſe. The character of the American flour is ſo well known, that it is unneceſſary to ſay any thing in commendation of it here. Virginia exported before the war eight hundred thouſand buſhels of wheat; Maryland above half that quantity. The exports of flour from Pennſylvania with the wheat was equivalent to one million two hundred thouſand buſhels in 1788, and about two millions of buſhels in 1789, which, however, was a very favourable year. New-York exports in flour and wheat equivalent to one million of buſhels. In the wheat States are alſo produced great quantities of Indian corn or maze. Virginia formerly exported half a million of buſhels per ann. Maryland ſhips a great deal of this article, and conſiderable quantities raiſed in Delaware, Pennſylvania, New-Jerſey, New-York, and Connecticut, are exported; as are the wheat and flour of thoſe five States, from Philadelphia and New-York, there being little foreign trade from Deleware or Jerſey; and the weſtern parts of Connecticut ſhipping with leſs expenſe from the ports on Hudſon's river than thoſe of their own State.

Hemp and flax are raiſed in very large quantities throughout the United States. And though South Carolina and Georgia produce leſs than any other States of theſe two articles, they are capable of raiſing immenſe quantities. Georgia, from the advantage ſhe has in the river Savannah, could produce hemp with the greateſt profit. Large portions of the new lands of all the States are well ſuited to hemp and flax.

Though ſheep are bred in all parts of America, yet the moſt populous parts of the middle States, and the eaſtern States which have been long ſettled, and particularly the latter, are the places where they thrive beſt. In the four eaſtern or New-England States, they form one of the greateſt objects of the farmer's attention, and one of his ſureſt ſources of profit. The demand for wool, which has of late increaſed exceedingly with the growth of manufactures, will add conſiderably to the former

handſome profits of ſheep; and the conſumption of meat by the manufacturers will render them ſtill more beneficial.

Horned or neat cattle are alſo bred in every part of the United States. In the weſtern counties of Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia, where they have an extenſive range and mild winters without ſnows of any duration, they run at large, and multiply very faſt. In the middle States, cattle require more of the care and attention they uſually receive in Europe, and they are generally good, often very fine. But in the eaſtern States, whoſe principal objects on the land have until lately been paſturage and grazing, cattle are very numerous indeed, and univerſally fine; cheeſe is, of courſe, moſt abundant in thoſe States. No European country can excel the United States in the valuable article of ſalt proviſions. Their exports of this kind are every day increaſing; as the raiſing of cattle is peculiarly profitable to farmers, the greater part of whom have more land than they can cultivate even with the plough. Barley and oats are the productions of every State, though leaſt cultivated to the ſouthward. Virginia, however, is turning her attention to barley, as alſo Maryland, and can raiſe great quantities.

Maſts, ſpars, ſtaves, heading, boards, plank, ſcantling, and ſquare timber, are found in almoſt all the States; but New-Hampſhire, and the adjoining province of Maine, which is connected with Maſſachuſetts, are the two moſt plentiful ſcenes; the ſtock there ſeems almoſt inexhauſtible. In New-York they abound; and in North-Carolina and Georgia, the pitch pine-plank, and ſcantling, and oak ſtaves, are excellent, eſpecially in the former. The ſtock of theſe articles on the Cheſapeak and Delaware bays is more exhauſted, but yet there is a great deal on the rivers of both for exportation, beſides abundance for home conſumption. Conſiderable quantities are alſo brought to the Charleſton market, but a large part of them is from the adjacent States of Georgia and North-Carolina. When their internal navigation ſhall be improved, South-Carolina will open new ſources of theſe articles.

Pot and pearl aſhes, have become very valuable articles to the land-holders and merchants of the United States: but their importance was unknown twenty years ago. A ſingle fact will illuſtrate the wealth that may be acquired by this manufacture. The State of Maſſachuſetts, which has been ſettled twice as long as the other States on a medium, which contains about a fiftieth part of the territory of the United States which is

among the moſt populous of them, and conſequently muſt have far leſs wood to ſpare than many other parts of the Union, has nevertheleſs ſhipped two hundred thouſand dollars worth of theſe two articles in a year. New-England and New-York have derived great advantage from their attention to pot and pearl aſhes; but it has hitherto been made in very inconſiderable quantities in the States to the ſouthward of them: in moſt of them it has been entirely overlooked. New-Jerſey and Delaware have more foreſts than Maſſachuſetts; and as there is no part of either of thoſe States that lies twenty-five miles from navigable water, they may venture to expend their wood, and to depend upon coal. In the other ſix States, which lie ſouth of Hudſon's river, the materials for pot aſh are immenſe, as alſo in the State of New-York.

A grand dependence of the eaſtern States is their valuable fiſheries; a detail of theſe is unneceſſary. It is ſufficient to ſay, that with a ſmall exception in favour of New-York, the whole great ſea fiſhery of the United States is carried on by New-England; and it is in a variety of ways highly beneficial to their landed and manufacturing intereſts.

Iron is abundant throughout the Union, excepting New-England and the Delaware State, though the former are not deſtitute of it, and the latter can draw it as conveniently from the other States on the Delaware river, as if it were in her own bowels. Virginia is the State moſt pregnant with minerals and foſſils of any in the Union.

Deer ſkins and a variety of furs are obtained by all the States from the Indian country, either directly or through the medium of their neighbours. Hitherto they have been exported in large quantities; but from the rapid progreſs of American manufactures, that exportation muſt diminiſh.

The article of pork, ſo important in navigation and trade merits particular notice. The plenty of maſt or nuts of the oak and beech, in ſome places, and of Indian corn every where, occaſions it to be very fine and abundant. Two names among them are pre-eminent, Burlington and Connecticut; the firſt of which is generally given to the pork of Pennſylvania, and the middle and northern parts of Jerſey; the ſecond is the quality of all the pork north of Jerſey. It may be ſafely affirmed, that they are fully equal to the pork of Ireland and Britany, and much cheaper.

Cider can be produced with eaſe in conſiderable quantities, from Virginia incluſive, to the moſt northern States, as alſo in

the weſtern country of the Carolinas and Georgia; but New-Jerſey and New-England have hitherto paid moſt attention to this drink. An exquiſite brandy is diſtilled from the extenſive peach orchards, which grow upon the numerous rivers of the Cheſapeak, and in parts of Pennſylvania, and may be made in the greater part of the country.

Silk has been attempted with ſucceſs in the ſouthernmoſt States, ſo far as due attention was paid to it: but is not well ſuited to the nature of their labourers, who, being blacks, are not careful or ſkilful; and there are many other objects of more importance and profit in the agriculture of thoſe fertile States. In Connecticut, where there is a ſenſible and careful white population, and where land is comparatively ſcarce and dear, it is found to be practicable and beneficial. A project to extend the white Italian mulberry tree over all the States has been formed, by ſome perſevering individuals acquainted with the propagation of them. A great part of Connecticut is already ſupplied. An extenſive nurſery has been eſtabliſhed near Philadelphia; another at Princeton in New-Jerſey; and two more are at this time commenced on New-York and Long-Iſlands.

Rye is produced generally through all the States north of the Carolinas, and in the weſtern parts of the three ſouthern States. But the detail of American productions, and the parts in which they moſt abound, would be very long. It will therefore be ſufficient to ſay, that in addition to the above capital articles, the United States produce or contain, flax-ſeed, ſpelts, lime-ſtone, allum, ſaltpetre, lead, copper, coal, free-ſtone, marble-ſtone for wares, potter's clay, brick clay, a variety of ſhip-timber, ſhingles, holly, beech, poplar, curled maple, black walnut, wild cherry, and other woods ſuitable for cabinet makers, ſhingles of cedar and cypreſs, myrtle-wax, bees-wax, butter, tallow, hides, leather, tanner's bark, maple ſugar, hops, muſtard ſeed, potatoes, and all the other principal vegetables; apples, and all the other principal fruits; clover, and all the other principal graſſes. On the ſubject of their productions it is only neceſſary to add, that they muſt be numerous, diverſified, and extremely valuable, as the various parts of their country lie in the ſame latitude as Spain, Portugal, the middle and ſouthern provinces of France, the fertile iſland of Sicily, and the greater part of Italy, European and Aſiatic Turkey, and the kingdom of China, which maintains by its own agriculture more people than any country in the world beſide.

From theſe few obſervations we may form ſome idea of the advantages which the United States poſſeſs over moſt European countries in theſe reſpects; it may be truly ſaid, that there is not a luxury of nature but their ſoil is capable of yielding, and which the climate in one part or other of their territory would not bring to perfection. They can cultivate with eaſe every raw material for different manufactures which the ſurface of the earth yields, and its bowels yield them every neceſſary metal and foſſil.

Connected with this, we may mention another advantage which the States poſſeſs: this is the eaſe with which the produce of one State may be conveyed, by water, to another, with a very trivial addition of expenſe. There is in this reſpect a ſtriking difference between the navigable waters of the United States and thoſe of any country in the old world. The Elbe is the only river in Europe which will permit a ſea veſſel to ſail up it for ſo great a length as ſeventy miles. The Hudſon's, or north river, between the States of New-York and New-Jerſey, is navigated by ſea veſſels one hundred and eighty miles from the ocean; the Delaware, between Pennſylvania, New-Jerſey, and the Delaware State, one hnndred and ſixty miles; the Potomack, between Virginia and Maryland, three hundred miles: and there are ſeveral other rivers, bays, and ſounds, of extenſive navigation, far exceeding the great river Elbe. The inland boatable waters and lakes are equally numerous and great.

When we conſider theſe, and extend our ideas to the different canals already formed, and ſtill forming, by which the moſt important rivers are, or will be united, we may venture to aſſert, that no country in Europe does, or poſſibly can poſſeſs ſo completely the advantages of inland navigation; by this the extremes of the confederacy will become intimately united and acquainted with each other, and each State will reap from the produce of the whole nearly the ſame advantage as though it poſſeſſed every reſource within itſelf; indeed, no doubt can by a reflecting mind be entertained, but that the time is near when a communication by water will be opened with every part of the Union.

In a country thus circumſtanced, producing the great raw materials for manufactures, and poſſeſſing unlimited powers, by water and reſources of fuel ſubject alſo to heavy char-

ges upon the importation of foreign fabrices, to neglect manufactures would have been almoſt criminal. Theſe important ideas have taken full poſſeſſion of the American mind. The theory is now every where approved; and in New-England, Pennſylvania, and ſeveral other States, the practice has been taken up with conſiderable ſpirit and very extenſively purſued.

Theſe are but a few of the advantages Ameriea poſſeſſes over ahe different nations in Europe, but they are ſuch as have laid the foundation of her preſent, and which inſure her future proſperity.

We ſhall now proceed to ſtate as briefly as poſſible the proſpects and advantages which the European ſettler has almoſt the certainty of realizing.

OF THE

PROSPECTS AND ADVANTAGES

OF AN

EUROPEAN SETTLER

IN THE UNITED STATES.

BEFORE we enter on this part of the work, we wiſh to premiſe to the reader that we ſhall proceed with caution. The numbers that have emigrated to America from this country have already awakened the fears of ſome, and the envy of others; and ſome who appear conſcious of the conſequences that muſt follow from a ſpirit of emigration, have thought it their duty to ſtep forward and by magnifying trifling difficulties into inſurmountable obſtacles, attempt to put a ſtop to a ſyſtem, which, though its effects are ſlow, are not the leſs ſure in weakening the ſtrength and reſources of the European counties. Hence ſlight ſkirmiſhes with the Indians have been magnified to the moſt tremendous battles. The reſidence of a ſmall portion of perſons to the levying of a tax in one or two States has been worked up to a univerſal rebellion throughout the Union. A fever raging at Philadelphia for a ſhort period, and which is now admitted to have originated in the expoſure of damaged coffee, has been held forth as a proof of an unhealthy climate throughout the States; and the intemperate zeal of a few individuals has been conſidered a ſufficient proof that the whole body of Americans are averſe to the prudent and temperate conduct of their government. The impreſſions made on the public mind by theſe means have received additional ſtrength from a few individuals, who, like the ſpies ſent to view the land of Canaan, have, through idleneſs, or attachment to European diſſipation, caſt away the cluſters of grapes, and returned with an evil report of the land. If we credit thoſe, the

United States are ruined----trade is bad-----every thing is dear—all is confuſion—the people ſlaves—and the United-States unable to furniſh employment or ſupport to thoſe who wiſh there to take up their reſidence. Theſe and almoſt ten thouſand other evils are conveyed to us through the medium of letters inſerted in the daily papers dated from different parts of America, but which carry with them internal evidence of being the production of hireling ſcribblers, employed for the purpoſe of miſleading the unthinking mind.

In order therefore to follow this ſubject through all its connections, and to ſet the proſpects of an European ſettler in a clear point of view, it will be neceſſary to proceed in the inquiry under ſome kind of ſyſtem, that its different parts may ſtand clear and diſtinct, and yet form one connected whole. As an introductory part it may therefore be neceſſary to rectify ſome miſtaken notions of Europeans reſpecting the American States.

MISTAKEN NOTIONS OF EUROPEANS.

Many perſons in Europe appear to have formed miſtaken ideas and expectations of what is to be obtained in America; it may therefore be uſeful, and prevent inconvenient, expenſive, and fruitleſs removals and voyages of improper perſons, to give ſome clear and truer notions of that part of the world than appear to have hitherto prevailed.

It is imagined by numbers, that the inhabitants of North-America are rich, capable of rewarding and diſpoſed to reward all ſorts of ingenuity; that they are at the ſame time in a great degree ignorant of all the ſciences; and conſequently that ſtrangers poſſeſſing talents in the belles lettres, fine arts, &c. muſt be highly eſteemed, and ſo well paid as to become eaſily rich themſelves; that there are alſo abundance of profitable offices to be diſpoſed of, which the natives are not qualified to fill; and that having few perſons of family among them, *ſtrangers of birth* muſt be greatly reſpected, and of courſe eaſily obtain the beſt of thoſe offices, which will make all their fortunes; that the governments too, to encourage emigrations from Europe, not only often pay the expenſe of perſonal tranſportation, but give lands gratis to ſtrangers, with negroes to work for them, utenſils of huſbandry, and ſtocks of cattle. Theſe are, in the general, wild imaginations; and thoſe who go to America with expectations founded upon them, will ſurely find themſelves diſappointed.

The truth is, that though there are in America few people of the deſcription of the poor of Europe, there are alſo very few that in Europe would be called rich. It is rather, as before obſerved, a general happy mediocrity that prevails. There are few great proprietors of the ſoil, and few tenants; moſt people cultivate their own lands, or follow ſome handicraft or merchandiſe; very few are rich enough to live idly upon their rents or incomes, or to pay the high prices given in Europe for paintings, ſtatues, architecture, and the other works of art that are more curious than uſeful. Hence the natural geniuſes that have *ariſen* in America, with ſuch talents, have in general quitted that country for Europe, where they can be more ſuitably rewarded. It is true that letters and mathematical knowledge are in eſteem there, but they are at the ſame time more common than is apprehended: there being already exiſting numerous colleges or univerſities, for the moſt part furniſhed with learned profeſſors, beſides a number of ſmaller academies. Theſe educate many of their youth in the languages, and thoſe ſciences that qualify men for the profeſſion of divinity, law, and phyſic. Strangers, indeed, are by no means excluded from exerciſing thoſe profeſſions; and the quick increaſe of inhabitants every where gives them an almoſt certainty of employ, which they have in common with the natives. Of civil offices or employments there are few; no ſuperfluous ones as in Europe; and it is a rule eſtabliſhed in ſome of the States, that no office ſhould be ſo profitable as to make it deſirable for the income. The thirty-ſixth article of the conſtitution of Pennſylvania runs expreſsly in theſe words: "As every freeman, to preſerve his "independence, if he has not a ſufficient eſtate, ought to have "ſome profeſſion, calling, trade, or farm, whereby he may "honeſtly ſubſiſt, there can be no neceſſity for, nor uſe in "eſtabliſhing offices of profit; the uſual effects of which are "dependence and ſervility, unbecoming freemen in the poſſeſ-"ſors and expectants, faction, contention, corruption and diſ-"order among the people. Wherefore, whenever an office, "through increaſe of fees or otherwiſe, becomes ſo profitable as "to occaſion many to apply for it, the profits ought to be leſſen-"ed by the legiſlature."

Theſe ideas prevailing more or leſs in all the United States, it cannot be worth any man's while to expatriate himſelf in hopes of obtaining a profitable civil office in America; and as to military offices, they ended with the war, the armies being diſbanded and reduced to a national militia. Much leſs is it adviſeable for a perſon to go thither who has no other quality to recommend

him than his birth. In Europe it has, indeed, its value, but it is a commodity that cannot be carried to a worſe market than to that of America, where people do not inquire concerning a ſtranger, *What is he?* or, *Who is he?* but *What can he do?* If he has any uſeful art he is welcome, and if he exerciſes it, and behaves well, he will be reſpected by all that know him: but a mere man of quality, who on that account wants to live upon the public, by ſome office or ſalary, will be deſpiſed and diſregarded. The huſbandman is in honour there, and even the mechanic, becauſe their employments are uſeful. The people have a ſaying, that "God Almighty is himſelf a mechanic, the greateſt in the univerſe; and a man is reſpected and admired more for the variety, ingenuity and utility of his handy-works, than for the antiquity of his family. They are pleaſed with the obſervation of a negro, and frequently mention it, that "Boccarorra (meaning the white man) make de black man workee, make de horſe workee, make de ox workee, make ebery ting workee, only de *hog*. He de *hog*, no workee: he eat, he drink, he walk about, he go to ſleep when he pleaſe, *he libb like a gentleman.*" According to theſe opinions of the Americans, one of them would think himſelf more obliged to a genealogiſt, who could prove for him, that his anceſtors and relations, for ten generations, had been ploughmen, ſmiths, carpenters, turners, weavers, tanners, or ſhoemakers, and conſequently, prove that they were uſeful members of ſociety; than if he could only prove that they were *gentlemen*, doing nothing of value, but living idly on the labour of others, mere *fruges conſumere nati*,* and otherwiſe *good* for *nothing*, till, by their death, their eſtates, like the carcaſe of the negro's *gentleman-hog*, come to be *cut up*.

With regard to encouragements to ſtrangers from the American government, they are really only what are derived from GOOD LAWS AND GENUINE LIBERTY. Strangers are welcome becauſe there is room enough for them all, and therefore the old inhabitants are not jealous of them; the laws protect them ſufficiently, ſo that they have no need of the patronage of *great* men; and every one will enjoy ſecurely the profits of his induſtry. But, if he does not bring a fortune with him, he muſt work and be induſtrious if he gains one. One or two years reſidence give him all the rights of a citizen: but the government does not at preſent, whatever it may have done in former times,

* There are a number of us born
Merely to eat up the corn WATTS.

hire people to become ſettlers, by paying their paſſages, giving land, negroes, utenſils, ſtock or any other kind of emolument whatſoever. In ſhort, America is a land of labour, and by no means what the Engliſh call *Lubberland*, and the French, *Pays de Cocagne*.

Thoſe who deſire to underſtand the ſtate of government in America, ſhould read the conſtitutions of the ſeveral States, and the articles of confederation that bind the whole together for general purpoſes, under the direction of one aſſembly called the Congreſs. Theſe conſtitutions we have for the moſt part given at length, in our account of the different States in the Union; and where that is not done, the reader may reſt aſſured there is no material variation. Theſe conſtitutions convey, in the cleareſt manner, the principles and practice of the American government, and furniſh a body of political information ſcarcely to be found in any other compoſitions.

MOTIVES TO EMIGRATION.

If the above obſervations are conſidered as true, it may naturally be aſked, WHAT ARE THE GENERAL INDUCEMENTS TO QUIT EUROPE FOR THE PURPOSE OF SETTLING IN AMERICA?

To this query we ſhall, *without heſitation*, reply, that the firſt and principal inducement to an European to quit his native country for America, is THE TOTAL ABSENCE OF ANXIETY RESPECTING THE FUTURE SUCCESS OF A FAMILY. There is little fault to find with the government of America, either in principle or in practice; they have very few taxes to pay and thoſe are of acknowledged neceſſity, and moderate in amount; they have no animoſities about religion; it is a ſubject about which no queſtions are aſked: they have few reſpecting political men, or political meaſures: the preſent irritation of men's minds in Great-Britain, and the diſcordant ſtate of ſociety on political accounts, is not known there. The government is the government OF THE PEOPLE, and FOR THE PEOPLE. There are no tythes nor game laws; and exciſe laws upon ſpirits only, and ſimilar to the Britiſh only in name. There are no men of great rank, nor many of great riches. Nor have the rich there the power of oppreſſing the leſs rich, for, as we have before obſerved, poverty, ſuch as is common in Great-Britain, is almoſt unknown, nor are their ſtreets crowded with beggars; Mr. Cooper obſerves, he ſaw but one only while he was there, and that was an Engliſhman. You ſee no where in America the

diſguſting and melancholy contraſt *ſo common* in Europe, of vice and filth, and rags, and wretchedneſs, in the immediate neighbourhood of the moſt wanton extravagance, and the moſt uſeleſs and luxurious parade. Nor are the common people ſo depraved as in Great-Britain. Quarrels are uncommon, and boxing matches unknown in their ſtreets. They have no military to keep the people in awe, nor hired ſpies and informers to pierce the inmoſt receſſes of ſociety, and to call forth one part of a family againſt another; thus deſtroying domeſtic quiet and public happineſs. Robberies are very rare. There was not a burglary in Philadelphia during the fever there, though no one ſtaid in the town who could leave it. All theſe are real advantages; but great as they are, they do not weigh with us ſo much as the ſingle conſideration firſt mentioned.

In England the young man flies to proſtitution, for fear of the expenſe of a family eſtabliſhment, and the, *more than probable*, extravagance of a wife; celibacy is a part of prudence; it is openly commended, and as ſteadily practiſed as the voice of nature will allow. The married man, whoſe paſſions have been ſtronger, whoſe morals have been leſs callous, or whoſe intereſt has furniſhed motives to matrimony, doubts whether each child be not a misfortune, and looks upon his offspring with a melancholy kind of affection, that embitters ſome of the otherwiſe moſt pleaſurable moments of his life. There are exceptions to this from great ſucceſs in the purſuits of the father; there are exceptions from ſtronger degrees of parential affection; and the more ſanguine look forward with ſtronger hope: but we have ſeen too much not to be ſatisfied of the perfect truth of this *general* poſition. We do not care what may be the ſituation in life of the parents, or the rank to which they belong; from the labourer at ſix or ſeven ſhillings per week, and many thouſands of ſuch there are in Great-Britain, to the peer of twenty-five thouſand pounds per annum, through many intermediate ranks, we have had too frequent occaſion to obſerve this melancholy fact.

In the former inſtance, the labourer conſoles himſelf, with tears in his eyes, for the loſs of his children, becauſe *he has one or more leſs to provide for*; and in the ſecond inſtance his lordſhip retrenches his pleaſures *becauſe he has a large family*.

In America, particularly out of the large towns, no man of moderate deſires feels anxious about a family. In the country, where the maſs of the people dwell, every man feels the increaſe of his family to be the increaſe of his riches: and no

farmer doubts about the facility of providing for his children as comfortably as they have lived, where land is ſo cheap and ſo fertile, where ſociety is ſo much on an equality, and where the prodigious increaſe of population, from natural and accidental cauſes, and the improving ſtate of every part of the country, furniſhes a market for whatever ſuperfluous produce he chuſes to raiſe, without preſenting inceſſantly that temptation to artificial expenſe and extravagant competiton ſo common and ſo ruinous in European countries.

In Great-Britain, PERPETUAL EXERTION, INCESSANT, UNREMITTING INDUSTRY, DAILY DEPRIVATION OF THE COMFORTS OF LIFE, and anxious attention to minute frugality, are almoſt incumbent on a man of moderate fortune, and in the middle claſs of life: and the probabilities of ultimate ſucceſs are certainly againſt a large family. In England, no man has a right, calculating upon the common chances, to expect that five or ſix children ſhall all ſucceed, however virtuous or induſtrious they may be.

In America it is otherwiſe; you may reaſonably reckon upon a comfortable ſettlement, according to your ſituation in life, for every part of a family, however numerous. There is nothing in European countries equivalent to the taking off this weight upon the mind of a father of a family. It is felt in the occurrences of every day. Mr. Cooper remarks, he has ſeen with pleaſure the countenance of an European emigrant in America, brighted up on this very comfortable reflection; a reflection which conſoles even for loſs of friends, and exile from a native country.

To perſons in genteel life, and of the claſs which we call men of fortune nearly the ſame difficulties occur: with us every rank treads ſo cloſe on the heels of the rank above it, that an *exceſs of expenſe above income, is general;* and perhaps the difficulties of a family are ſtill greater in the claſs laſt mentioned. Temptations to unneceſſary expenſe, owing to the numerous gradations of rank in England, are perpetual and almoſt unconquerable. With the Americans, man is more equitably appreciated; he is eſtimated more at what he *is* and leſs at what he *ſeems*. Something like European manners, and ſomething of the ill effect of inequality of riches, may indeed be found in the great towns of America, but nothing like what an inhabitant of the old country experiences; and the *maſs* of the people in America are nearly untainted. Hence the freedom from artificial poverty, and the univerſal diffuſion of the common comforts and conveniences of life.

In England, if a man has been pecuniarily unfortunate, the eager crowd preſs on and trample over him, and, once down, he is kept down. In America. a falſe ſtep is not irretrievable, there is room to get up again; and the leſs unfortunate ſtumbler looks round at leiſure, and without diſmay for ſome more profitable path to be purſued. In England, every employment is full, we are preſſed and elbowed on all ſides: in America, every employment has room for induſtry, and for many years almoſt every ſpecies of induſtry muſt be ſucceſsful. In fine, America is a riſing country, but there is cauſe to fear, that moſt of the European countries are going faſt to ruin and decay.

In America, the expenſes of the government are very much leſs, in proportion to wealth and numbers, than thoſe of any nation in Europe

There is no land tax among the national revenues, nor is there any interior tax, or exciſe upon food, drink, fuel, lights, or any native or foreign manufacture, or native or foreign production, except a duty of about four pence ſterling upon domeſtic diſtilled ſpirits. The greateſt part of the public burdens are paid by an import duty on foreign goods, which being drawn back on exportation, it remains only on what is actually uſed, and is in that view the loweſt in the world. In England, there is ſcarce an article that an individual can eat, drink or wear, but what is taxed double, treble and ſometimes more than what was its original intrinſic value.

Trade has been encouraged by a drawback of all the import duty on foreign goods, when they are exported, excepting only a very few commodities of a particular nature, which are not deſired to be much imported into, or conſumed, in, the United States.

A national mint is eſtabliſhed under the direction of the ableſt practical man in the arts and ſciences which America affords, DAVID RITTENHOUSE. It is provided by law, that the purity and intrinſic value of the ſilver coins ſhall be equal to that of Spain, and of the gold coins to thoſe of the ſtricteſt European nations. The government of the United States foregoes all profit from the coinage; this is certainly an honeſt, a politic and wholeſome forbearance, but America is the firſt that has adopted it.

The banks eſtabliſhed in the ſeveral cities of Philadelphia, New-York, Boſton, Baltimore, Charleſton, Alexandria, &c. divide a profit of ſeven and a half to eight and a half per cent. per annum * at preſent, which is paid half-yearly. The

* More might be ſaid with truth.

intereſt of the public debt of the United States is paid every quarter of a year with a punctuality abſolute and perfect. There is no tax on property in the funds and banks.

The ſhip-building of the United States has been on the increaſe ever ſince the revolution; it was greater in the year 1793 than in any former year ſince the ſettlement of the country, and it is greater in the current year than it was in the laſt. Generally ſpeaking, the art of ſhip-building was never ſo well underſtood, never ſo well executed, nor was there ever a time when ſo many of the manufactures requiſite for the furniture, tackle, apparel, and arming of veſſels, were made in the United States.

The value of the manufactures of the United States is certainly greater than double the value of their exports in native commodities, and much greater than the groſs value of all their imports, including the value of goods exported again.

Theſe manufactures conſiſt generally of articles of comfort, utility and neceſſity. Articles of luxury, elegance and ſhew, are not manufactured in America, excepting a few kinds. Manufactures in general have increaſed very rapidly ſince the commencement of the revolution war, and particularly in the laſt five years.*

The exports of the United States have increaſed in the laſt three years from fourteen to twenty per cent.† Theſe exports conſiſt, in a great degree, of the moſt neceſſary food of man, of working animals, and of raw materials, applicable to manufactures of the moſt general utillity and conſumption.‡

The exports of the United States are ſix times the amount of the national taxes and duties; and the amount of the outward freight of the ſhips and veſſels of the United States at this time, is probably more than equal to all their nation-

* Houſhold manufactures are carried on within the families of almoſt all the farmers and planters, and of a great proportion of the inhabitants of the villages and towns. This practice is increaſing under the animating influences of private intereſt and public ſpirit.

† In the three years ending Sept. 30, 1793, they increaſed from eighteen millions and one quarter to twenty ſix millions of dollars.

‡ Theſe is not any duty upon the exportation of the produce of the earth nor can ſuch duty be impoſed on any exported commodities, but the exportation of produce may be ſuſpended or prohibited in caſes of neceſſity or policy. Produce and all other merchandiſe may be freely exported in the ſhips and veſſels of all nations, not being alien enemies, without diſcrimination.

al taxes and duties. The inward freight is conſiderable. The earnings of the fiſhing veſſels, in lieu of freight, are alſo conſiderable. But the coaſting freights are greater in value than both the laſt.

All ſhips and veſſels, depart from the United States, fully laden, excepting a part of the Eaſt-India traders; and a large quantity of tonnage is employed in the coaſting trade; and a conſiderable quantity in the cod and whale fiſheries.

The imports of the United States are leſs in value than the exports, deducting the outward freights of their own ſhips, which are returned in goods, the nett ſails of their ſhips to foreigners, and the property imported by migraters from foreign countries.

The very great proportion of the imports, which conſiſts of manufactures from raw materials, which America can produce, affords conſtant and inviting opportunities to leſſen the balance againſt the United State in their trade with foreign countries, holds out a *certain* home market to ſkilful and induſtrious manufacturers in America, and gives the moſt flattering expectations to the landholder and farmer, of a very increaſing demand for his produce, *in which he cannot be deceived.**

Their imports have not been ſwelled in proportion to the increaſe of their population and wealth. *The reaſon is clear, viz. the conſtant introduction of new branches of manufacture amongſt themſelves, and a great extenſion of the old branches.*

Their imports for conſumption are compoſed of manufactures in a much leſs proportion than heretofore, owing to *the ſame two cauſes.*

The imports of the United States have almoſt ceaſed to exhibit certain articles of naval and military ſupply, and others of the greateſt utility and conſumption, owing alſo to *the ſame two cauſes.*

There imports conſiſt but in a ſmall degree of neceſſaries, in a great degree of articles of comfortable accommodations, and in ſome degree of luxuries; but their exports conſiſt chiefly of prime neceſſaries, of the utmoſt importance to Europeans, with ſome articles of mere comfort and utility, and ſome of luxury. The following will be found to be the quantities of ſome of the principal articles of exportation from the United States, during the year ending in September, 1792.

* Witneſs the ſteady price of their produce during the embargo.

3,145,255 Buſhels of grain and pulſe, principally wheat, Indian corn, rye, beans and peas.
44,752 Horſes, horned cattle, mules, hogs and ſheep.
1,469,723 Barrels of flour, meal, biſcuit and rice, reducing caſks of various ſizes to the proportion of flour barrels.
146,909 Barrels of tar, pitch, turpintine and roſin.
116,803 Barrels of beef, pork, mutton, ſauſages, oyſters, tripe, &c. reducing caſks of various ſizes, to the proportion of beef and pork barrels.
231,776 Barrels of dried and pickled fiſh, reducing them to barrels of the ſame ſize.
948,115 Gallons of ſpirits, diſtilled in the United States.
7,823 Tons, 12 cwts. and 14lb. of pot and pearl aſhes.
112,428 Hogſheads of tobacco.
60,646,861 Feet of boards, plank and ſcantling.
19,391½ Tons of timber.
18,374 Pieces of timber.
1,080 Cedar and oak ſhip knees.
71,693,863 Shingles.
31,760,702 Staves and hoops.
191 Frames of houſes.
73,318 Oars, rafters for oars, and hand-ſpikes.
48,860 Shook or knock-down caſks.
52,381 Hogſheads of flax-ſeed.

The exports of the year of which the above are a part, amounted to twenty-one millions of dollars; but the exports of the next following year ending on September 30, 1793, amounted to five millions more, being twenty-ſix millions of dollars. Proviſions and raw materials have greatly encreaſed. Of flour alone there were ſhipped one million and thirteen thouſand of caſks.

The imports of the United States are now generally brought directly, and not circuitouſly, from the countries which produced or manufactured them. China, India Proper, the iſles of Bourbon and Mauritius, Good Hope, the ſoutheren ſettlements of America and the Weſt-Indies, the Wine iſlands, and the countries on the Mediteranean and Baltic ſeas, Great-Britain and Ireland, France, the Netherlands and Germany, Spain and Portugal.

Thus their commerce is diverſified and proſperous, and conſiſts in importing for their own conſumption, and for exportation, in the exporting, the coaſting and inland trades, the Indian trade, manufactures, ſhipping, the fiſheries, banking, and inſurances on ſhips cargoes, and houſes. There is no branch of commerce, for-

eign or domeſtic, in which every diſtrict, city, port and individual is not equally entitled to be intereſted. *

The commanders and other officers of American ſhips are deemed ſkilful and judicious; from which cauſe, combined with the goodneſs of their ſhips and of their equipment, inſurances upon their veſſels are generally made in Europe, upon the moſt favourable terms, compared with the correſponding riſques on board of the veſſels of other nations.

The lawful intereſt of money is ſix per cent. per annum, in moſt of the ſtates; in a few it is ſeven per eent.; in one it is five per cent.

The poor taxes in the United States are very ſmall, owing to the facility with which every man and woman, and every child, who is old enough to do the lighteſt work, can procure a comfortable ſubſiſtence. The induſtrious poor, if frugal and ſober, often place themſelves in a few years above want.

Horſes and cattle, and other uſeful beaſts, imported for breeding, are exempted by law from the import duty.

The clothes, books, houſhold furniture, and the tools or implements of their trade or profeſſion, brought by emigrators to America, are exempted from the import duty, and they may begin their commerce, manufacturies, trades or agriculture, on the day of their arrival, upon the ſame footing as a native citizen; and there is no greater nor other tax upon foreigners or their property in the United States, than upon native citizens.

Almoſt every known Chriſtian church exiſts in the United States; as alſo the Hebrew church. There has not been a diſpute between any two ſects or churches ſince the revolution. There are no tythes; marriage and burial fees, glebes, land rents, pew rents, monies at intereſt and voluntary contributions, are

* The ſlave trade is aboliſhed, and American citizens cannot lawfully be employed therein, and in ſome inſtances negroe ſlavery: in others they have adopted efficacious meaſures for its certain, but gradual abolition. The importation of ſlaves is diſcontinued, and can never be renewed, ſo as to interupt the repoſe of Africa, or endanger the tranquillity of the United States. The ſteady uſe of efficacious alternatives is preferred to the immediate application of more ſtrong remedies, in a caſe of ſo much momentary and intrinſic importance.

the principal means of ſupporting the clergy. Many of them are alſo profeſſors and teachers in the univerſities, colleges, academies and ſchools, for which intereſting ſtations, pious and learned miniſters of religion are deemed peculiarly ſuitable. There is no proviſion in the Epiſcopal, Preſbyterian, or independent church for any clerical perſon or character above a rector or miniſter of the goſpel; and this is generally, if not univerſally the caſe. There are ſome aſſiſtant miniſters, but no curates or vicars.

All the lands in the United States are free from tythes, and the medium purchaſe is not equal to the annual land rents of Europe; even including in the eſtimate the value of the old improved farms in America, and the great maſs of unimproved lands.

The productions and manufactures of military ſupplies and articles enable the United States to derive from their own reſources, ſhips of war, gunpowder, cannon and muſket balls, ſhells, and bombs, cannon and carriages, rifles and cutlaſſes, grapnals, iron, lead, cartouch boxes, ſword belts, cartridge paper, ſaddles, bridles, and holſters, ſoldiers' and ſailors' hats, buckles, ſhoes, and boots, leathern breeches, naval ſtores, ſheathing paper, malt and ſpirituous liquors, manufactured tobacco, ſoap, candles, lard, butter, beef, pork, bacon, hams, peas, biſcuit, and flour, and other articles for the land or marine ſervice.

The education of youth has engaged a ſhare of the attention of the legiſlature of the States. Night ſchools for young men and boys, who are employded at labour or buſineſs in the day time, have been long and beneficially ſupported, and the idea of Sunday ſchools has been zealouſly adopted in ſome places. Free ſchools for both ſexes have increaſed, and greater attention than heretofore is paid to female education.

The people of the United States are ingenious in the invention, and prompt and accurate in the execution of machaniſm and workmanſhip, for purpoſes in ſcience, arts, manufacturies, navigation and agriculture, Rittenhouſe's planetarium, Franklin's electrical conductor, Godfrey's quadrant improved by Hadley, Ramſey's and Fitch's ſteam engines, Liſle's rod pendulum, and other horological inventions, the conſtruction of ſhips, the New-England whale-boat, the conſtruction of flour-mills, the wire-

cutter and bender for card makers, Folſom's and Briggs's machinery for cutting nails out of rolled iron, the Philadelphia dray with an inclined plane, Maſon's engine for extinguiſhing fire, the Connecticut ſteeple clock, which is wound up by the wind, the Franklin fire place, the Rittenhouſe ſtove, Anderſon's threſhing machine, Rittenhouſe's inſtrument for taking levels, Donaldſon's Hippopotomas and balances lock, are a few of the numerous examples.

There is no diſcription of men in America, and there are very few individuals in the active time of life, who live without ſome purſuit of buſineſs, profeſſion, occupation, or trade. All the citizens are in active habits, and all capital ſtock is kept in action. *

No country of the ſame wealth, intelligence, and civilization, has ſo few *menial* ſervants, ſtrictly ſpeaking, in the families of perſons of the greateſt property. Family ſervants and farming ſervants, who emigrate from Europe, and who continue ſoberly and induſtriouſly in family or farm ſervice, for one, two, or three years, commenly fine opportunities to better their ſituations, by getting into ſome comfortable line of dealing, or trade, or manufacturing, or farming, according to their education, knowledge and qualifications.

America has not, indeed, many charms for the diſſipated and voluptuous part of mankind, but very many, indeed, for the rational ſober-minded and diſcreet. It is a country which affords great opportunities of comfort and proſperty to people of good property, and thoſe of moderate property, and to the induſtrious and honeſt poor: a ſingular and pleaſing proof of which laſt aſſertion is, that there are very few, if any day labourers in the city and liberties of Philadelphia, of the Quaker church. That religious ſociety is very numerous; but the ſobriety, induſtry, and frugality which they practiſe, enables their poor quickly to improve their condition, in a country ſo favourable to the pooreſt members of the community.

That part of the tradeſmen and manufacturers who live in the country, generally reſide on ſmall lots and farms, of from one acre to twenty, and not a few upon farms of twenty to one hundred and fifty acres, which they cultivate at leiſure times with their own hands, their wives, children, ſervants, and apprentices, and ſometimes by hired labourers, or by letting out fields for a part of the produce to ſome neighbour, who has time or farm hands not fully employed. This union of manufacturies

* It is probable that all the jewels and diamonds worn by the citizens of the United States, their wives and daughters, are leſs in value than thoſe which ſometimes form a part of the dreſs of an individual in ſeveral countries of Europe.

and farming is found to be very convenient on the grain farms, but it is ſtill more convenient on the grazing and graſs farms, where parts of almoſt every day, and a great part of every year, can be ſpared from the buſineſs of the farm, and employed in ſome mechanical, handycraft, or manufacturing buſineſs. Theſe perſons often make domeſtic and farming carriages, implements, and utenſils, build houſes and barns, tan leather, manufacture hats, ſhoes, hoſiery, cabinet work, and other articles of cloathing and furniture, to the great convenience and advantage of the neighbourhood. In like manner ſome of the farmers at leiſure times and proper ſeaſons, manufacture nails, pot aſh, pearl aſh, ſtaves and heading, hoops and hand ſpikes, axe handles, maple ſugar, &c. The moſt judicious planters in the ſouthern States are induſtriouſly inſtructing their negroes, particularly the young, the old, the infirm, and the females, in manufactures.

A large proportion of the moſt ſucceſsful manufacturers in the United States are perſons who were journeymen, and in ſome inſtances foremen in the workſhops and manufactories of Europe, who having been ſkilful, ſober, and frugal, and having thus ſaved a little money, have ſet up for themſelves with great advantage in America, and few have failed to ſucceed.

From this brief ſketch we may juſtly draw this concluſion, that the advantages America offers to European emigrants are ſuch as no country beſide can hold forth.

ON THE CHOICE OF RESIDENCE.

Suppoſing an individual from political ſentiments or other circumſtances, to have formed a reſolution of taking up his reſidence in the United States, a queſtion will naturally ariſe, what part of America is beſt adapted to his purpoſe? The anſwer to this queſtion will certainly depend much on the diſpoſition, circumſtances, and purſuits of the perſon himſelf. Some few circumſtances may, however, influence nearly the whole claſs of Engliſh emigrants.

Quitting a country where the church is forced into an unnatural connection with the ſtate, and where religious opinions are the ſubject of popular obloquy, and civil diſqualifications; ſuch will ſeek in America an aſylum from civil perſecution and religious intolerance—ſome ſpot where they will ſuffer no defalcation in political rights, on account of theological opinions, and where they may be permitted to enjoy a perfect

freedom of *ſpeech* as well as of ſentiment, on the two moſt important ſubjects of human inquiry, religion and politics.

As the people of England have oppoſed the ſyſtem of negroe ſlavery, the moſt part will have very ſtrong, if not inſuperable objections, to thoſe parts of the continent where ſlaves are the only ſervants to be procured, and where the practice of the country tends to ſupport this humiliating diſtinction between man and man. But as labourers in huſbandry, as well as for domeſtic purpoſes, will be neceſſary, ſome ſituation muſt be choſen where ſervants may be procured with tolerable facility, although ſlavery does not prevail.

As the period of civil commotion and internal warfare, ſeems in the opinion of moſt perſons, not far diſtant in almoſt every part of Europe, ſuch would wiſh, we ſuppoſe, to fix in a place where they are likely to enjoy the bleſſings of peace, without the hazard of interruption from any circumſtances at preſent to be foreſeen. Dreading the proſpect, however diſtant, of turbulence and bloodſhed in the old country, they will hardly expoſe themſelves unneceſſarily to ſimilar dangers in the new; they will therefore not direct their courſe toward thoſe parts of the continent, where the preſent enmity or uncertain friendſhip of the American Indians will render peace, proper and perſonal ſecurity in any great degree dubious.

If their fortune is not large, ſuch will think it an object to conſider in what way they can improve it; where and how they can live moſt comfortably upon ſmall property and moderate induſtry. If, indeed, a *number* of people perſonally, or by reputation, acquainted with each other, with ſimilar habits of life, and general purſuits, were to quit England together, they would naturally endeavour to pitch upon a ſettlement where they need not be ſo divided as to renounce the ſociety they had been accuſtomed to enjoy; or to accommodate themſelves ſuddenly to a change of habits, manners, friends, and aſſociates. With many of them in middle life, or advanced in years, this would be a circumſtance of importance to their future comfort; and therefore no ſituation for a *number* of perſons of this deſcription could be perfectly eligible, where this accommodation could not be procured. It would in ſuch a caſe therefore be deſirable to fix upon ſome part of the continent where a large body of contiguous land could readily be procured at a reaſonable price. We ſay, at a reaſonable price, becauſe the perſons who would be likely to quit England for America, muſt, in our opinion, as one *principal* inducement, have in view the more eaſy improvement of a ſmall fortune, and the more eaſy

ſettlement of a large family; and it would therefore be expedient that ſuch a ſituation were choſen, and ſuch a plan of ſettlement adopted, as would hold out a reaſonable expectation of a gradual increaſe in the value of that property in which they ſhall be induced to inveſt the wreck of their Britiſh fortunes. Perhaps the purchaſe of land in ſome of the American States is the moſt ſpeedy as well as the moſt certain means of improving a preſent capital; eſpecially to thoſe who can give an immediate increaſed value, by ſettling as neighbours on their own contiguous farms. In this view, therefore, and for this purpoſe, ſuch ſhould endeavour to procure a large tract, and at a price not only reaſonable, but ſo low in the firſt inſtance as to admit of an early increaſed value, by the means of a neighbourhood and improving reſident proprietors. Were ſuch a plan to take place, we have no heſitation in ſaying, that the perſons adopting it would ſettle in America more comfortably to themſelves, and more beneficial to their intereſt, than if they were to go out as inſulated, unconnected individuals.

The next moſt adviſeable plan for an Engliſhman would be, if he does not mean to follow trade, to go where land is cheap and fertile: where it is in a progreſs of improvement, and if poſſible in the neighbourhood of a few Engliſh, whoſe ſociety, even in America, is intereſting to an Engliſh ſettler, who cannot entirely relinquiſh the *memoria temporis acti.*

Nor is the article of climate unimportant. It will be wiſhed, we conceive, that any ſudden or violent change ſhould, if poſſible, be avoided, and *cæteris paribus*, that a new-comer ſhould be expoſed to greater exceſs of heat or cold, beyond what he has been accuſtomed to bear, than the difference in point of natural ſituation between the two countries muſt inevitably produce. The United States contain ſo many varieties of climate, that there is great room for choice in this reſpect; but we think there will be little doubt with an Engliſhman about the propriety of avoiding in this article the long winters of New-Hampſhire and Maſſachuſetts, and the parching ſummers of a part of Georgia and the Carolinas. A perfect ſimilarity is neither neceſſary nor poſſible, and the human conſtitution eaſily and ſpeedily adapts itſelf to ſlight variations.

With theſe preliminary obſervations in view, let us examine the inducements which the reſpective States of America preſent to a Britiſh emigrant.

The ſouthern States of Georgia and North and South-Carolina ſeem at preſent quite out of the queſtion, at leaſt they are not ſo convenient to an European, from the extreme heat of the climate, and the prevalence of the negroe ſlavery. The upper part of Georgia, and part of the Carolinas, may admit of exceptions; many have emigrated there, and many continue to do ſo with advantage to themſelves and families.

The long continued cold of New-Hampſhire and Maſſachuſetts, including Vermont and the province of Maine, appears highly, though not perhaps equally objectionable. A man who has been uſed to a laborious active life, who is proud of independence, who wiſhes to ſhun the haunts of folly and vice, who would prefer living among a hardy race of independent farmers to the poliſhed ſociety of large cities, who wiſhes for honeſt hoſpitality inſtead of poliſhed ſycophancy, ſuch a man will find in the New-England States an ample requital for a hard winter. To many, however, it will ſeem a moſt unpleaſant circumſtance, that ſo ſmall a portion of the year is afforded by nature to the farmer, wherein to provide ſuſtenance for the remaining part.

In the north-eaſtern States, viz. New-Hampſhire and Maſſachuſetts, Connecticut, &c. property is much divided,* farms are ſmall, and good land in general dear; hence purchaſes are not eaſily made here, with the ſame proſpect of future increaſe in value, which many of the other States afford. Add to this, that theſe parts of the American continent do themſelves furniſh yearly a very conſiderable number of emigrants to the middle and weſtern States; they are "the northern hive" of this country. And the ſame reaſons that operate upon the natives to emigrate from thence will be reaſons alſo againſt an emigration thither.

The States of Rhode-Iſland, Jerſey, Delaware, New-York, Pennſylvania, Maryland and Virginia, with the ſettlements on the weſtern waters, have all of them claims to conſideration on the preſent occaſion.

Rhode-Iſland in point of climate and productions, as well as in appearance, is perhaps the moſt ſimilar to Great-Britain of any State in the Union. The winters are ſomewhat longer and more ſevere, the ſummers perhaps a little warmer; but it participates with Great-Britain in ſome meaſure in the defects

* Connecticut contains at leaſt ſixty-two perſons per ſquare mile.

of climate, being from its ſituation ſubject to a moiſter atmoſphere,* than many of the other States. The ſoil of Rhode-Iſland alſo is too much improved, and the land too much divided to admit of any large contiguous purchaſes as a ſpeculation, though ſingle farms at a rate comparatively moderate might be procured here. This, however, is owing to a decay of trade in this part of America, and to the inhabitants themſelves, quitting their ſituations for the proſpect of a more advantageous trade. It it rather adaped for a grazing than a corn country; ſcantily timbered, comparatively plentiful in milk, butter, and cheeſe; but not abounding in what the Americans term good or rich land. The diviſion of property, however, and its preſent tendency rather to decreaſe than increaſe in value, renders it ineligible for new ſettlers.

The climate of New-Jerſey, were there no other objections, is unpleaſant to Europeans, particularly in the ſummer ſeaſon, from its eaſtern ſituation, the many ſwamps it contains, and the quantity of ſea coaſt in proportion to its extent. Muſquetoes and agues are more troubleſome in this than in many of the other northern or even middle States; and in the more eligible parts of New-Jerſey, property is too much divided, and too dear to promiſe ſucceſs to an eſtabliſhment, ſuch as we have alluded to; many valuable purchaſes may, however, be made in this State.

The ſame remarks will in a great degree apply to the State of Delaware, to which alſo there is a farther objection ariſing from the illiberality of the religious teſt law, contained in its conſtitution; not to mention the preſent prevalence of negroe ſlavery in that portion of the continent.

The State of New-York ſeems increaſing as rapidly in every circumſtance of proſperity as any other State in the Union, Pennſylvania excepted. The city of New-York ranks next to Philadelphia as a place of trade, and the back parts of the State afford, at no very dear price, immenſe tracts of the richeſt land. Neither is the climate in general ſo different from that of Great-Britain, as to conſtitute any formidable objection to Britiſh ſettlers. Its extremes of heat and cold are greater than in England, but in ſome parts a little more warmth would be no diſadvantage; for although the numerous tribes of American

* This obſervation is applicable to the vicinity of New-York alſo, where they find that wood intended for uſe in the ſouthern climates, cannot be ſufficiently ſeaſoned. In Pennſylvania it may. Indeed this remark will evidently apply to the whole northern ſea coaſt of America.

apples are to be found here in great perfection, the peach, it is ſaid, does not perfectly ripen at Albany.

Beyond compariſon, the moſt fertile part of this State is the Geneſſee country; which, ſince the preſent war with the Indians, has attracted a great number of the New-England emigrants, who a year or two ago were induced to travel to the weſtern frontier of the Ohio, in ſearch of cheaper and better land than could be found in their own country. Indeed, there does not appear to be much difference in the kind or quality of the ſoil, between the firſt rate land of the Geneſſee and the Kentucky territory: whatever difference there is, may moſt probably be attributed to the greater warmth of the climate in the laſt mentioned part of America. If the mere circumſtance of richneſs of ſoil therefore were to determine emigration, a New-England emigrant might reaſonably ſtop in the Geneſſee country, without taking ſo long a journey as many of his countrymen have heretofore done.

To this part of the State, however, rich and fertile as it is, there are ſerious and formidable objections to many European ſettlers. The difficulty of procuring ſervants in huſbandry, or, indeed, of any other kind, is very great: for as the land is but lately begun to be ſettled, the inhabitants, therefore, conſiſt at preſent almoſt wholly of the claſs of firſt ſettlers, who depend chiefly on the labour of themſelves and their families for ſupport; theſe, therefore, will be the only claſs of European ſettlers, labourers excepted, whom this part of the State would ſuit, and perhaps few parts are better adapted to a man whoſe family and connections would manage from one to five hundred acres of land. The ſuperfluous produce of the Geneſſee lands will be ſent either to Philadelphia or New-York, by the way of Albany. The conveyance will be troubleſome and expenſive to both places. That part of the Geneſſee country, which is neareſt to the Suſquehannah and the Delaware, will find vent for its produce at Philadelphia. This city will alſo attract the produce of a great part of the Geneſſee which from mere ſituation would ſeem more in the vicinity of New-York market, in conſequence of the greater exertions making by the State of Pennſylvania to facilitate the carriage of commodities by means of new roads and canals, and the improvement of river navigation. It is evident from hence, as indeed it is from a ſimple inſpection of the map, that the interior parts of Pennſylvania, in the vicinity of the Suſquehannah, where the land for the moſt part is extremely fine, have very conſiderable

advantages over the moſt advantageous part of the Geneſſee tract, in the facility of tranſporting produce to market; the produce of the interior of Pennſylvania will therefore in all probability come firſt and cheapeſt to market. The preſent price of lands in the Geneſſee is nearly the ſame as in the rich parts of Pennſylvania, a hundred and fifty miles nearer to Philadelphia.

It is another unpleaſant circumſtance attending the Geneſſee country, that it forms the frontier to the Indians, who navigate the lakes along the whole tract: indeed many tracts in the Geneſſe territory itſelf are reſerved by the Indians. At preſent they are friendly, nor is there much fear of a change; and ſhould they become otherwiſe, they will be ultimately ſubdued: but the ſtate of intermediate conteſt on ſuch an occaſion would ill ſuit the habits and inclinations of a peaceable European. Along the Mohawk river, the lands are rich and heavily timbered, and ſell at preſent at a price not ſuperior to the comparative advantages they preſent; but they are liable to many of the objections which may be made to the Geneſſee country.

It ſeems evident from theſe circumſtances, that this country, which in other reſpects is the moſt eligible part of New-York State for many purpoſes of a new ſettler, has numerous diſadvantages attending it; diſadvantages which an American emigrant, from the thick ſettled ſtates of New-England, would regard as triffling, but which, we conceive, will appear in a more formidable light to Europeans.

Very few objections can be made to the State of Pennſylvania. In point of climate, the difference between this part of the American continent and Great-Britain is not only very ſupportable, but perhaps in favour of the former, even to Britiſh feelings, eſpecially in the northern and north-weſtern part of the State. The ſummers are ſomewhat warmer and the winters colder than at London, but the general ſtate of the air is more dry, more pleaſant, and perhaps equally, if not more healthy. The ſentral ſituation of this ſtate with reſpect to the others, the proſperous ſtate of its treaſury, the numerous projected improvements in roads and canals, the poſſeſſion of the largeſt and moſt flouriſhing city of America, and the ſuperior proportion not only of inports and exports, but particularly of emigrants of every claſs that come to the port of Philadelphia, altogether make it probable, that Pennſylvania may fairly be regarded as the moſt flouriſhing State of the Union.

In a general view, Pennſylvania is preferable to New-York, becauſe the climate is more dry,* and therefore more favourable to health, ſomewhat warmer, and therefore more favourable to vegatation in the former than in the latter State. In Pennſylvania, the government is more intent upon thoſe public improvements that will force population and the ſpeedy riſe of lands, its revenues are more productive, and its treaſury richer. In all other circumſtances, Pennſylvania is at leaſt equal to New-York, and in thoſe enumerated, it has undoubtedly the preference. But we are not to ſeek in the ſouth-eaſtern line of this State, either for large tracts of good or cheap land. As you approach the coaſt, property is divided, the land is barren, and the prices high. Neither is the climate in the ſouth-eaſtern line of Pennſylvania for two hundred or two hundred and fifty miles, from the ſea, ſo pleaſant or ſo favourable to health or to vegetation as in the more northern and north-weſtern parts of the State. Thus, in Philadelphia during the two laſt winters, the ſnows repeatedly appeared and diſappeared; froſts ſucceeded to thaws, and the roots of the grain were left expoſed to the ſeverity of the cold. This inconvenience is more frequently experienced by the farmer in the part of Pennſylvania approaching to Maryland, and often proves a very ſerious inconvenience. While in the northern parts of Northumberland, Luzerne, and Northampton counties, the ſnow, when it once falls in a quantity, generally remains through the winter, producing more ſettled weather, and protecting the crops underneath.

Moreover, the largeſt unoccupied tracts of land, of courſe the cheapeſt, and beyond compariſon the richeſt lands in this State, are to be found in the northern parts of the counties juſt mentioned, and of Allegany county; that is, generally ſpeaking, north of latitude 41°

With reſpect to Maryland and Virginia, objections may be made relative to ſlave-labour in particular. Theſe States are likewiſe unpleaſantly warm in the ſummer ſeaſon to an Engliſh conſtitution, particularly the former; the impoſſibility of procuring any ſervants but negroe ſlaves, is an objection almoſt inſuperable to a generous mind. Add to this, that Philadelphia is at preſent a better market for produce than Baltimore, particu-

* This holds almoſt throughout the whole extent of the two States; from the more inland ſituation of Pennſylvania, both with reſpect to the Atlantic ſea, and the lakes.

larly for wheat, which uſually ſells a ſhilling higher at Philadelphia than at the port juſt mentioned, which however is in a very rapid ſtate of improvement.

The federal city, recently laid out between the forks of the Potomack, will, however, give a conſiderable increaſed and increaſing value to the country round it; and the future reſidence of Congreſs there, will, in time, make Waſhington city what New-York and Philadelphia are now, although the ports of Alexandria, Baltimore and Annapolis will long be competitors of great importance. There can be no doubt but perſons may find and ſettle upon plantations in the neighbourhood of Waſhington city, ſufficiently extenſive to occupy a moderate capital, and to which there will be a yearly acceſſion of value, independent of their own exertions, whatever the preſent price of lands may be. But ſtill, the evil conſequences of ſlave-labour at preſent remain; and whether it be owing to one, or to both of theſe cauſes combined, there is certainly a want of individual and national energy, in ſeveral of the ſouthern ſtates, which we do not find in the others: the ſtile of farming is more ſlovenly, the individuals are more idle and diſſipated, and the progreſs of public improvements in general more ſlow than in the ſtates on the northern ſide. There can be no doubt but the climate contributes ſomething to this indolence of diſpoſition; but where labour is confined to ſlaves, who do not benefit in proportion to their induſtry, and where the white inhabitant regards himſelf as a different and ſuperior being, the general ſtate of improvement muſt be affected by ſuch opinions adopted in theory, and purſued in practice.

Hence, whatever may be the caſe as to particular ſpots, the gradual acceſſion of value to landed property, from the operation of conſtant and regular cauſes, neither is, nor can be ſo great in countries of this deſcription, as in others where the climate admits and requires exertion, and where it is thought no diſgrace for a white man to labour.

It is preſumed that the gradual acceſſion of value to landed property, of which we have juſt ſpoken, will accrue more certainly, more ſpeedily, and to a larger amount in the States of Pennſylvania, New-York, and Kentucky, than in either of the remaining States, on account of the preſent cheapneſs of good land, and on account of the great reſort of European emigrants.

Good lands can be procured in New-York or Pennſylvania, in favourable ſituations, at from three half crowns to half a guinea an acre, and a capital employed in the purchaſe of ſuch

lands will much ſooner be doubled, than if the original price had been two or three pounds ſterling per acre. An acceſſion of three half crowns per acre, additional value to the former deſcription, will produce a duplication of the capital employed; while an additonal value of three half-crowns per acre to lands of the latter diſcription, will produce about fifteen or ſixteen per cent only. Moreover, five ſhillings or ſeven ſhillings and ſixpence additional value is much more eaſily given to land of the firſt kind, and when given is more viſible, more evident at firſt ſight, than in the other caſe; and farther, land of this deſcription muſt neceſſarily entice perſons of ſmall property, and derive conſequent value from new ſettlers, even though value ſhould not be given, by the gradual population of the country itſelf. It is clear alſo, that other cauſes muſt give a great advantage to the middle States, and render them for ſome years eligible ſituations for the employment of time and trouble, as well as capital. Of the two, perhaps, the preference ſhould be given to Pennſylvania, for the reaſons already montioned; and alſo, becauſe the current of improvement is beyond compariſon more rapid in this than in New-York State; but in both theſe States, emigrants eaſily find plenty of land, rich, cheap, well watered, within the reach of navigation, under a good government and in a favourable climate.

With reſpect to Kentucky, in point of ſoil and climate, it certainly has the preference to any State in the Union. Nature has given to the regions of this fair country a fertility ſo aſtoniſhing, that to believe it, ocular demonſtration becomes neceſſary. To this advantage we may add, that of the number of European ſettlers that have emigrated, and which continue to emigrate thither, and the conſequent rapid ſtate of impovement that has followed. Lands in and near the towns in this ſtate muſt continue to increaſe in their value, and many purchaſes may now be made in the new townſhips with very great advantage to a ſettler; ſome difficulties there undoubtedly are, and ſuch muſt naturally be expected in a newly-ſettled country.

Labourers are ſcarce, few if any can be hired but ſlaves, who are let out by their owners. But a great portion of the preſent inhabitants, like thoſe of the Geneſſee country in New-York, cultivate the greater part of their own lands and live on the produce: this muſt be the caſe with thoſe that will not have any thing to do with ſlaves; but this difficulty is not peculiar to Kentucky, it is common to all newly-ſettled countries. Another difficulty an European has to encounter in ſettling in Kentucky, is the great diſtance he has to travel after landing in America;

but this will operate as a difficulty only to ſome individuals. The man whoſe mind has gained ſtrength ſufficient to bid farewel to European luxuries, or who has been habituated to a life ſecluded from capital towns, will find little difficulty in this journey.

The routes from the different Atlantic States to this country are various, as may be ſuppoſed. From the northern States it is through the upper parts of Pennſylvania to Pittſburgh, and then down the river Ohio. The diſtance from Philadelphia to Pittſburgh is nearly three hundred miles; from Lancaſter about two hundred and thirty. The rout through Redſtone and by Pittſburgh, both from Maryland and Virginia, is the moſt eligible, provided much baggage is carried, except going from the ſouthern and back counties of Virginia; then the beſt and moſt expeditious way is through the wilderneſs. From Baltimore, paſſing Old Town upon the Potomack, and by Cumberland fort; Braddock's road, to Redſtone Old Fort on the Monongehala, is about two hundred and forty miles; and from Alexandria to the ſame place, by Wincheſter Old Town, and then the ſame route acroſs the mountain, is about two hundred and twenty miles. This laſt muſt be the moſt eligible for all Europeans who may wiſh to travel to this country, as the diſtance by land is ſhorter, the roads better, and the accommodations good; *i. e.* they are very good to Old Town, which is one hundred and forty miles from Alexandria, and from thence to Redſtone comfortable, and plentifully ſupplied with proviſions of all ſorts; the road over the mountain is rather rough, but no where, in the leaſt difficult to paſs.

Travellers or emigrants take different methods of tranſporting their baggage, goods or furniture, from the places they may be at to the Ohio, according to circumſtances, or their object in coming to the country. If a man is travelling only for curoſity, or has no family or goods to remove, his beſt way will be to purchaſe horſes, and take his route through the wilderneſs; but provided he has a family, or goods of any ſort to remove, his beſt way, then, will be to purchaſe a waggon and team of horſes to carry his property to Redſtone Old Fort, or to Pittſburgh, according as he may come from the northern or ſoutherh ſtates. A good waggon will coſt, at Philadelphia, about ten pounds, reckoning every thing in ſterling money, for greater convenience, and the horſes about twelve pounds each; they will coſt ſomething more both at Baltimore and at Alexandria. The waggon may be covered with canvas, and, if the choice of the people, they may ſleep

in it at nights with the greateſt ſafety. But if this mode ſhould be diſliked, there are inns of accommodation the whole diſtance on the different roads. To allow the horſes a plenty of hay and corn will coſt about one ſhilling *per diem* each horſe, ſuppoſing forrage to be purchaſed in the moſt economical manner, *i. e.* of the farmers, from time to time as wanted, and not of innkeepers, who muſt have their profits. The proviſions for the family may be purchaſed in the ſame manner; and by having two or three camp kittles, and ſtopping every evening when the weather is fine upon the brink of ſome rivulet, and kindling a fire, food may be ſoon dreſſed. There is no impediment to theſe kind of things, it is common, and may be done with the greateſt ſecurity; and perſons who wiſh to avoid expenſe, as much as poſſible, will adopt this plan. True, the charges at inns on thoſe roads are remarkably reaſonable, and the accommodations very good; but we have mentioned thoſe particulars, as there are many unfortunate people who emigrate from Europe, to whom the ſaving of every ſhilling is an object; and this manner of journeying is ſo far from being diſagreeable, that in a fine ſeaſon it is extremely pleaſant. To perſons who have always been reſident in a town, and enjoyed uninterruptedly the luxuries of life, it may appear ſtrange and novel, but to perſons habituated to a country life, even in England, there will not appear any thing hard or degrading.

Proviſions in thoſe countries through which you travel are very cheap; beef, mutton and pork, are ſomething leſs than two pence per pound; dunghill fowls are from four pence to ſix pence each; ducks eight pence; geeſe and turkies one ſhilling and three pence; butter three pence per pound; cheeſe there is very little good until you arrive in Kentucky; flour is about twelve ſhillings and ſix pence per hundred weight.

The beſt way is to carry tea and coffee from the place they may ſet out at, if it is wiſhed for; good green tea there will be from four ſhillings and ſix-pence to ſix ſhillings per pound; ſouchong from three ſhillings to five ſhillings; coffee will coſt from one ſhilling and three-pence to one ſhilling and ſix-pence per lb. loaf ſugar from ſeven-pence halfpanny to ten-pence halfpenny. But it is needleſs carrying much ſugar, for as the back country is approached, the maple ſugar is in abundance, and may be bought from three-pence to ſix-pence per pound. Such are the expenſes to be incurred in travelling to this country by Redſtone and Pittſburgh.

The diſtance which one of thoſe waggons may travel one day with another is little ſhort of twenty miles; ſo that it will be a journey from Alexandria to Redſtone Old Fort of eleven or twelve days, from Baltimore a day or two longer, and from Philadelphia to Pittſburgh, we ſhould ſuppoſe it would require nearly twenty days, as the roads are not ſo good as from the two former places.

From theſe prices, the expenſe of removing a family from either of the ſea ports to the Ohio may be computed with tolerable exactneſs.

The beſt time for ſetting out for this country from any of the Atlantic ports, is the latter end of either September or April. The autumn is perhaps the moſt eligible of the two; as it is probable, that the roads acroſs the mountain will be drier, and proviſions and forage more plentiful and cheap than in the ſpring.

If this mode ſhould not ſuit the convenience of the party, by reaſon of their not wanting a waggon or horſes when they arrive in this country, they may have their goods carried out to Redſtone Old Fort from Alexandria for twelve ſhillings per hundred weight, and in like proportion from Baltimore and Philadelphia.

At Redſtone Old Fort, or Pittſburgh, they can either buy a boat, which will coſt them about five ſhillings per ton, or freight their goods to Kentucky for about one ſhilling per hundred weight. There is no regular buſineſs of this ſort; but as there are always boats coming down the river, one ſhilling per hundred weight is the common charge for freight. But more frequently, when there is boat room to ſpare, it is given to ſuch as are not able to purchaſe a boat, or have not a knowledge of the navigation. However, that is a buſineſs which requires no ſkill, and there are always numbers of people coming down, who will readily conduct a boat for the ſake of a paſſage.

The diſtance from Philadelphia* by land to Kentucky is between ſeven and eight hundred miles; from Baltimore nearly

* The diſtance in the ſettled parts only can be computed with any degree of exactitude; but from the beſt information that can be collected, from the rapids of the Ohio to Santa Fe is about one thouſand miles, and from thence to the city of Mexico about one thouſand five hundred.

The computed diſtance between New-Orleans and Mexico is ſomething ſhort of two thouſand miles, and about the ſame to Santa Fe.

ſeven hundred; nearly ſix hundred from Alexandria; and upwards of five hundred from Richmond. The roads and accommodations are tolerably good to the borders of the wilderneſs; through which it is hardly poſſible for a carriage to paſs, great part of the way being over high and ſteep hills, upon the banks of the rivers and along defiles, which in ſome places ſeem to threaten you at every ſtep with danger.* This is the only route the people coming from the upper parts of Virginia and North-Carolina can take at preſent to get into the country, the gap of Cumberland mountain being the only place it can be paſſed without the greateſt difficulty. The opening of the Tenneſſee will afford a convenient communication with the Miſſiſſippi. The wilderneſs, which was formerly two hundred miles through without a ſingle habitation, is reduced from the ſettlement of Powel's valley to nearly one-half of that diſtance; and it is to be expected, that in a few years more, the remainder of the diſtance will afford ſettlements for the accommodation of people travelling that route, when a good road may be made quite to Kentucky. The canals which are cutting on the Potomack, and the removal of the obſtructions in Cheat river, will render the paſſage from Alexandria, or the federal city, to the Ohio, both cheap and eaſy.

Upon the arrival of emigrants in the country, they generally take a view of that part in which it is their object to ſettle, and according to their circumſtances or calling, fix upon ſuch a ſituation as many appear eligible for their buſineſs. But as the greater proportion of the emigrants who ſettle in Kentucky are huſbandmen, we ſhall only take notice of their manner of proceeding and ſettling a farm. Land is to be purchaſed in every part of the country: the prices are various according to the improvements there may be upon it, its quality, and local ſituation; the general price of land, with ſome improvements, in the neighbourhood of villages, from twelve to fifteen ſhillings per acre. Plantations, with orchards and other improvements, may be purchaſed from twenty to twenty-five ſhillings per acre; good land without improvements, may be purchaſed from one ſhilling and ſix pence to eight ſhillings per ditto, which price will be according to its rate or quality and ſituation.

We have noticed only what may be termed ſettled country; we apprehend no European will be hardy enough to form a

* This road has been conſiderably improved, and a poſt now paſſes weekly through it from Philadelphia to Kentucky.

ſettlement in a wilderneſs; this will be left for the Americans, who, no doubt, from habit, are beſt qualified for that ſort of buſineſs. Indeed, there are a number of people who have ſo long been in the cuſtom of removing farther and farther back as the country becomes ſettled, for the ſake of hunting, and what they call range for their cattle, which is that of feeding upon the natural graſs, that they ſeem unqualified for any other kind of life. This is favourable to the ſettling a wild and infant country; and no doubt this diſpoſition will laſt, with ſome, as long as there is left a wilderneſs in America. It is however certain, that this is advantageous to ſociety, which will be bettered and not hindered by ſuch peculiar habits, ſo long as they have new countries to people; for this adventurous ſpirit tends to accelerate the propagation of domeſtic animals of every ſort.

Perſons of moderate fortune, upon taking poſſeſſion of the land they intend to form into a plantation, will, doubtleſs, procure ſuch a ſtock as their circumſtances will admit, and the extent of their object requires; but let us ſuppoſe an induſtrious man already provided with the neceſſary tools for his agricultural employment, and a little money to buy ſtock. In ſuch a ſituation, after building a log-houſe, which will coſt him little more than his labour,* he will procure ſome dunghill fowls, a cow, and a breeding ſow.

Theſe animals are very prolific in this climate and ſoil; and it is not a ſanguine calculation to ſuppoſe the ſow will have eight or ten pigs at each litter: by which means the family will have pork ſufficient for the next year, and the year after they may barter bacon for beef and mutton, which we will conclude their circumſtances have not permitted them as yet to purchaſe, though both may be eaſily procured at a moderate price. His labour will have provided him with corn before this time, and in the extention of his plantation, and the increaſe of his cow and hogs, his difficulties will be over. The increaſing ratio of ſtock is prodigious, where proviſion for them coſts ſo little as it does here, and where the fertility of the ſoil is ſo won-

* A log-houſe is very ſoon erected, and in conſequence of the friendly diſpoſition which exiſts among theſe hoſpitable people, every neighbour will come to the aſſiſtance of each other upon occaſions of emergency. Sometimes they are built of round logs entirely, covered with rived aſh ſhingles, and the interſtices ſtopped with clay, or lime and ſand, to keep out the weather. A houſe of this ſort may be made as comfortable and elegant as any other kind of building, and is therefore the moſt convenient, as it may be erected in ſuch a manner as to anſwer the circumſtances of all deſcriptions of perſons.

derful, that it amply repays the labourer for his toil; if the large trees are not very numerous, and a large proportion of them the ſugar maple, which is very common, they are an advantage to the ſettler; it is very likely from imperfect cultivation, that the ground will yield from fifty to ſixty buſhels of corn to the acre. The ſecond crop will be more ample; and as the ſhade is removed by cutting the timber away, great part of the land will produce from ſeventy to one hundred buſhels of corn from an acre. This will enable the farmer who has but a ſmall capital to increaſe his wealth in a moſt rapid manner.* His cattle and hogs will find ſufficient food in the woods, not only for them to ſubſiſt upon, but to fatten them. His cows want no provender the greateſt part of the year, except cane and wild clover; but he may afford to feed them with corn the 2d year, if he finds it neceſſary. His garden, with little attendance, will produce him all the culinary roots and vegetables neceſſary for his table; and the prolific increaſe of his hogs and poultry will furniſh him without fear of injuring his ſtock, with a plenty of animal food; and in three or four years his flock of cattle and ſheep will prove ſufficent to ſupply him with both beef and mutton, and he may continue his plan at the ſame time of increaſing his ſtock of thoſe uſeful animals. By the fourth year, provided he is induſtrious, he may have his plantation in ſufficient good order to build a better houſe, which he can do either of ſtone, brick, or a framed wooden building, the principal articles of which will coſt him little more than the labour of himſelf and domeſtics; and he may readily barter or ſell ſome part of the ſuperfluous productions of his farm, which it will by this time afford, and procure ſuch things as he may ſtand in need of for the completion of his building. Apples, peaches, pairs, &c. &c. he ought to plant when he finds a ſoil or eligable ſituation to place them in, as that will not hinder, or in any degree divert him from the object of his aggrandizement. A few years of induſtry will now make him a man of property, and inſure his comfort and independence for the remnant of his life, and lay a firm foundation for the future opulence of his family. We have taken no notice of the game he might kill, as it is more a ſacrifice of time to an induſtrious man than any real advantage.

The beſt proof of the truth of theſe remarks is the paſt progreſs of the ſettlement of this country, from dirty ſtations or forts, and ſmoaky huts, into fertile fields, bluſhing orchards, plea-

* By wealth is meant the comforts of life.

pleaſant gardens, luxuriant ſugar groves, neat and commodious houſes, riſing villages, and trading towns. Ten years have produced a difference in the population and comforts of this country, which to be pourtrayed in juſt colours would appear marvellous. To have implicit faith or belief that ſuch things have happened, it is firſt neceſſary to be a ſpectator of ſuch events.

We have entered into theſe ſeveral minutiæ in order to afford as clear a view as poſſible to the individual who wiſhes to depend on the farm for his ſupport, of what part of the continent he is moſt likely to ſucceed, agreeable to the plan he may chooſe to mark out for himſelf; in doing this, we have aimed at but one object, viz. to convey information.

In thoſe ſituations far from towns and ſeaports, and which may be conſidered as but one remove from the ſavage wilderneſs, the difficulties to an European ſettler, no doubt, appear greater than they really are, and the contraſt of the inhabitants with thoſe of European ſtates is greater ſtill; the American farmer has more ſimplicity and honeſty—we more art and chicanery—they have more of nature, and we more of the world. Nature, indeed, formed our features and intellects very much alike, but while we have metamorphoſed the one, and contaminated the other, they have retained and preſerved the natural ſymbols of both.

While motives ſuitable to the ſituation of life direct the man who depends on the earth for ſupport, what part of the States to fix his reſidence in; men who have to depend on their efforts in trade, or their exertions, in mechanics and manufactures, the fine arts, or what are termed in Europe the learned profeſſions, muſt be directed by different circumſtances The mechanic and manufacturer, whether he is by the advantage of property enabled to begin buſineſs as a maſter, or being diſtitute of it, is neceſſiated to labour as a journeyman, muſt take up his reſidence in large cities or towns. With him the progreſs of arts and manufactures, the ſtate of ſociety, the price of proviſions, &c. are the principal objects of inquiry. Lawyers and phyſicians, muſt likewiſe make theſe the places of their reſidence; for with reſpect to the former, whether his line of buſineſs is that of a conveyancer, a notary, or ſolicitor, no place of any other deſcription can find him employ, as his whole ſupport muſt be drawn from the commerce, or the vices and follies of mankind. With reſpect to the latter, diſſipation alone, in a great meaſure,

renders them neceſſary. Philadelphia, New-York, Boſton, Baltimore, Charleſton, Georgia and ſome other towns of note, will of courſe be the only places to which emigrants of either of the above deſcriptions will proceed. In theſe towns the ſtate of ſociety is much the ſame as in the large towns of Great-Britain, ſuch as Birmingham, Briſtol, Liverpool, Mancheſter, &c.

New-York, for inſtance, is the perfect counterpart of Liverpool; the ſituation of the docks, the form of ſtreets, the ſtate of the public buildings, the inſide as well as the outſide of the houſes, the manners, the amuſements, the mode of living among the expenſive part of the inhabitants, all theſe circumſtances are as nearly alike in the towns laſt mentioned as poſſible. In all the American towns above noticed, there are theatres and aſſemblies; there are, in ſhort, preciſely what the larger and more opulent provincial towns of Great-Britain are. Hence alſo we may eaſily conceive, that European comforts and conveniencies are not ſcarce. In fact, we may find in Philadelphia or New-York, every article of that deſcription uſually kept in the ſhops in the Engliſh towns referred to, in equal plenty, but not, indeed, equally cheap. To the price of all articles of luxurious furniture, pictures, pier glaſſes, carpets, &c. add one-third to the Engliſh price, and you have the full American price. Houſe rent is alſo much the ſame as in the places hitherto compared; if any thing, ſomewhat dearer in America for houſes of the ſame ſize and convenience. The houſes in the one ſet of towns as in the other, are built of brick and ſtone. In the country, houſes of equal convenience are as cheap as in the country of Great-Britain.

Proviſions, milk and butter excepted, at Philadelphia and ſouthward, are a full third cheaper than in ſimilar places of Great-Britain. Butter, in Boſton and New-York, is cheaper than in Philadelphia, where it is from eleven-pence, to one ſhilling and three-pence per pound. Cheeſe about the ſame price as in England, but perhaps not ſo good. Fireing in the great towns very dear, a chord of hiccory wood, eight feet by four feet, and four feet ſelling in Philadelphia and New-York, in the winter, at ſeven dollars. In the country it would be about one dollar and a half.

In the ſettled country, however, from fifteen to two hundred and fifty miles from the large towns, the ſtate of ſociety, and the ſtyle of living, is preferable to the country life of Great-Britain.

With reſpect to the federal city, or, as it is called, the city of Waſhington, though it may in time become the rival even of Philadelphia, we cannot but doubt the ſucceſs of manufacturers and artiſts of any kind who ſhould take up their reſidence there for ſome years to come, thoſe in the building line and the manufacture of houſehold furniture excepted.

Having thus briefly attempted to point out the moſt eligible ſituation for European ſettlers, it is neceſſary to attend to another queſtion which may naturally be aſked; and to which we ſhall aim to give as ſatisfactory a reply as poſſible.

WHAT CLASS OF EUROPEAN CITIZENS WILL FIND IT THEIR INTEREST TO FIX THEIR RESIDENCE IN THE UNITED STATES?

One remark, by way of anſwer, may be conſidered as general. America is not a place ſuited for the idle, the profligate, the debauchee, nor the diſſipated of any claſs; it is far from a congenial ſoil for what is termed in Europe a man of pleaſure. Theſe poiſonous and obnoxious animals in the form of man, will find but little encouragement in the United States; the minds of the federal Americans are not corrupted by European ſyſtems ſufficiently to give a welcome to characters of this ſtamp, but, on the contrary, they are held in the deteſtation they merit. In America, the terms honour and pleaſure have different meanings affixed to them than in England; a man can claim no honour from his birth or his riches in that country; integrity and ability are the only paths that can lead him to that goal. And with reſpect to pleaſures, the great body of the Americans know of none, but what ariſe from the practice of virtue. Thus their pleaſures ſtrengthen the ties of ſociety, and contrary to what are called by that name in England, add to the ſtock of human happineſs, inſtead of increaſing its miſery and wretchedneſs.

While characters of the above deſcription will not find any advantage in migrating to America, few virtuous and induſtrious perſons will find themſelves diſappointed in their expectations of at leaſt a comfortable proviſion in their own line of buſineſs, though in this reſpect ſome will have advantage over others.

Merchants, tradeſmen, and ſhopkeepers will find moſt of the large towns in the different ſtates eligible ſituations; in general, they afford good water carriage for goods of all kinds, and are well ſituated for an extenſive connection with the back countries.

Men of this deſcription, though it is not abſolutely neceſſary, will yet find it their advantage to ſerve a kind of local apprenticeſhip, for whatever be the previous connections or circumſtances which induce them to go thither, time is neceſſary to acquire a ſufficient knowledge of the habits and manners of the people, of the characters and ſituation of thoſe with whom they are to deal, of the channels of commerce, the articles of barter, and the other details of buſineſs, which nothing but actual reſidence and local inveſtigation can ſupply. With this, no perſon of good character and recommendation, with credit on the old country, can fail to ſucceed in the new. Succeſs, however, will be much accelerated by a knowledge of the German and French languages, in Pennſylvania and New-York States in particular. In Philadelphia every ſtore-keeper has the name of his firm and trade written in German as well as Engliſh.

Maſter workmen in every manufacturing and mechanical art, except thoſe of ſuperfluous or luxurious kinds, with their journeymen and labourers, muſt ſucceed here. The freight, inſurance, and other charges of a voyage of three thouſand miles, and the duties laid there, operate greatly in favour of American fabrics. Manufactures by fire, water, and emigrating workmen, muſt ſucceed even in the moſt agricultural of their ſtates, and will meet mith every encouragement in the New-England and other ſtates, whoſe lands are nearly full. A regard for the republican manners of the country, and juſtice to Europeans, render it a duty to warn the manufacturers of ſuperfluous and luxurious articles, not to emigrate to the United States. Gold, ſilver, and other laces, embroidery, jewellery, rich ſilks and ſilk velvets, fine cambrics, fine lawns, fine muſlins, and articles of that expenſive nature, have few wearers there, and thoſe who do wear them, have a predilection in favour of European and other foreign articles.

There can be no doubt of the ſucceſs of a glaſs manufactory, a gunpowder manufactory, a manufactory of all the heavy kinds of iron work, ſuch as caſtings from the ore, bar iron, pig iron, rolling mills, ſlitting mills, and the making of nails, and of every article in the ſhipping line: woollen, linen, except in the heavy and courſe articles, and cotton manufactures, are perhaps dubious, owing to the want of hands, though the latter has been attended to with ſucceſs. We believe that no ſoap boiler, hatter, gunſmith, tallow chandler, white-ſmith and blackſmith, braſs founder, wheelright, cabinet maker, carpenter, maſon, bricklayer, taylor, ſhoemaker, cooper, tanner, currier, maltſter, brewer, diſtiller, ſailmaker, ropemaker, printer and bookbinder, whether maſter or journey-

man, can miſs of employment there. Even ſilverſmiths and watchmakers will find the ſtate of ſociety not unfavourable to their trade. Of ſilverſmiths, maſters and journeymen, there are reckoned about four hundred in Philadelphia alone. It is impracticable to enumerate every trade; but in general, without fear of erring, we may conclude, that all thoſe of common uſe are now, and will long continue to be in demand there. The wages of journeymen are conſiderably higher than in Europe, and the money of a working man will certainly go farther.

The profeſſion of the law is not ſo different in any of the States in America, from what it is in England, as not to afford a fair chance of ſucceſs to any lawyer from the old country, who will ſpend a couple of years in attaining the practice, and the knowledge peculiar to, and neceſſary for the particular ſtate in which he wiſhes to act. The fees are much the ſame as in England. The reports of caſes determined in England are authority, but not precedent. They have great weight, and are generally deciſive, but they are open to obſervation, to animadverſion, and contradiction. The law, however, is a faſhionable, and therefore a full profeſſion in America, and we doubt whether an Engliſh lawyer will, in general mend his pecuniary ſituation by removing there; the lawyers of great practice, who all act as attornies, get from five hundred to two thouſand pounds currency a year. We believe the profits of none exceed three thouſand pounds. German and French, if not abſolutely neceſſary, are very convenient to an American lawyer.

The profeſſion of phyſic is well filled in America, but there are many foreigners who practiſe: the profeſſion we believe is open, but, unleſs in the caſe of a German or French practitioner among the inhabitants who ſpeak Engliſh imperfectly, the American phyſicians have, and perhaps juſtly, the preference. Surgeons are not ſo experienced as in Europe, nor, indeed, do ſurgical caſes ſo frequently occur. The poor are leſs expoſed to accident and diſeaſe, and therefore hoſpital practice is not inſtructive there.

With reſpect to divinity, the States certainly are already in the poſſeſſion of teachers, who, for ability, faithfulneſs, piety, and virtue, are inferior to none. Of this claſs of men in the United States, we find none of thoſe idle, diſſipated, debauched characters which European eſtabliſhments foſter and cheriſh. There are no lordly prieſts rolling in affluence,

preying on the vitals of the poor, and oppreſſing thoſe they were appointed to inſtruct. There are none that can tyranniſe over the conſcience of man, and hurl the thunders of a ſpiritual inquiſition round his head, for not believing nonſenſical dogmas, or ſubmitting to their tyrannic ſway.—No, the miniſters of the goſpel in America claim no lordſhip over the church, but are what they ought to be, inſtructors and examples of the people; and as there are no tithes nor livings, independent of the people, throughout the States, but on the contrary, the ſalaries of the miniſters are entirely dependent on them, and in general not very large, there can be few temptations to men to embrace the miniſtry from improper motives. Many divines of different denominations have, however, quitted Europe for America; and where character and ability have been blended, they have invariably ſucceeded. Certain it is, that where a man is ambitious of becoming uſeful in ſpreading the goſpel, no part of the world ſeems better adapted to gratify his wiſhes, an extenſive back country, were there are few or no miniſters, and an extenſive Indian miſſion, preſent themſelves to his view, independent of ſettled towns and cities, where a variety of ſentiments and increaſing population are certainly favourable to the ſettlement of a number of miniſters. Thoſe divines who emigrate from Europe, will probably ſucceed beſt who blend with the miniſterial character that of a ſchool-maſter, a character much in requeſt in every part of the American continent.

With reſpect to literary men, it is to be obſerved, that in America there is not as yet what may be called a claſs of ſociety, to whom this denomination will apply; ſuch, for inſtance, as is to be found in Great-Britain, and indeed, in moſt of the old countries of Europe. A claſs whoſe profeſſion is literature, and among whom the branches of knowledge are divided and ſubdivided with great minuteneſs, each individual taking and purſuing his ſeparate department. Literature in America is, in general, an amuſement only, collateral to the occupation of the perſon who attends to it. In Europe, it is a trade, a means of livelihood.

Certainly the Americans are not inferior in abilities to the Europeans; they are comparatively an infant ſociety, and their numbers are comparatively few; and yet old as Great-Britain is in experience, abounding in her eſtabliſhments for the promotion of learning, pre-eminent in repu-

tation, and gigantic in her attainments of knowledge and ſcience of all kinds, the ſtrippling of the new world, has taught her war by Waſhington, and philoſophy by Franklin Rittenhouſe ranks with the beſt Britiſh mathematicians and aſtronomers. European diplomatiſts have ſhrunk before the reaſoning of Jefferſon; and the lateſt and accuteſt of our political philoſophers are more than ſuſpected of being the diſciples only of Paine and Barlow, whoſe knowledge is notoriouſly the produce of the American ſchool—but though not in abilities, the Americans are inferior to Europeans in the opportunity of knowledge, their libraries are ſcanty, their collections are almoſt entirely of modern books; they do not contain the means of tracing the hiſtory of queſtions: this is a want which the literary people feel very much, and which it will take ſome years effectually to remedy, notwithſtanding the exertions that have been made, and are making, to accompliſh it; the convulſed ſtate of Europe, and the increaſing proſperity of America, will, however contribute rapidly to improve their ſituation in this reſpect.

There is another circumſtance alſo which has hitherto tended to keep back the progreſs of letters with the Americans. The war brought on much individual, as well as national poverty; neceſſity therefore, as well as the habitual induſtry and frugality of the people, led every body to attend to commercial purſuits, and their attention was abſorbed in the improvement rather of their pockets than of their minds. But a great change has taken place and ere long a new generation will ariſe, and it is riſing, who will be enabled by the exertions of their parents to diſpenſe with inceſſant labour—they will begin to feel the want of, and they will imbibe a taſte for literature, philoſophy, and the fine arts; the uſeful ſciences will find their votaries as numerous and as ſucceſsful in America as in Europe; even at preſent the literati of the old continent will eaſily find congenial ſociety in moſt of the great towns of the United States.

From what has been ſaid, it may be doubted whether a man of large income can pleaſantly ſpend it in America. A large income is not, indeed, ſo eaſily ſpent there, as in Europe; there are not ſuch variety, nor ſuch expenſive amuſements; nor does an expenſive ſtyle of living procure ſo much reſpect there as in Great-Britain.* As

* Mr. Cooper obſerves, he could not find on enquiry that the moſt expenſive perſons in Philadelphia and New-York, lived at an expenſe beyond two thouſand pounds ſterling a year.

we have before obſerved, it is not the place for a man of pleaſure, in our acceptation of the word. A man may, however, enjoy all the ſocial comforts of life as well as thoſe of a more enlarged kind; he may likewiſe increaſe his fortune either by judicious purchaſes of land, or by the public funds, without burdening himſelf with the toils of the tradeſman, or the hazard of the merchant.

Thoſe who buy land on the expectation of re-ſelling it at an advanced price, muſt not, however, buy in the thickly-ſettled part of the country, for there land is nearly at the maximum price it will arrive at for many years: he muſt not buy large tracts, far from all preſent ſettlements, unleſs he can force the ſpeedy ſettlement of them by his own connection and influence. If he can do that he may buy indeed, any where, uſing common prudence in chuſing the ſituation: but if he cannot induce an emigration thither by his own exertions, he muſt buy where the current of population is evidently tending, but where it has not yet reached. Certainly, land ſpeculations in America, prudently entered upon, are extremely profitable: made at random they are otherwiſe.* If theſe do not ſuit part of the American ſtock pays above ſix per cent. per annum, and the deferred ſtock above ſeven.

The American debt is funded in three kinds of ſtock, viz. the three per cent. ſtock, the ſix per cent. ſtock, and the deferred ſtock; this latter bears no preſent intereſt, but intereſt at ſix per cent. will become payable upon it, from and after the firſt of January, 1801.

In the beginning of June, 1794, the prices of American ſtock were in London,

	Per cent.	£.	s.	d.
Six per cent. ſtock, ninety pounds per cent. thus paying an intereſt of		6	13	4
Three per cent. fifty pounds per cent.—paying an intereſt of		6	0	0
Deferred ſtock fifty-ſeven pounds per cent. upon which, if compound intereſt be reckoned at five per cent. until 1801, the fifty-ſeven will amount to eighty pounds, which therefore will yield		7	10	0

* Purchaſers in this country, and meaning to ſtay here, will not find it their intereſt, in general, to embark a portion of property ſo ſmall as not to pay for an agent on the ſpot. In this caſe, it ſhould be a joint concern. But ſo much caution is requiſite to perſons not going themſelves to America, that we cannot recommend the inveſtiture of a fortune there, unleſs the principal, or ſome of the principals, act upon perſonal knowledge.

Shares in the American bank, which has hitherto paid eight pounds per cent. at one hundred and six pounds per cent. paying an intereſt of - - - - 6 15 9

The ſurplus revenue of the United States is about one million two hundred thouſand dollars, or two hundred and ſeventy thouſand pounds ſterling per annum; this is laid out on the principle of a ſinking fund, to diſcharge the debt.

But on the whole, it is certainly beſt for a man of middling fortune, that is, perſons of from two hundred and fifty to five thouſand pounds fortune, to become farmers. We do not know that large fortunes are to be made by farming, but aſſured we are, that a moderate fortune may as certainly, eaſily, and more pleaſantly, produce a common average profit in that line than in any other.

A hundred and fifty acres of land, with a tolerable houſe and barn upon it, and ſufficient land cleared, for a perſon immediately to begin as a farmer, may be purchaſed in many parts at four pounds currency an acre,* payable one-fifth, perhaps, down, and one-fifth every year, with intereſt. We doubt wether this is more profitable, than the purchaſe with the ſame money of a large quantity of unimproved land, if the ſettler chuſe to encounter the difficulties of the firſt twelve months, which are difficulties to Engliſhmen only; to Americans they do not appear under that form.

The land thus purchaſed is a ſpecies of property that muſt of neceſſity receive an annual increaſe in value, from the natural population of the country, *beſides that* which the induſtry of the proprietor may confer upon it; we think we ſpeak within compaſs, when we ſay that an induſtrious cultivator, beſides making a plentiful livelihood and good intereſt of his capital, will find his farm quadrupled in value at the end of ten years, if he bought it in any cheap part of the back country, which was at the time in the courſe of ſettling.

To perſons with a family, the advantages are much on the ſide of farming; the value of the produce of America is much higher than in England, when the lightneſs of the taxes, and the cheapneſs and the fertility of the land are conſidered. Among farmers, there is not, as in great towns, a perpetual temptation to unneceſſary expenſe, or a ſtyle of living above income; and a man who has lived in the caſe and plenty of middle life, need not give his ſon a better or a more certain eſtabliſhment at ſetting out in the world,

* Not quite fifty ſhillings ſterling

than five hundred acres of land and five hundred pounds to begin with; and this, ten years hence, will eaſily be within the compaſs of men of moderate fortune, who begin their American career now.

Many things are daily preſenting themſelves, by which the profits of land will be greatly inhanced in the United States. They have hitherto imported a great part of their drink from abroad, viz. rum, brandy, gin, &c. but they find, by extending their breweries ſo far as to render theſe ſpirituous liquors in part unneceſſary, that they will want above two millions of buſhels of barley for the purpoſe, and large quantities of hops, beſides having uſe for a further part of the immenſe quantities of fire-wood and coal, with which their country abounds. They have alſo obtained the European cotton mill, by means of which, and a few of their innumerable mill ſeats, the owners of lands, in the ſix ſouthern States, will be called upon to ſupply great quantities of cotton. The movements of a mill for ſpinning flax, hemp, and combed wool, have alſo been conſtructed there, by which the farmers, throughout the Union, will be called upon to ſupply further quantities of flax and hemp, and to encreaſe their ſheep. The rolling mill for iron and other metals, and the tilt hammer for all large iron work, have been lately brought into extenſive uſe, and will, no doubt, be erected in all the States. But the detail of water works, and mechaniſm, which may be introduced into a country, that has, moderately ſpeaking, ten thouſand, and probably nearer twenty thouſand mill ſeats, would be endleſs.

The term "farmer" is not ſynonimous with the ſame word in England, where it means a tenant, holding of ſome lord, paying near ſeven-eighths of the produce in rent, tythes and taxes: an inferior rank in life, and occupied by perſons of inferior manners and education. In America a farmer is a land-owner paying no rent, no tythes, and few taxes equal in rank to any other in the States, having a voice in the appointment of his legiſlators, and a fair chance, if he deſerves it, of becoming one himſelf. In fact, nine-tenths of the legiſlators of America are farmers.

A man may buy three hundred acres of rich, but unimproved, land at preſent, in the well-ſettled part of the back country, for thirty ſhillings per acre, currency, payable by inſtalments. In the courſe of a ſummer he may, with a couple of men to help him, clear ground enough to maintain

ſome catttle through the winter, and may have a comfortable log-houſe built, which he may improve or enlarge at his leiſure. To do this, to put one-third of the whole into an arable ſtate, and to pay the firſt and ſecond inſtalments, will coſt him, with the wages of the men, the keep of himſelf and a moderate family for twelve months, and the neceſſary cattle and implements of huſbandry to cultivate this quantity properly, about four hundred and fifty or five hundred pounds ſterling.

The above is the price of prime land in very eligible ſituations, but purchaſes may be made much lower, and to much greater advantage, particularly in Kentucky and the weſtern territory, where the population of the country is not ſo great. We have thus endeavoured to anſwer, in as brief and comprehenſive manner as poſſible, the leading queſtion which an emigrator will be inclined to put: there are others which, though not of equal importance, are not without their weight, as

What is the ſtate of politics in America?—Is the Commonwealth of the United States likely to prove durable.

With reſpect to the ſtate of politics in America they have among them a few ſuſpected royaliſts, excluſive of ſome Engliſhmen ſettled in the great towns, whom the Americans regard as unreaſonably prejudiced againſt their government, and infected with a kind of *maladie du pays*.

The reſt of the Americans are republicans, but of two claſſes: the one leaning to an extenſion rather than a limitation of the powers of the legiſlative and executive government; or, in other words, rather leaning to Britiſh than to French politics; inclining to introduce and extend the funding, the manufacturing, and the commercial ſyſtems: In this claſs rank almoſt all the executive officers of government, with the Preſident at their head; the majority of the members of the ſenates, and the greateſt part of the opulent merchants of the large towns: this party is denominated the Federaliſts, partly becauſe they were the chief introducers and ſupporterrs of the preſent federal government, and the conſtitution of 1787; and partly from the very ingenious ſeries of letters in favour of that conſtitution by Mr. Hamilton, termed "The Federaliſt."

The other party are called, "Anti-federaliſts;" not becauſe they are adverſe to a federal government, or wiſh, like the French, for a republic, one and indiviſible, but in contradiction rather to the denomination of the other claſs. The

Anti-federaliſts, at the time when the preſent American conſtitution was in agitation, were hoſtile to the extenſive powers given to government, and wiſhed for more frequent returns to the people, of the authority they were to delegate to their truſtees in office. This party objects to the ſalaries given to the officers of government as too large, to the ſtate and diſtance aſſumed by ſome among them. Not even excluding the Preſident Waſhington, whoſe manners and mode of living, cold, reſerved and ceremonious, *as is ſaid*, have tended in ſome degree to counteract the effects of his great abilities and eminent ſervices. The Anti-federaliſts alſo rather lean to the French theory, though not to the French practice of politics; and they are averſe to what they deem the monopolizing ſpirit, and inſulting arrogance of ſuperiority in England. This ſpirit of animoſity againſt Great-Britain has been prodigiouſly increaſed by the part ſhe is ſuppoſed to have taken in fomenting the Indian war, in exciting the hoſtilities of the Algerines, in ſeizing the ſhips and obſtructing the commerce of the American merchants, in refuſing or neglecting to give up the poſts upon the lakes, or to make reparation for ſtolen negroes. The conduct of the Britiſh Court has certainly given ſtrength to the Anti-federal party, among whom may now be ranked the majority of the people, and the majority of the houſes of repreſentatives.

It will be eaſy to conjecture from the preceding account, that the Federaliſts are the *ins* and the Anti-federaliſts the *outs* of the American government; and this is in a great degree, but not univerſally true.

With reſpect to the ſtability of the American Commonwealth, there is great probability that its duration will be longer than any empire that has hitherto exiſted: for it is a truth univerſally admitted, that all the advantages which ever attended any of the monarchies of the old world, all center in the new; together with many others, which they never enjoyed. The four great empires, and the dominions of Charlemaigne and the Turks, all roſe by conqueſts, none by the arts of peace. On the contrary, the territory of the United States has been planted and reared by a union of liberty, good conduct, and all the comforts of domeſtic virtue.

All the great monarchies were formed by the conqueſts of kingdoms, different in arts, manners, language, temper and religion, from the conquerors: ſo that the union, though in ſome caſes very ſtrong, was never the real and intimate connection of the ſame people; and this circumſtance principally accelerated their ruin and was abſolutely the cauſe of it in ſome. This will be very different in the Americans. They

will, in their greateſt extent and population, be one of the ſame people; the ſame in language, religion, laws, manners, tempers and purſuits; for the ſmall variation in ſome diſtricts, owing to the ſettlement of Germans, is an exception ſo very ſlight, that in a few ages it will be unknown.

The Aſſyrian and Roman empires were of very ſlow growth, therefore laſted the longeſt; but ſtill their encreaſe was by conqueſt, and the union of diſſonant parts. The Perſian and Macedonian monarchies were ſoon founded and preſently overturned; the former not laſting ſo long as the Aſſyrian, nor a ſixth of the duration of the Roman; and as to the Macedonians, it laſted but ſix years. This advantage of a ſlow growth is ſtrong in favour of the Americans; the wonderful increaſe of their numbers is the natural effect of plenty of land, a good climate, and a mild and beneficent government, in which corruption and tyranny are wholly unknown. Some centuries are already paſt ſince their firſt ſettlement, and many more will paſs before their power appears in its full ſplendor; but the quickneſs of a growth that is entirely natural will carry with it no marks of decay, being entirely different from monarchies founded by force of arms. The Roman empire periſhed by the hands of northern barbarians, whom the maſters of the world diſdained to conquer; it will not be ſo with the Americans, they ſpread gradually over the whole continent, inſomuch that two hundred years hence, there probably will be nobody but themſelves in the whole northern continent; from whence, therefore, ſhould their Goths and Vandals come? Nor can they ever have any thing to fear from the ſouth; firſt, becauſe that country will never be populous, owing to the poſſeſſion of mines; ſecondly, there are ſeveral nations and languages planted and remaining in it; thirdly, the moſt conſiderable part of it lies in the torrid zone, a region that never yet ſent forth nations of conquerors.

In extent the habitable parts of North-America exceed that of any of the four empires, and conſequently can feed and maintain a people much more numerous than the Aſſyrians or the Romans. The ſituation of the region is ſo advantageous that it leaves nothing to be wiſhed for; it can have no neighbours from whom there is a poſſibility of attack or moleſtation; it will poſſeſs all the ſolid advantages of the Chineſe empire without the fatal neighbourhood of the Tartars.

It will have further the ſingular felicity of all the advantages of an iſland, that is, a freedom from the attack of others, and too many difficulties, with too great a diſtance, to engage in enterpriſes that heretofore proved the ruin of other monarchies.

The ſoil, the climate, production, and face of the continent, is formed by nature for a great, independent and permanent government: fill it with people who will of themſelves, of courſe, poſſeſs all ſorts of manufactures, and you will find it yielding every neceſſary and convenience of life. Such a vaſt tract of country, poſſeſſing ſuch ſingular advantages, becoming inhabited by one people, ſpeaking the ſame language, profeſſing the ſame religion, and having the ſame manners; attaining a population equal to that of the greateſt empire; ſprung from an active and induſtrious nation, who have transfuſed into them their own induſtry and ſpirit, and ſeen them worthy of their original; inhabiting a ſoil not dangerouſly fertile, nor a clime generally conducive to effeminacy; accuſtomed to commerce: ſuch a people muſt found a commonwealth as indiſſoluble as humanity will allow. Suffice it for England, that ſhe will have been the origin of a commonwealth greater and more durable than any former monarchy; that her language and her manners will flouriſh among a people who will one day become a ſplendid ſpectacle in the vaſt eye of the univerſe. This flattering idea of immortality no other nation can hope to attain.

And here let us make an obſervation, that ſhould animate the authors in the Engliſh language with an ardour that cannot be infuſed into any other nation; it is the pleaſing idea of living among ſo great a people, through almoſt a perpetuity of fame, and under almoſt an impoſſibility of becoming, like the Greek and Latin tongues, dead; known only by the learned. Increaſing time will bring increaſing readers, until their names become repeated with pleaſure by above an hundred millions of people!

Having endeavoured to anſwer what we conceive will be the leading inquiries of an European, who has an intention of removing from his native country to America, we ſhall proceed to offer ſuch information, as from the plan laid down we had not the opportunity of introducing, or at leaſt but ſlightly, into the preceding part of the work, or which we judged would be beſt deferred to the preſent period of it: in doing this, we ſhall endeavour to introduce our information with a ſpecial reference to that claſs of emigrators, whoſe va-

rious callings may induce them to ſettle in towns or cities; and to thoſe who, engaged in rural economy, will take up their reſidence in the back country, or the weſtern territory: many parts, however, will be applicable to both, for the farmer will in various caſes find himſelf connected with the cities and towns; it is there he muſt ſeek markets for his ſtock, and it is from his labours the towns and cities muſt receive ſupplies.

The following tables will prove advantageous to men of every deſcription, who have any connection with America, but particularly to an European ſettler.

A TABLE of the Value of ſundry Coins, as they now paſs in Great-Britain and the United States.

NAMES OF COINS	Sterling Money of Great-Britain,			Pennſylvania, New-Jerſey, Delaware, Maryland.			N. Hampſhire Maſſachuſetts, Rhode Iſland, Con. Virginia, &c.			New-York and North Carolina.			South-Carolina, and Georgia.		
	l.	*s.*	*d.*	*l.*	*s.*	*d.*	*l.*	*s.*	*d.*	*l.*	*s.*	*d.*	*l.*	*s.*	*d.*
Engliſh guineas	1	1	0	1	15	0	1	8	0	1	17	4	1	1	9 1/7
Engliſh half do.	0	10	6	0	17	6	0	14	0	0	18	8	0	10	10 2/7
Engliſh Crowns	0	5	0	0	8	4	0	6	8	0	9	0	0	5	2
Engliſh half ditto	0	2	6	0	4	2	0	3	4	0	4	6	0	2	7
Engliſh ſhillings	0	1	0	0	2	8	0	1	4	0	1	9	0	1	0
Engliſh ſix-pences	0	0	6	0	0	10	0	0	8	0	0	10 1/2	0	0	6
French Louis-d'or	1	6	0	1	14	6	1	7	6	1	16	0	1	1	5
French crowns	0	5	0	0	8	4	0	6	8	0	9	4	0	3	3
Spaniſh dollars	0	4	6	0	7	6	0	6	0	0	8	0	0	4	8
Johannes	3	12	0	6	0	0	4	16	0	6	8	0	4	0	0
Half Johannes	1	16	0	3	0	0	2	8	0	3	4	0	2	0	0
French piſtoles	0	16	0	1	7	6	1	2	0	1	8	0	0	17	6
Spaniſh ditto	0	16	6	1	8	0	1	2	0	1	9	0	0	18	0
Doubloons	3	6	0	5	12	6	4	8	0	5	16	0	3	10	0
Moidores	1	7	0	2	5	0	1	16	0	2	8	0	1	8	0

METHOD OF REDUCING CURRENCY TO STERLING.

Currency in Pennſylvania, New-Jerſey, Delaware, and Maryland, is reduced to ſterling by multiplying by three and dividing by five, one hundred pounds ſterling making at par one hundred and ſixty-ſix pounds thirteen and eight-pence Pennſylvania currency. That is, a merchant, when exchange is at par, will give a draft on Pennſylvania for the above ſum on receiving one hundred pounds ſterling. At preſent a merchant in London will give more, and therefore it is advantageous to buy bills on America.

Currency in New-York, and North-Carolina is reduced to ſterling by multiplying by nine and dividing by ſixteen. Thus a ſhilling New-York currency is ſix-pence three farthings ſterling.

Currency in New-Hampſhire, Maſſachuſetts, Rhode-Iſland, Virginia, and the weſtern territory, is reduced to ſterling by multiplying by three and dividing by four.

Currency in South-Carolina and Georgia is reduced to ſterling by deducting one twenty-ſeventh.

A TABLE of the Value of the Gold Coins of the following Countries, as eſtabliſhed by the act of Congreſs, paſſed Feb. 9th, 1793, viz.

Great-Britain and Portugal.					France, Spain, and the Dominions of Spain.				
Gr.	ts.	Dwt.	Dol.	Cts.	Gr.	Cts.	Dwt.	Dol.	Cts.
1	3	1	0	89	1	3	1	0	87
2	7	2	1	78	2	7	2	1	75
3	11	3	2	67	3	11	3	2	63
4	14	4	3	55	4	14	4	3	50
5	18	5	4	44	5	18	5	4	38
6	22	6	5	33	6	22	6	5	25
7	25	7	6	22	7	25	7	6	13
8	29	8	7	11	8	29	8	7	1
9	33	9	8	00	9	33	9	7	88
10	37	10	8	89	10	36	10	8	76
11	40	11	9	78	11	40	11	9	63
12	44	12	10	67	12	44	12	10	51
13	48	13	11	55	13	47	13	11	39
14	51	14	12	44	14	51	14	12	26
15	55	15	13	33	15	55	15	13	14
16	59	16	14	22	16	58	16	14	1
17	63	17	15	11	17	62	17	14	89
18	67	18	16	00	18	66	18	15	76
19	70	19	16	89	19	69	19	16	64
20	74	20	17	78	20	73	20	17	52
21	78	21	18	67	21	76	21	18	39
22	81	22	19	55	22	80	22	19	27
23	85	23	20	44	23	84	23	20	14
24	89	24	21	33	24	87	24	21	2

VALUE of Dollars in Sterling, reckoning the Dollar at 4s. 6d.

DOL.	L.	s.	DOL.	L.	s.	d.	DOL.	L.	s.	d.
100,000	= 22,500	—	700	= 157	10	—	10	= 2	5	—
50,000	11,250	—	600	135	—	—	9	2	0	6
20,000	4,500	—	500	112	10	—	8	1	16	—
10,000	2,250	—	400	90	—	—	7	1	11	6
5,000	1,125	—	300	67	10	—	6	1	7	—
4,000	900	—	200	45	—	—	5	1	2	6
3,000	675	—	100	22	10	—	4	—	18	—
2,000	450	—	50	11	5	—	3	—	13	6
1,000	225	—	40	9	—	—	2	—	9	—
900	202	10	30	6	15	—	1	—	4	6
800	180	—	20	4	10	—				

A TABLE of the Value of CENTS in Pence,* as computed at the Banks of the United States and North-America.

Pence.	Cents.	Pence.	Cents.	Pence.	Cents.	Pence.	Cents.
1	1	24	27	47	52	70	78
2	2	25	28	48	53	71	79
3	3	26	29	49	54	72	80
4	4	27	30	50	55	73	81
5	5	28	31	51	57	74	82
6	7	29	32	52	58	75	83
7	8	30	33	53	59	76	84
8	9	31	34	54	60	77	85
9	10	32	35	55	61	78	87
10	11	33	37	56	62	79	88
11	12	34	38	57	63	80	89
12	13	35	39	58	64	81	90
13	14	36	40	59	65	82	91
14	15	37	41	60	67	83	92
15	17	38	42	61	68	84	93
16	18	39	43	62	69	85	94
17	19	40	44	63	70	86	95
18	20	41	45	64	71	87	97
19	21	42	47	65	72	88	98
20	22	43	48	66	73	89	99
21	23	44	49	67	74	90	100
22	24	45	50	68	75		
23	25	46	51	69	77		

1-16 of a dollar,	6¼	cents.	1-2	do,	50	do.
1-8	do.	12½	do.	1-2 a piſtareen,	10	do.
1-4	do.	25	do.	1 piſtareen	20	do.

* That is, pence in currency, wherein one penny currency is equal to three-fifths of a penny ſterling.

A TABLE of the Value of Cents in Sterling Money.

		s.	*d.*	*far.*
1	Cent equal to	0	0	2,16
2		0	1	0,32
3		0	1	2,48
4		0	2	0,64
5		0	2	2,8
6		0	3	0,96
7		0	3	3,12
8		0	4	1,28
9		0	4	3,44
10		0	5	1,60
11		0	5	3,76
12		0	6	1,9
13		0	7	0,08
14		0	7	2,24
15		0	8	0,40
16		0	8	2,56
17		0	9	0,72
18		0	9	2,88
19		0	10	1,04
20		0	10	3,20
21		0	11	1,36
22		0	11	3,52
23		1	0	1,68
24		1	0	3,84
25		1	1	2,
26		1	2	0,16
27		1	2	2,32
28		1	3	0,48
29		1	3	2,64
30		1	4	0,8
31		1	4	2,96
32		1	5	1,12
33		1	5	3,28
34		1	6	1,44
35		1	6	3,6
36		1	7	1,76
37		1	7	3,92
38		1	8	2,08
39		1	9	0,24
40		1	9	2,40
41		1	10	0,56
42		1	10	2,72
43		1	11	0,88
44		1	11	3,04
45		2	0	1,20
46		2	0	3,36
47		2	1	1,52
48		2	1	3,68
49		2	2	1,84
50		2	3	0,

		s.	*d.*	*far.*
51	Cents equal to	2	3	2,16
52		2	4	0,32
53		2	4	2,48
54		2	5	0,64
55		2	5	2,80
56		2	6	0,96
57		2	6	3,12
58		2	7	1,28
59		2	7	3,44
60		2	8	1,60
61		2	8	3,76
62		2	9	1,92
63		2	10	0,08
64		2	10	2,24
65		2	11	0,40
66		2	11	2,56
67		3	0	0,72
68		3	0	2,88
69		3	1	1,04
70		3	1	3,20
71		3	2	1,36
72		3	2	3,52
73		3	3	1,68
74		3	3	3,84
75		3	4	2,
76		3	5	0,16
77		3	5	2,32
78		3	6	0,48
79		3	6	2,64
80		3	7	0,80
81		3	7	2,96
82		3	8	1,12
83		3	8	3,28
84		3	9	1,44
85		3	9	3,60
86		3	10	1,76
87		3	10	3,92
88		3	11	2,08
89		4	0	0,24
90		4	0	2,40
91		4	1	0,56
92		4	1	2,72
93		4	2	0,88
94		4	2	3,04
95		4	3	1,20
96		4	3	3,36
97		4	4	1,52
98		4	4	3,68
99		4	5	1,84
100		4	6	

POSTAGE OF LETTERS THROUGHOUT THE UNITED STATES.

For the poſtage of any ſingle letter to or from any place by land, not exceeding thirty miles, 6 cents; over thirty to ſixty, 8 cents; over ſixty to one hundred, 10 cents; over one hundred to one hundred and fifty, 12½ cents; over one hundred and fifty to two hundred, 15 cents; over two hundred to two hundred and fifty, 17 cents; over two hundred and fifty to three hundred and fifty, 20 cents; over three hundred and fifty to four hundred and fifty, 22 cents; and from every place more than four hundred and fifty miles, 25 cents.

DUTIES

Payable by Law on all Goods, Wares and Merchandize, imported into the United States of America, after the laſt day of March 1795. The inward column exhibiting the rates of duties payable on thoſe imported in ſhips or veſſels of the United States, and the outward column the rates payable on the ſame if imported in foreign ſhips or veſſels.

	If imported in Amer. veſſels.	For. veſſels.
Arms, fire and ſide, not otherwiſe enumerated, or parts thereof	15 per cent. ad val.	16½
Apparatus, philoſophical, ſpecially imported for any ſeminary of learning	free	free
Ale, beer and porter, in caſks or bottles	8 cents per gallon	8½
on value of the bottles	10 per cent. ad val.	11
Artificial flowers, feathers and other ornaments for women's head dreſſes	15 Ditto	16½
Aniſeed	15 Ditto	16½
Articles of all kinds of the growth, product or manufacture of the United States, ſpirits excepted	free	free
Anchors	10 per cent. ad val.	11
Braſs cannon, until the 22d day of May, 1785	free	free
——————after May 22, 1795	15 per cent. ad val.	16½
——————teutenague and wire	free	free
——iron or ſteel locks, hinges, hoes, anvils and viſes	10 per cent. ad val.	11
——all other manufactures of braſs,	15 Ditto	16½
Balls and balſams (ſee powders, paſtes, &c.)	15 Ditto	16½
Beer, ale and porter in caſks or bottles	8 cents per gallon	8½
on value of the bottles	10 per cent. ad val.	11
Bricks and tiles	15 Ditto	16½

	If imported in Amer. veſſels.		For. veſſels.
Boots	75	cents per pair	82½
Books blank	10	per cent. ad val.	11
Books of perſons who come to reſide in the United States	free		free
Buttons of every kind	15	per cent. ad val.	16½
Buckles, ſhoe and knee	15	Ditto	16½
Bruſhes	10	Ditto	11
Bullion	free		free
Burgundy wine	40	cents per gallon	44
Carriages, or parts of carriages	20	per cent. ad val.	22
Cards playing	25	cents per pack	27½
—— wool and cotton	50	cents per dozen	55
Cables and tarred cordage	180	cents per cwt.	198
Cabinet wares	15	per cent. ad val.	16½
Caps, hats and bonnets of every kind	15	Ditto	16½
Carpets and carpeting	15	Ditto	16½
Cartridge paper	15	Ditto	16½
Candles of tallow	2	cents per lb.	2⅕
——— of wax or ſpermaceti	6	Ditto	6⅗
Champaign wine	40	cents per gallon	44
Capers	15	per cent. ad val.	16½
Canes, walking ſticks and whips	10	Ditto	11
Cambricks	10	Ditto	11
Cheeſe	7	cents per pound	7 7/10
China ware	15	per cent. ad val.	16½
Cinnamon, cloves, currants & comfits	15	Ditto	16½
Chintzes and coloured calicoes, or muſlins, and all printed, ſtained, or coloured goods or manufactures of cotton, or of linen, or of both, or of which cotton or linen is the material of chief value	12½	Ditto	13¼
Cocoa	4	cents per pound	4⅖
Chocolate	3	Ditto	3 3/10
Clogs and golo ſhoes (ſee ſhoes)	15	cents per pair	16½
Cordage, tarred	180	cents per cwt.	198
———and yarn untarred	225	Ditto	247½
Coſmetics	15	per cent. ad val.	16½
Coal	5	cents per buſhel	5½
Colours (ſee painters)	15	per cent. ad val.	16½
Copper manufactures	15	Ditto	16½
——— in plates, pigs and bars	free		free
Compoſitions for the teeth or gums (ſee dentifrice)	15	per cent. ad val.	16½
Coffee	5	cents per pound	5½
Cotton	3	Ditto	3 3/10
Cotton or linen manufactures, or of both, or of which cotton or linen is			

	If imported in Amer. veſſels.		For. veſſels.
the material of chief value, being printed, ſtained or coloured	12½	per cent. ad val.	13¾
Cotton not printed, ſtained or coloured	10	Ditto	11
Clocks and watches, or parts of either	15	Ditto	16½
Coaches, chariots, phætons, chairs, chaiſes, ſolos, or other carriages, or parts of either	20	Ditto	22
Clothing ready made	10	Ditto	11
Cloths, books, houſhold furniture, and the tools or implements of the trade or profeſſion of perſons who come to reſide in the United States	free		free
Cutlaſſes, until the 22d day of May, 1795	free		free
——— or parts thereof, after the 22d day of May, 1795	15	per cent. ad val.	16½
Dates and figs	15	Ditto	16½
Dentifrice, powders, tinctures, preparations and compoſitions for the teeth or gums	15	Ditto	16½
Dolls, dreſſed and undreſſed, or parts thereof	15	Ditto	16½
Drugs, medicinal, except thoſe commonly uſed for dying	15	Ditto	16½
—— and woods for dying	free		free
Earthen and ſtone wares	15	Ditto	16½
Eſſences (ſee powders, paſtes, &c.)	15	Ditto	16½
Fans, or parts thereof	15	Ditto	16½
Fayal wine	20	cents per gallon	22
Fringes commonly uſed by upholſterers, coachmakers, and ſaddlers	15	Ditto	16½
Floor cloths and mats, or parts of either	15	Ditto	16½
Fruits of all kinds	15	Ditto	16½
Furs of every kind undreſſed	free		free
Glaſs, black quart bottles	10	Ditto	11
—— window glaſs	15	Ditto	16½
—— all other glaſs, and manufactures thereof	20	Ditto	22
Glauber ſalts	200	cents per cwt.	220
Gauzes	10	per cent. ad val.	11
Geneva (ſee ſpirits)			
Ginger	15	Ditto	16½
Girandoles, or parts thereof	20	Ditto	22
Gloves and mittens of every kind	15	Ditto	16½
Gold, ſilver and plated ware	15	Ditto	16½
Gold and ſilver lace	15	Ditto	16½
Goods, wares, and merchandize, imported directly from China, or India, in ſhips or veſſels not of the United			

	If imported in Amer. veſſels.		For. veſſels.
States, except teas, China ware, and all other articles liable to higher rates of duties	per cent. ad val.		12½
Goods, wares, and merchandize, intended to be re-exported to a foreign port or place in the ſame ſhip or veſſel in which they ſhall be imported, and all articles of the growth, product or manufacture of the United States, ſpirits excepted	free		free
Goods, wares, and merchandize, not herein otherwiſe particularly enumerated and deſcribed	10	per cent. ad val.	11
Glue	15	Ditto	16½
Gun powder until the 22d day of May, 1795	free		free
——— after the 22d day of May, 1795	10	Ditto	11
Hangers, or parts thereof	15	Ditto	16½
Hair powder	15	Ditto	16½
Hemp	100	cents per cwt.	110
Hides, raw	free		free
Houſhold furniture of perſons who come to reſide in the United States	free		free
Implements of the trade or profeſſion of perſons who come to reſide in the United States	free		free
Indigo	25	cents per pound	27½
Iron wire	free		free
—— ſteel or braſs locks, hinges, hoes, anvils, and viſes	10	per cent. ad val.	11
—— caſt, ſlit, or rolled, and all manufactures of iron, ſteel, or braſs, or of which either of theſe metals is the article of chief value, not being otherwiſe particularly enumerated	15	Ditto	16½
Jewellery and paſte work	15	Ditto	16½
Lace of gold and ſilver	15	Ditto	16½
Laces and lawns	10	Ditto	11
Laces, lines, fringes, taſſels and trimmings commonly uſed by upholſterers, coachmakers, and ſaddlers	15	Ditto	16½
Lampblack	10	Ditto	11
Lapis calaminaris	free		free
Leather, tanned and tawed, and all manufactures of leather, or of which leather is the article of chief value, not otherwiſe particularly enumerated	15	Ditto	16½

	If imported in Amer. veſſels.		For. veſſels.
Lead and muſket ball, until the 22d day of May 1795	free		free
—— after May 22d 1795	1	cent per pound	1 1/10
—— all other manufactures of lead, or in which lead is the chief article	1	Ditto	1 1/10
Lemons and limes	15	per cent. ad. val.	16 1/2
Linen or cotton manufactures, or of both, or of which cotton or linen is the material of chief value, printed, ſtained, or coloured	12 1/2	Ditto	13 1/4
—— not painted, ſtained, or coloured	10	Ditto	11
Liſbon and Oporto wines	25	cents per gallon	27 1/2
Looking-glaſſes	20	per cent. ad. val.	22
Manufactures of tin, pewter, and copper	15	Ditto	16 1/2
———— of iron, ſteel, or braſs, not otherwiſe particularly enumerated	15	Ditto	16 1/2
———— of leather not otherwiſe particularly enumerated	15	per cent. ad. val.	16 1/2
———— of lead not otherwiſe particularly enumerated	1	cent per pound	1 1/10
———— of cotton or linen, or of both, printed, ſtained or coloured	12 1/2	per cent. ad val.	13 1/4
———— of ditto, not printed, ſtained or coloured	10	Ditto	11
———— of glaſs (ſee glaſs)			
———— of tobacco (ſee ſnuff and tobacco)			
———— of wood (ſee cabinet wares and wood)			
———— of the United States, ſpirits excepted	free		free
Mats and floor cloths, or parts of either	15	per cent. ad val.	16 1/2
Malt	10	cents per buſhel	11
Marble, ſlate and other ſtone, bricks, tiles, tables, mortars and other utenſils of marble or ſlate, and generally all ſtone, and earthen ware	15	per cent. ad val.	16 1/2
Madeira wines (ſee wines)			
Malaga wine	20	cents per gallon	22
Mace	15	per cent. ad val.	16 1/2
Medicinal drugs, except thoſe commonly uſed in dying	15	Ditto	16 1/2
Merchandize, goods and wares, imported directly from China or			

	If imported in Amer. veſſels.		For. veſſels.
India, in ſhips or veſſels not of the United States, except teas, China ware, and all other articles liable to higher rates of duties		per cent. ad val.	12½
Merchandize, goods and wares, intended to be re-exported to a foreign port or place in the ſame ſhip or veſſel in which they ſhall be imported—and all articles of the growth, product or munufacture of the United States, ſpirits excepted	free		free
Merchandize, goods and wares not herein otherwiſe particularly enumerated and deſcribed	10	per cent. ad val.	11
Mittens, and gloves of every kind	15	Ditto	16½
Millenary ready made	15	Ditto	16½
Molaſſes	3	cents per gallon	3 3/10
Muſkets and firelocks with bayonets ſuited to the ſame, and muſket-ball, until the 22d day of May 1795.	free		free
——or parts of either after the 22d day of May 1795	15	per cent. ad val.	16½
Muſkets and firelocks without bayonets or parts of either	15	Ditto	16½
Muſtard in flour	15	Ditto	16½
Muſlins and muſlinets printed, ſtained or coloured	12½	Ditto	13¾
——not printed, ſtained or coloured	10	Ditto	11
Nails	2	cents per pound	2⅕
Nankeens	12	per cent. ad val.	13¾
Nutmegs	15	Ditto	16½
Oranges	15	Ditto	16½
Ointments, oils and odors (ſee powders, paſtes, &c.	15	Ditto	16½
Olives	15	Ditto	16½
Oil - - -	15	Ditto	16½
Oporto and Liſbon wine	15	cents per gallon	27½
Paper hangings	15	per cent. ad val.	16½
—— writing and wrapping	10	Ditto	11
—— ſheathing and cartridge	15	Ditto	16½
Painters colours, whether dry or ground in oil, except thoſe commonly uſed in dying	15	Ditto	16½
Pack thread and twine	400	cents per cwt.	440
Paſte boards, parchment or vellum	10	per cent. ad. val.	11

	If imported in Amer. veſſels.		For. veſſels.
Phætons, or parts thereof	20	per cent. ad val.	22
Plaiſter of Paris	free		free
Pewter manufactures	15	Ditto	16½
——— old	free		free
Pepper	6	cents per pound	6⅗
Perfumes	15	per cent. ad val.	16½
Piſtols until the 22d day of May 1795	free		free
——— or parts thereof after the 22d day of May 1795	15	per cent. ad val.	16½
Pictures and Prints	10	Ditto	11
Pimento	4	cents per pound	4⅖
Printing types	10	per cent. ad val.	11
Pickles of all ſorts	15	Ditto	16½
Printed, ſtained, or coloured goods or manufactures of cotton, or of linen, or of both	12½	Ditto	13¾
Philoſophical apparatus, ſpecially imported for any ſeminary of learning	free		free
Porter, beer and ale in caſks, or bottles	8	cents per gallon	8⅘
—— on value of the bottles	10	per cent. ad val.	11
Powder, gun until the 22d day of May 1795	free		free
——— after the 22d day of May 1795	10	per cent. ad. val	11
Powders, paſtes, balls, balſams, ointments, oils, waters, waſhes, tinctures, eſſences or other preparations or compoſitions commonly called ſweet ſcents, odors, perfumes or coſmeticks—and all powders or preparations for the teeth or gums	15	Ditto	16½
Plumbs and prunes	15	Ditto	16½
Raiſins	15	Ditto	16½
Raw hides and ſkins	free		free
Rum (ſee ſpirits)			
Salt weighing more than fifty ſix pounds per buſhel	12	cents per 56 *lb.*	13⅕
—— weighing fifty-ſix pounds per buſhel or leſs	12	cents per buſhel	13⅕
Stained, printed, or coloured goods or manufactures of cotton, or of linen, or of both	12½	per cent. ad val.	13¾
Salt petre	free		free
Saint Lucar wines	30	cents per gallon	33
Starch	13	per cent. ad val.	16½
Slate, ſtone, and ſtone ware	15	Ditto	16½

	If imported in Amer. veſſels.		For. veſſels.
Sail cloth	10	per cent. ad val.	11
Saddles, or parts thereof	10	Ditto	11
Sattins and other wrought ſilks	10	Ditto	11
Steel	100	cents per cwt.	110
Steel, iron or braſs locks, hinges, hoes, anvils and viſes	10	per cent. ad val.	11
——— all other manufactures of ſteel	15	Ditto	16½
Sheathing and cartridge paper	15	Ditto	16½
Sherry wine	33	cents per gallon	36 3/10
Sea ſtores of ſhips or veſſels	free		free
Spermaceti candles	6	cents per pound	6⅕
Sweet ſcents (ſee powders, paſtes, &c.)	15	per cent. ad val.	16½
Spirits diſtilled in foreign countries, viz.			
From Grain—			
Firſt proof	28	cents per gallon	30⅘
Second proof	29	Ditto	31 9/10
Third do.	31	Ditto	34 1/10
Fourth do.	34	Ditto	37⅖
Fifth do.	40	Ditto	44
Sixth do.	50	Ditto	55
From other Materials.			
Firſt proof	25	cents per gallon	27½
Second do.	25	Ditto	27½
Third do.	28	Ditto	30⅘
Fourth do.	32	Ditto	35⅕
Fifth do.	38	Ditto	41⅘
Sixth do.	46	Ditto	50⅗
Spirits diſtilled in the United States, imported in the ſame Ship or veſſel in which they had been previouſly exported from the United States, viz.			
From molaſſes.			
Firſt proof	13	Ditto	13
Second do.	14	Ditto	14
Third do.	15	Ditto	15
Fourth do.	17	Ditto	17
Fifth do.	21	Ditto	21
Sixth do.	28	Ditto	28
From materials of the growth and produce of the United States.			
Firſt proof	7	Ditto	7
Second do.	8	Ditto	8
Third do.	9	Ditto	9
Fourth do.	11	Ditto	11
Fifth do.	13	Ditto	13
Sixth do.	18	Ditto	18

	If imported in Amer. veſſels.		For. veſſels.
Spikes	1	cent per pound	1 1/10
Silver and plated ware	15	per cent. ad val.	16 1/2
——— lace	15	Ditto	16 1/2
Shoes and ſlippers of ſilk	25	cents per pair	27 1/2
——— other ſhoes and ſlippers for men and women, clogs and golo-ſhoes	15	Ditto	16 1/2
——— other ſhoes and ſlippers for children	10	Ditto	11
Swords and cutlaſſes until the 22d day of May 1795	free		free
Swords, cutlaſſes, or parts of either, after the 22d day of May, 1795	15	per cent. ad val.	16 1/2
Stockings	15	Ditto	16 1/2
Stone and earthen ware	15	Ditto	16 1/2
Soap	2	cents per pound	2 1/5
Solos and other carriages, or parts thereof	20	per cent. ad val.	22
Sulpher	free		free
Sugars, brown	1 1/2	cent per pound	1 13/20
——— white clayed	3	Ditto	3 3/10
——— ditto powdered	3	Ditto	3 3/10
——— all other clayed or powdered	1 1/2	Ditto	1 13/20
——— lump	6 1/2	Ditto	7 3/20
——— loaf	9	Ditto	9 9/10
——— other refined	6 1/2	Ditto	7 3/20
Sugar candy	10	per cent. ad val.	11
Snuff	22	cents per pound	24 5/8
Tables of marble, ſlate, and other ſtone, or parts thereof	15	per cent. ad val.	16 1/2
Teas from China and India.			
—— bohea	10	Ditto	15
—— ſouchong and other black teas	18	Ditto	27
—— hyſon, imperial, gunpowder, or gomee	32	Ditto	50
—— other green teas	20	Ditto	30
From Europe.			
—— bohea	12	Ditto	15
—— ſouchong and other black teas	18	Ditto	27
—— hyſon, imperial, gunpowder, or gomee	40	Ditto	50
—— other green teas	24	Ditto	30
From any other Place.			
—— bohea	15	Ditto	16 1/2
—— ſouchong and other black teas	27	Ditto	29 7/10
—— hyſon, imperial, gunpowder, or gomee	50	Ditto	55
—— other green teas	30	Ditto	33
Teneriffe wine	20	cents per gallon	22

	If imported in Amer. veſſels.		For. veſſels.
Tin manufactures	15	per cent. ad val.	16½
—- in pigs and plates	free		free
Tinctures (ſee powders, paſtes, &c.)	15	per cent. ad val.	16½
Toys, not otherwiſe enumerated	10	Ditto	11
Tobacco manufactured (other than ſnuff)	10	cents per pound	11
Velvets and velverets	10	per cent. ad val.	11
Wafers	15	Ditto	16½
Waters and waſhes (ſee powders, paſtes, &c.)	15	Ditto	16½
Wines, in caſks, bottles, or other veſſels.			
London particular Madeira	56	cents per gallon	61⅗
London market do.	49	Ditto	53 9/10
other do.	40	Ditto	44
Burgundy and Champaign	40	Ditto	44
Sherry	33	Ditto	36 3/10
St. Lucar	30	Ditto	33
Liſbon and Oporto	25	Ditto	27½
Teneriffe, Fayal and Malaga	20	Ditto	22
All other wines not to exceed thirty cents per gallon in American veſſels, or thirty-three cents per gallon in foreign veſſels; nor be leſs than ten cents per gallon in American veſſels, or eleven cents per gallon in foreign veſſels	40	per cent. ad val.	44
On value of the bottles	10	Ditto	11
Wool unmanufactured	free		free
Wood unmanufactured	free		free
Wood manufactured (excluſive of cabinet wares)	12½	per cent. ad val.	13¾
All other goods not before particularly enumerated and deſcribed	10	Ditto	11

After the 31ſt day of December 1794, no refined loaf or lump ſugar ſhall be imported into the United States from any foreign port or place, except in ſhips or veſſels of the burthen of one hundred and twenty tons and upwards, and in caſks or packages containing each not leſs than ſix hundred pounds, on pain of forfeiting the ſaid ſhips or veſſels, and the loaf and lump ſugar imported therein, except in ſuch caſks or packages as aforeſaid.

TONNAGE.

By act of July 20, 1790, to be paid in TEN DAYS after entry and before clearance.

	Cents per ton.
On veſſels of the United States from foreign ports	6
On veſſels built in the United States, after the 20th of July, 1789, but owned in part or wholly by foreigners—duly recorded,	30
All other veſſels,	50
Every veſſel employed in tranſporting goods coaſtways, except ſuch veſſels be built in, and belong to citizens, on each entry,	50
Veſſels built in, and belonging to citizens of the United States in coaſting trade, or fiſhery, pay once a year, if licenſed,	6
If not licenſed, pay with goods taken in one ſtate, to be delivered in another, except the adjoining ſtate, on each entry,	6

DUTIES PAYABLE IN

		Dols.	Cts.
Gold coins of Great Britain and Portugal, of their preſent ſtandard, - -	every 27 grains	1	
Gold coins of France, Spain, and the dominions of Spain, - - -	$27\frac{2}{5}$ grains	1	
Spaniſh milled dollars, - -	17 dwt. 7 grs.	1	
Crowns of France - -	18 dwt. 17 grs.	1	10

BOUNTY.

On every barrel of pickled fiſh exported, of the fiſheries of the United States, 18 cents.

On every barrel of ſalted proviſions exported, ſalted within the United States, 15 cents.

And from and after the firſt day of January, 1793, an addition of twenty per centum to the allowances reſpectively granted to the ſhips or veſſels employed in the bank or other cod fiſheries.

FEES.

To Collector and Naval Officer.

	Dols.	Cts.
Entry of a veſſel of 100 tons or upwards, -	2	50
Clearance do. do. do. - -	2	50

	Dols.	Cts.
Entry of a veſſel under 100 tons, - - -	1	50
Clearance do. do. do. - - -	1	50
Permit to land goods, - - -		20
Every bond taken officially, - - -		40
Permit to load goods, for exportation, for drawback,		30
Every other official document (regiſter excepted)		20

Fees to Surveyor.

For meaſurement of a veſſel of 100 tons and under, per ton		1
For do. 100 to 200 tons -		150
For do. above 200 do. - -		200
On each veſſel of 100 tons and upwards, with goods ſubject to duty, - - -	3	
On each veſſel under 100 tons, with do. -	1	50
All veſſels not having goods ſubject to duty, -		66⅔

No veſſel not wholly belonging to a Citizen or Citizens of the United States, ſhall be admitted to unload at any port or place, except the following, to wit.

NEW-HAMPSHIRE—*Portſmouth.*—MASSACHUSETTS—*Portland, Falmouth, New-Bedford,* Dighton, *Salem, Beverly, Glouceſter, Newbury-Port,* Marblehead, Sherburn, *Boſton* and *Charleſtown, Bath, Frenchman's-Bay,* Plymouth, Wiſcaſſet, Machias, Penobſcot.——RHODE-ISLAND—*Newport* and *Providence.*——CONNECTICUT—*New-London, New-Haven.*——NEW-YORK—*New-York.*——NEW-JERSEY—*Perth Amboy,* Burlington.——PENNSYLVANIA—*Philadelphia.*——DELAWARE—*Wilmington,* Newcaſtle, Port-Penn.——MARYLAND—*Baltimore, Annapolis,* Vienna, Oxford, *George-Town* on *Patowmac,* Cheſter-Town, *Nottingham, Cedar-Point,* Town-Creek, Nanjemoy, Digges Landing, Snow-Hill, Carrolſburgh.——VIRGINIA—*Alexandria,* Kinſale, New-Port, Tappahannock, Port-Royal, Frederickſburg, Urbanna, York-Town, Weſt-Point, Hampton, Bermuda Hundred, City-Point, Rocket's Landing, *Norfolk, Portſmouth.*——NORTH-CAROLINA—*Wilmington, Newbern, Waſhington, Edenton,* and *Plankbridge.*——SOUTH-CAROLINA—*Charleſton, George-Town, Beaufort.*——GEORGIA—*Savannah, Sunbury,* Brunſwick, St. Mary, and *Frederica.*

Nor ſhall any veſſel from the Cape of Good Hope, or beyond the ſame, be admitted to enter, except at the ports in the above liſt, which are diſtinguiſhed by *Italics.*

AMOUNT OF EXPORTS.

For the year ending 30th of September, 1792.	Dollars.	For the year ending 30th of September, 1793.	Dollars.
New-Hampſhire	181,407	———	198,197
Maſſachuſetts	2,889,922	———	3,676,413
Rhode-Iſland	698,084	———	616,416
Connecticut		———	770,239
New-York	2,528,085	———	2,934,369
New-Jerſey	23,524	———	54,176
Pennſylvania	3,820,646*	———	6,958,736
Delaware	133,978	———	71,242
Maryland	2,550,258	———	3,687,119
Virginia	3,549,499	———	2,984,317
North-Carolina	503,294	———	363,307
South-Carolina	2,430,425	———	3,195,874
Georgia	458,973	———	501,383
	†		26,011,787

The exports of the year ending the 30th of September, 1793, went to the reſpective countries undermentioned:

Ruſſia	5,769	Italian Ports	220,688
Sweden	310,427	Morocco	2,094
Denmark	870,508	Eaſt-Indies	253,131
Holland	3,169,536	Africa	251,343
Great-Britain	8,431,239	Weſt-Indies	399,559
Imperial Ports	1,013,347	N. W. Coaſt of Amer.	1,586
Hans-Towns	792,537	Uncertain	3,986
France	7,050,498		26,011,787
Spain	2,237,950		
Portugal	997,590		

* The exports of Pennſylvania, for the quarter ending the 31ſt of December, 1792, were one million ſeven hundred and forty thouſand ſix hundred and eighty-nine dollars.

† Not having obtained correctly the exports of Connecticut for this year, we have not caſt up the total amount.

RENT, PRICES OF LAND, PROVISIONS, &c.

On this article, with reſpect to the New-England States, we are not enabled to add much additional information. In the country parts, proviſions of all kinds, the produce of America, are very cheap, in many inſtances, much below half the price in the country parts of England, but the general average is from one third to one half leſs.

Fiſh is plenty and cheap beyond any compariſon with the moſt favourable European markets; the ſea around their coaſts, and the inland rivers, furniſhing an inexhauſtible ſupply. Game of various kinds is alſo exceedingly plenty. Some addition muſt be made to the prices of moſt articles in the large towns, owing to the number of Europeans which the preſent diſtreſſing ſituation of affairs in their own countries have driven thither.

With reſpect to the Middle States, we are enabled to adduce more particular information. The journeys of the Rev. Mr. Toulmin and Mr. Cooper have afforded information ſufficient to enable us to form a tolerable correct idea of the price of moſt articles in thoſe parts of the Union; the places where the prices are taken being ſo ſituated as in the general to afford a medium average.

VIRGINIA.

URBANNA, upon the Rappahannock in the county of Middleſex.*—Soil, white, looſe, ſandy.—Price, about one third cleared,† fifteen ſhillings‡ per acre of ſixty-nine and two-thirds yard ſquare.—The rent of corn land, about one ſhilling and ſix-pence per acre.—The labour here, as in moſt parts of Virginia, is by ſlaves only, either purchaſed or rented. They are hired at from ſix to nine pounds a year, the maſter finding proviſions and cloathing, and paying the tax. The uſual allowance to a ſlave is a peck and half of the meal of Indian corn per week; ſometimes pickled and ſalted herrings or mackarel.—The cloathing is very trifling.

The produce of land here is tobacco, wheat, and corn.§—

* URBANNA has all the appearance of a deſerted village.

† By cleared is meant, the ſmall trees and ſhrubs grubbed up, and the larger trees cut down about two feet from the ground, the ſtumps remaining.

‡ All the ſums are reckoned in ſterling, except otherwiſe mentioned.

§ By corn is meant excluſively Indian corn or maize. Ble de Turquie.

The market is by water direct from Urbanna to Europe.—Corn alſo, maize, to New-England, Nova-Scotia and to the Weſt-Indies; the price on an average, wheat four ſhillings and ſix-pence per buſhel, and corn thirteen ſhillings and ſix-pence per barrel of five buſhels.

RICHMOND, and the neighbourhood.—Soil; ſandy, except on the banks of James river where it is rich. The price of land from four to ſix guineas per acre; but land by the whole tract, including buildings, cleared and uncleared land together, ſeldom exceeds, at ten miles diſtance from the town, twenty to forty-five ſhillings per acre. It is reckoned in this, and many parts of this State, an advantage to have a great part of it in wood, becauſe the culture of tobacco, which has been common, but is now rapidly giving way to wheat, has exhauſted the land ſo much, that it is uſed out, and is generally reckoned at nothing in the purchaſe. Labour here is from one ſhilling and ſix-pence to two ſhillings a day, with proviſions. In harveſt, from two ſhillings and ſix-pence to three ſhillings and ſix-pence a day. All ſlave labour.—Indian corn ſells here from one ſhilling and ſix-pence to one ſhilling and ten-pence halfpenny per Winchester buſhel; wheat, three ſhillings and four-pence to three ſhillings and nine-pence; barley, two ſhillings and ſeven-pence to three ſhillings; oats, eleven-pence to one ſhilling and four-pence; rice, from twelve to thirteen ſhillings and ſix-pence per hundred pounds; potatoes, one ſhilling and ſix-pence to two ſhillings and three-pence per buſhel; flour, from wheat, per barrel of one hundred and ninety-ſix pounds net, nineteen ſhillings and ſix-pence to twenty-two ſhillings and ſix-pence; hops, one ſhilling and one penny per pound; coffee, nine-pence to eleven-pence, if bought by the cwt, retail, one ſhilling and a penny; tea, bohea, retail, two ſhillings and three-pence; ſouchong, four ſhillings and ſix-pence; hyſon, ſeven ſhillings and ſix-pence per lb.; by the cheſt, bohea, one ſhilling and ſix-pence to one ſhilling and ten-pence; hyſon, four ſhillings and ſix-pence to five ſhillings and three-pence per lb, chocolate, ſeven-pence to nine-pence per lb. by the box of fifty pounds weight; butter, by the caſk of ſixty pounds, five-pence to ſeven-pence per lb. cheeſe, four-pence to ſix-pence; ſugar, brown, by the hogſhead, thirty-ſeven pounds ten ſhillings to ſixty pounds. Formerly it was thirty pounds to thirty-ſeven pounds ten ſhillings; retail, ſix-pence to eight-pence per pound: loaf, eleven-pence to one ſhilling and three-pence: treacle, one ſhilling and ſix-pence to two ſhillings and

three-pence per gallon by the hogſhead. American rum by the hogſhead, two ſhillings and ſeven-pence to three ſhillings per gallon; Weſt-India, three ſhillings and nine-pence to four ſhillings and ſix-pence; French brandy, four ſhillings and ſix-pence to five ſhillings and ſeven-pence; Virginia peach brandy, three ſhillings; apple brandy, two ſhillings and ſeven pence to three ſhillings; whiſkey, three ſhillings; gin per gallon, three ſhillings and four pence; gin in caſes of four and a half gallons, brought from Holland, twenty ſhillings to twenty-two ſhillings and ſix-pence; Teneriffe wine, three ſhillings per gallon by the pipe; Liſbon, ſix pounds fifteen ſhillings to ſeven pounds ten ſhillings; Malaga, five pounds five ſhillings to ſix pounds fifteen ſhillings per caſe, of thirty gallons; Madeira, forty-five to fifty guineas per pipe; London porter, nine ſhillings and nine-pence to ten ſhillings and ſix-pence per dozen, bottles included. Beer is not uſed; cider, by the caſk or hogſhead, three-pence to five-pence halfpenny per gallon. Graſs fed beef, three-halfpence to two-pence farthing per lb. ſtall or winter fed, two-pence farthing to three-pence; veal, four-pence halfpenny to five-pence; mutton, three half-pence farthing to three-pence; lamb, four-pence half-penny to five-pence; pork, of excellent quality, eleven ſhillings and three-pence to ſeventeen ſhillings per hundred weight, by the hog; bacon and hams, three-pence to five-pence per lb.; turkeys, one ſhilling and ſix-pence to three ſhillings and four-pence each; ſalt, one ſhilling and ſix-pence to one ſhilling and ten-pence per buſhel; ſoap, by the box, three-pence three farthings to four-pence halfpenny per lb.; candles, by the box, ſix pence halfpenny to nine-pence halfpenny per lb.; fire wood, ſeven ſhillings and nine-pence to nine ſhillings a cord, that is a load, eight feet long, four feet high, and four feet broad; coals, ſeven-pence three farthings per buſhel; hats, country made wool hats, one ſhilling and ten-pence to four ſhillings and ſix-pence; fur hats fifteen ſhillings to twenty-ſeven ſhillings; ſhoes, three ſhillings and nine-pence to ſeven ſhillings and ſix-pence a pair; boots, fifteen ſhillings to thirty-ſix ſhillings; wages of houſehold male ſervants, negroes, ſix pounds to nine pounds a year; white men, labourers, thirteen pounds to eighteen pounds a year; female ſervants, chiefly negroes, four pounds ten ſhillings to ſix pounds a year. Theſe are to be had either by purchaſe or by hire from their maſters; few are free; price of a cow, one pound ſeventeen ſhillings and ſix-pence to three pounds fifteen ſhillings; horſes fit for the waggon or plow, ſeven pounds ten ſhillings

to fifteen pounds; working oxen, nine pounds a pair; ſheep, four ſhillings and ſix-pence to twelve ſhillings each; waggons with geer complete for four horſes, that will carry a ton and an half, twelve to eighteen pounds; cart for two horſes, ſeven to eight pounds.

PUBLISHED RATES AT THE EAGLE TAVERN, RICHMOND, IN VIRGINIA.

Breakfaſt, one ſhilling and ſix-pence; dinner with grog or toddy, two ſhillings and three-pence; cold ſupper, one ſhilling and ſix-pence; a bottle of porter, one ſhilling and ten-pence halfpenny; a quart of punch the ſame; a quart of toddy, one ſhilling and a penny halfpenny; a quart of grog, eleven-pence farthing; a bed room furniſhed, if above ſtairs, thirteen-pence halfpenny, or quarter dollar;* horſes kept at livery, two ſhillings and three-pence per twenty-four hours; ſervants, two ſhillings and three-pence per day.

WINCHESTER†---Fiſh ſalted; ſhad, one pound two ſhillings and ſix-pence; herrings, eighteen ſhillings; ſalmon, two pounds five ſhillings per barrel, of two hundred pounds weight each; oyſters, when in ſeaſon, two ſhillings and three-pence per buſhel; fruits; apples in autumn, nine-pence per buſhel; at Chriſtmas, one ſhilling to one ſhilling and ſix-pence; peaches, from one ſhilling and ſix-pence to three ſhillings per buſhel; currants, two ſhillings and three-pence per buſhel, but few raiſed for ſale; wild fowl and pigeons, few for ſale; pheaſants, four-pence half-penny each; partridges, nine-pence to one ſhilling a dozen. Cloathing at Wincheſter about two-thirds dearer than in London. Oak caſks of thirty gallons, three ſhillings and nine-pence; tierces, five ſhillings and ſix-pence; barrels, ſix ſhillings and nine-pence. Building materials; logs trimmed on both ſides, and delivered at the place of building, ſomething more than one penny per foot; ſcantlings, three farthings per foot, meaſured ſide and ſide at the ſaw-mill; flooring planks, one inch and a quarter, five ſhillings and ſeven-pence per one hundred feet; one inch, four ſhillings and ſix-pence per one hundred; half inch, three ſhillings per one hundred; laths, on

* Theſe prices are higher than in the northern States; the tables are alſo plentifully ſupplied. In the article of breakfaſt, all over the American continent, are included, ham, eggs, ſteaks, chops, &c. ſome or all of them. You are not obliged to drink after dinner. You have nothing to give the ſervants or waiters. In the article of ſupper, tea and coffee are uſually included as accompaniments.

† This liſt contains, in general, articles not mentioned in the preceding liſt.

which the covering is nailed, about ten ſhillings per hundred feet, running meaſure;—cypreſs ſhingles, from ten ſhillings and two-pence to thirteen ſhillings and ſix-pence per thouſand, delivered at the place of building; each ſhingle covering four by ſix inches;—oak ſhingles, one pound one ſhilling per one thouſand, covering ten by four inches;—cheſnut ſhingles, twelve ſhillings per thouſand, covering ſix by four inches;—lime, four-pence half-penny per buſhel; bricks delivered, eighteen ſhillings per thouſand; window glaſs, ten inches by eight, two pounds nineteen ſhillings a box, containing one hundred feet.

WAGES; one ſhilling and three-pence, to one ſhilling and ſix-pence per perch, when the work is complete; when found with proviſions. Plaiſterers, three-pence per each ſquare yard, when found; glaziers, three-farthings per light, when found; paper hanging, American, two ſhillings and three-pence to nine ſhillings per piece, of twelve yards each; lodging and board in town, eleven pounds to twenty-two pounds; in the country, nine pounds to fifteen pounds per annum.

NORFOLK.—The country about here is very barren; animal food dear; vegetables cheap. Houſes of wood are cheaply built: a houſe of two ſtories, ſix yards by four, will coſt about fifty pounds ſterling. Horſes cheap to purchaſe, but dear to hire; the hire of a horſe being a dollar a day: they go unſhod during ſummer. Board and lodging for adults, in a plain but plentiful way, four or five dollars a week; for children, two dollars; ſervants, three dollars. Board and lodging per annum, thirty-three pounds fifteen ſhillings. The great influx of French emigrants from the iſlands having conſiderably increaſed the price.

Peaches, one penny and two-pence per dozen; apples, ſix-pence a peck; cucumbers, two-pence a dozen; cyder, two-pence half-penny a quart; milk, ſix-pence a quart, owing to careleſsneſs and bad farming;* bacon, ſix-pence a pound. Norfolk is about as large as Taunton in Devonſhire, or Wigan in Lancaſhire. Moſt of the houſes of wood; ſome of brick. A neat houſe, thirty feet by twenty-nine, two ſtories high, with a kitchen on one ſide, and a ſmoaking room, for bacon, hams, &c. in the yard, will coſt complete, one hundred and fifty pounds.† Dreſs of the people much the ſame as in England; ſlaves all barefooted.

* The cows range at pleaſure in the woods; no attention is paid to their calving; they are not often milked above once a day.

† Houſes are generally covered with wooden ſhingles, oak or cypreſs, plaiſtered within, and glazed in ſaſhes.

FREDERICK AND BERKELEY COUNTIES.—Soil. The beſt part of the country lies between the waters of the Opekan creek, and the Shenandoah: it is the richeſt lime-ſtone land on the caſtern waters of this State: it is of a dark grey, and ſuppoſed to be much about the ſame quality as the third-rate land in Kentucky. The price of land is from fifteen ſhillings to four pounds an acre, but ſeldom ſo low as fifteen ſhillings in the beſt part of theſe counties, *i. e.* one-half or two-thirds cleared. A good plot of land of two hundred acres, with a houſe, orchard, barn, meadow and ſpring, may be rented at forty-five pounds a year.

Labour from five to ſeven dollars per month, of twenty-ſix working days, with board: white ſervants are very ſcarce on the eaſtern ſide of the valley.—The produce of land, wheat and corn.—Price of flour here is one guinea per barrel: the price has uſually been three ſhillings, and this year even ſix ſhillings and ſeven ſhillings and ſix-pence per barrel of one hundred and ninety-ſix pounds net, more at Philadelphia than at Baltimore; owing to the greater number of ſhips coming to the former port.†—The market; Alexandria, carried in waggons for ſeven ſhillings and ſix-pence per barrel of flour weighing one hundred

† When the federal city is fully eſtabliſhed, which is nearly certain, larger capitals, &c. will probably be employed on the Potomack, and proviſions and lands riſe in the neighbourhood; but the difficulty of procuring labourers, and the objections to ſlave labour, will ſtill remain.

The opening of the Potomack by the canal, round the falls, will alſo render it an object of importance to capitaliſts to embark in commerce at Alexandria or George-town. At preſent, many boats come down from fort Cumberland to the Great falls, about ten miles above George-town. Six weeks work, it is computed, will complete the navigation to the mouth of Savage river, the boundary of the propoſed plan weſtward; and the canal at the Great falls is expected to be finiſhed in eighteen months.

Whether the Shenandoah will be rendered navigable is a much more queſtionable point. The Potomack company have the excluſive right of undertaking the work, and they have as yet ſhewn no ſerious intention of attempting it. The obſtructions at the mouth of the river are conſiderable.

The mouth of Savage river is about forty miles from the Monongahela. Boats capable of carrying ten tons weight, or one hundred hogſheads of flour, will be able to go from thence to Alexandria in four or five days; but it will take more than double the time to return. It is now common for perſons who ſend their produce about ſixty miles, to pay a quarter dollar (one ſhilling and three half-pence) per hundred pounds.

and ninety-six pounds, and the barrel seventeen pounds, the distance of eighty miles.

Prices of land in particular places:—Near Charleston, within eight miles of the Potomack, the best land three pounds fifteen shillings per acre.—Within a mile of the junction, and upon the Shenandoah, it may be had for two pounds five shillings and three pounds per acre, as the land is broken and stony, though fit for wheat.—At Shippand's-town, on the south side of the Potomack, it is from two pounds five shillings to three pounds fifteen shillings per acre, but it is not equal to that in the valley; it is, however, nearer to the market.*

MARYLAND.

The neighbourhood of Haggar's town on the Antietum creek.—Soil; a dark-coloured loam similar to that on the south side of the Potomack. Price of land from sixteen to twenty-four dollars, *i. e.* from three pounds twelve shillings to five pounds eight shillings per acre, one half cleared: within eight or ten miles.—Husbandmen scarce. Wages one shilling and six-pence and provisions per day, or five to six dollars, *i. e.* twenty-two shillings and six-pence to twenty-seven shillings per month.—The market is Baltimore; where wheat fetches about seven-pence a bushel more than at Alexandria. The price of taking flour to Baltimore, seventy-five miles, five shillings and three-pence per barrel. It may be sent to Alexandria, eighty miles for a dollar, one-third of which is for the land carriage to William-port, eight miles, at the mouth of the Conegocheague creek: but for want of a warehouse at the Great Falls, this mode of conveyance is less useful at present than it would otherwise be. Ten miles north-west of Haggar's-town, and upon a part of the Conegocheague creek, to which the navigation may be easily extended. Land, one-half cleared, and the rest in wood, will fetch six pounds per acre. This creek has been used already, during a week or two in the spring,

PENNSYLVANIA.

SHIPPENSBURGH, twenty-one miles south of Carlisle.

Soil. A good loam, though not equal probably to that last noticed.—Price of land two pounds to three pounds ten shil-

* A waggon will go in four days to and from Alexandria. Estates here are small and are generally cultivated without slaves.

lings per acre.—Labour, five to ſix dollars a month.—Market, Baltimore, diſtance eighty miles.

Carlisle, and its vicinity—Soil; a loam, as in the other parts of the valley. A ſtratum of ſlate runs through all the valley, and is found on one ſide of the Opekan creek, in Virginia; the Conegocheague creek, in Maryland, and Pennſylvania, and the Conedogwinit creek, in Pennſylvania, where the ſoil is much inferior to the lime-ſtone ſoil. The price of land upon the lime-ſtone ſide of the Conedogwinit, Pennſylvania, is from three pounds ſix ſhillings to four pounds ten ſhillings per acre; being in a proportion of meadow and upland. Lands in general about three miles round Carliſle, though not upon the creeks, ſell from three pounds to three pounds twelve ſhillings, and four pounds ten ſhillings per acre, according to its quality, ſuppoſing about one-third cleared. Land at a greater diſtance, and within ſeven or eight miles, at from two to three pounds, except the low rich meadows. Lands nearer the Suſquehannah, being richer and nearer market, ſell from five to eight pounds, and within a mile of Harriſburgh, twelve pounds an acre. Land, with indifferent improvements, near Middletown, the head of the propoſed junction between the Suſquehannah and the Schuylkill, ſell from three to four pounds.

Produce---Principally wheat.

Market---Philadelphia.

Expenſe of carriage, by land as yet, ſix ſhillings per barrel from Harriſburgh.*

Near Lancaster.---Soil; a durable clay, not liable to be much injured either by the wet in winter, or the ſun in ſummer. The moſt indifferent land here, with ſcarcely any improvement, ſells at from ſix to eight pounds an acre, and often from twelve to eighteen pounds.† Labour is from eight dollars to ten a month, and board. Market---Philadelphia.

* The people of Carliſle have the character of being unſociable, and jealous of new-comers, and always careful that they ſhall not have too much influence in public affairs.

Harriſburgh and Middletown are delightfully, and with reſpect to trade, eligibly ſituated on the banks of the Suſquehannah, but are ſubject to intermitting complaints.

† At Carliſle and Lancaſter, and throughout the Pennſylvania part of the Shenandoah valley, the Dutch ſettlers are numerous; their unremitting induſtry and attachment to place always makes land comparatively dear in their neighbourhood.

READING, and its neighbourhood, fifty-ſix miles from Philadelphia.---Land at this place ſells, in an improved ſtate, with houſe, out-houſes, &c. at from eight to ten pounds currency per acre, or ſix to ſeven pounds ten ſhillings ſterling.

SUNBURY AND NORTHUMBERLAND, on the Suſquehannah.---The houſes here are partly built of logs, and partly of frame-work, one or two ſtories high, ſaſhed and glazed, ſome of them painted on the outſide, all of them neat without, and clean within; comfortable and commodious.

The price of building a log-houſe here, of four rooms on a floor, each about twelve feet ſquare, one ſtory high, finiſhed within ſide with plain wainſcotting, pannel doors, lock and thumb latches, glazed windows, &c. complete; about one hundred and ninety pounds ſterling. The log-houſes, of ſound ſo uncouth to an Engliſh ear, are as comfortable, as clean, and as convenient, as any brick or ſtone houſe in England. They are made by placing logs of trees tranſverſely, one upon the ends of two others, which are notched to let them in; the interſtices are plaiſtered, and the outſide and inſide frequently caſed. If the logs are placed upon ſtone-work, about a foot from the ground, ſo as not to be expoſed to alternate moiſture and drought, they will laſt half a century or more very well.

The ſoil about Sunbury and Northumberland, which, as the river only divides them, we ſpeak of together, is a ſandy loam, ſeveral feet deep near the river, and apparently excellent for almoſt any kind of vegetation. Their produce here, as in moſt other parts of Pennſylvania, is corn, wheat, oats, rye, buck-wheat, potatoes, and ſome little barley. Prices, wheat per buſhel, three ſhillings and nine-pence; oats, two ſhillings to two ſhillings and three-pence; rye, three ſhillings to three ſhillings and ſix-pence; corn, maize, three ſhillings; buck wheat, one ſhilling and ten-pence; potatoes in the ſpring, two ſhillings and ſix-pence to three ſhillings and nine-pence; in the autumn, one ſhilling and two-pence to one ſhilling and ten-pence a buſhel. Cyder, per barrel, according to the crops of apples; in 1793 it was from thirteen ſhillings and ſix-pence to eighteen ſhillings; 1792, it was from ſeven and ſix-pence to nine ſhillings: beer, none; there was a brewery at Northumberland ſome time ago, but it has been diſcontinued; while it was carried on, ale ſold for eighteen ſhillings, and porter three pounds per barrel of thirty-one gallons. Wages in the town, two ſhillings and three-pence a day; in the country, one ſhilling and ten pence to two ſhillings

and three-pence, and board. The common drink, cyder, or whiſkey and water.

Beef, three-pence per lb.; mutton, two-pence to three-pence; veniſon, two-pence to three-pence; theſe are bought at the butchers, or of farmers, who bring meat to town to retail; butter at Chriſtmas, one ſhilling and ſix-pence per lb.

A cord of oak fire-wood, three ſhillings and ſix-pence; hiccory, ſeven ſhillings and ſix-pence.

Produce of wheat twenty to thirty buſhels an acre. A Mr. Grant, of Sunbury, one dry ſummer, obtained ſixty buſhels per acre, but one-half of this quantity is common. The new lands and the ſtony rich lands near the river are too rich for wheat, and require to be reduced by corn, flax or tobacco. Otherwiſe, unleſs in a very dry ſummer, the grain ſhoots up into ſtraw. Wheat and barley grow beſt on the tops of the hills, and even in ſtony ground.

Land, in the immediate vicinity of Sunbury, ſells from eighteen to twenty-three pounds an acre. Building lots of one quarter or half an acre, in Northumberland or Sunbury, from one hundred to two hundred dollars each. Land, a few miles diſtance, uncleared, twenty-two to thirty ſhillings an acre. Land, with a log-cabin, a log-barn, and about one-fourth improved, *i. e.* the trees cut down, and the underwood grubbed up, about two pounds five ſhillings, or two pounds ten ſhillings an acre.

Two years ago, the land on which the town of Northumberland ſtands, is ſaid to have been offered to ſale by the proprietor for two thouſand pounds: he has ſince refuſed ten thouſand pounds for it.

In 1793, the eſtate of the late Lord Sterling was offered for ſale at ſeven pounds ten ſhillings an acre, which we apprehend to be the general price of cultivated land, in tolerable ſituations all through this State. Of uncultivated land there is very little. The expenſe of travelling between Philadelphia and New-York, both as to carriages and as to living, is about one-third cheaper than between the metropolis and any of the great towns in England.

NEW-YORK.

At New-York, you pay at the Tontine coffee-houſe eight dollars a week for board and lodging, wine excepted: in the former reſpect perſons are much better provided than in any place in England, where they pay only the ſame price. The

advantage in point of cheapneſs, for equal accommodations at an inn, is at leaſt one third in favour of New-York, beyond any of the great trading towns of England: board and lodging at private houſes may be had from five to ſeven dollars a week.

At Albany, board and lodging in a plain family way is half a dollar a day. Butter, eight-pence a pound; beef, two-pence three farthings; cheeſe, five-pence; pork, two-pence three farthings. An eſtate of five hundred acres, two miles from Albany, and four from Troy, part in woodland, ſold in November, 1793, for three thouſand three hundred pounds currency, or eighteen hundred and fifty-ſix pounds ſterling. For a farm of ſixty acres, about ſeven miles from Albany, the farmer pays twenty-five ſkipples, or eighteen buſhels and three quarters of wheat, per annum, as rent.

For a farm, not far from the above, about ſeven or eight miles from Albany, conſiſting of one hundred acres of very rich land, long ago cleared, and one hundred acres more not cleared, having a good brick houſe and a commodious barn upon it, the owner in 1793, aſked two thouſand pounds.

Prices of proviſions hereabout and at Skeneƈtady, which is inhabited chiefly by Dutch---beef, one penny three farthings a pound; cheeſe, five-pence; butter, eight-pence half-penny; apples, one ſhilling and five-pence a buſhel; wheat, four ſhillings and ſix-pence ditto.

About ten miles beyond Skeneƈtady, up the Mohawk river, beef ſells at thirteen ſhillings and ſix-pence per cwt.; pork, three-pence farthing a pound; turkeys, one ſhilling and five-pence; geeſe, one ſhilling and five-pence; fowls, eight-pence half-penny; butter, ſix-pence three farthings; ſalt, eight ſhillings per buſhel; cheeſe, five-pence a pound; wheat, four ſhillings a buſhel; wood, three ſhillings and four-pence a cord. Wages of a labourer, one ſhilling and ſix-pence to two ſhillings in ſummer, and ſix-pence three farthings to one ſhilling and three half-pence in winter, per day; carpenters, one ſhilling and ſix-pence; maſons, two ſhillings, beſides victuals.

The canals intended to go from Skeneƈtady to Albany, and that which will paſs the falls of the North river and connect Saratoga with Albany, and that which is intended to obviate the little falls of the Mohawk river, are all likely to proceed.

Land at the German flats ſells from two pounds fifteen ſhillings to eight pounds ten ſhillings an acre. Land higher up toward the black river, though good, not above a dollar.

Land near Hartford in Connecticut, five pounds ten ſhillings to eight pounds ten ſhillings an acre.

Land upon one of the branches of the Delaware in New-York State, was offered for ſale in London, in June 1794, for nine ſhillings an acre.

Land near the Miſhoppen and Tuſcorora creeks in Pennſylvania, about eight miles on the average, from the eaſt branch of the Suſquehannah, belonging to the perſon who owned the preceding parcel, was offered at the ſame time for eight ſhillings an acre in London.

The price of two dollars was aſked at the ſame period and place for land near the Loyalſock, between the eaſt and weſt branches of Suſquehannah: and the ſame for land in Luzern county upon Lehawannock.

In this State the ſettlers are more in the habit of uſing the aſhes of their wood to make pot-aſh, and diminiſh the expenſe of clearing the land, than they are in Pennſylvania or the ſouthern States. In July 1793, hearth aſhes ſold for ſix-pence three farthings a buſhel; field aſhes at five-pence half-penny; it coſts two pounds four ſhillings a ton to make them into pot-aſh; five hundred buſhels of hearth, or ſeven hundred of field aſhes, are computed to make a ton of pot-aſh, which at New-York is worth twenty-ſeven pounds, or one hundred and twenty dollars. But we think this allowance of aſhes hardly ſufficient for the purpoſe.

From theſe detached facts, collected from the information of perſons on the ſpot, the reader will be enabled to form a general opinion of the probable expenſes of a ſettler in the Middle States. It will be obſerved in general, that where proviſions are cheaper in one ſituation than another, the advantage is in the expenditure of an income in nearly the ſame proportion as the diſadvantage to the landholder.

With reſpect to the weſtern territory, proviſions of all kinds, the produce of the country, are exceeding low in their price: but the great diſtance renders European commodities proportionably high, in moſt inſtances European goods will be nearly double the price they are at Philadelphia.

In the towns and villages of Kentucky, the following are the average prices of ſome of the moſt material articles: flour

is from ſix ſhillings to nine ſhillings per cwt. according to its quality: Indian corn from nine-pence to one ſhilling per buſhel; beef, three halfpence to two-pence per lb.; veal, two-pence halfpenny ditto; mutton, three-pence ditto; which high price is owing to the general deſire the farmers have to increaſe their ſtocks; pork is from two-pence to two-pence halfpenny per lb.; bacon from three-pence halfpenny to four-pence; bacon hams from four-pence to five-pence halfpenny; ſalt beef, two-pence; hung or dried beef, three-pence. Neats tongues, ſix-pence each; buffalo ditto, nine-pence; dunghill fowls, ducks, Muſcovy ditto, geeſe, turkeys, Guinea fowls and pigeons, are proportionably cheap; butter is from two-pence halfpenny to three-pence halfpenny per lb.; cheeſe from two-pence to three-pence per ditto.

They have a variety of fiſh in the rivers, the moſt eſteemed of which are the perch, trout, buffalo fiſh and ſoft turtle. The perch is in ſize from five to twelve pounds, is firm and fat in its ſeaſon, which is from February until July. The trout is caught from eight to thirty pounds weight. This fiſh is too univerſally known and admired to require any account of its excellence, particularly as the trout in England is the exact miniature of it. The buffalo fiſh is in ſize from four to eight pounds, is a very fine fiſh, but inferior to the two former. But the ſoft turtle is, perhaps, the moſt delicious fiſh in the world, and amply compenſates for their having no other teſtaceous fiſh. This turtle is gelatinous, except a ſmall ſhell upon its back, about the bigneſs of the palm of the hand; the weight is from ſix to ten pounds.

Moſt people make their own ſugar; but when it is ſold, the price is from three-pence to four-pence halfpenny per pound, according to its fineneſs. The buſineſs of ſugar refining is only commencing, which makes it impoſſible to ſay exactly what will be the general price of loaf or refined ſugar; but we conclude it will be proportionably low with raw ſugar, as the buſineſs can be carried on in this country at leſs expenſe than in Philadelphia and New-York, where the price of the neceſſaries of life is ſo much higher. Tea, coffee, chocolate and ſpices, are higher here than in Philadelphia. Good green tea is from five ſhillings to eight ſhillings per pound; imperial or gunpowder, ten ſhillings and ſix-pence; pearl from twelve ſhillings to ſixteen ſhillings; good ſouchong from four ſhillings and ſix-pence to ſeven ſhillings per ditto; bohea from two ſhillings to three ſhillings and ſix-pence; coffee from one ſhil-

ling and nine-pence to two ſhillings; chocolate from one ſhilling and ſix-pence to one ſhilling and eight-pence. Spices are at leaſt twenty-five per cent. higher than they are at Philadelphia or Baltimore.

In the year 1784, many officers who ſerved in the American army during the late war having ſettled in this State with their families, and ſeveral families from England, Philadelphia, New-Jerſey, New-York and the New-England States, the country ſoon began to be chequered with genteel perſons, which operated both upon the minds and actions of the back woods people, who conſtituted the firſt emigrants. A taſte for the decorum and elegance of the table was ſoon cultivated; and the pleaſures of the garden were conſidered not only as uſeful but amuſing. Theſe improvements in the comforts of living and manners, have awakened a ſenſe of ambition to inſtruct their youth in uſeful and accompliſhed arts. Social pleaſures are likewiſe regarded as the moſt ineſtimable of human poſſeſſions; the genius of friendſhip appears to foſter the emanations of virtue, while the cordial regard, and ſincere deſire of pleaſing, produces the moſt harmonious effects. Sympathy is regarded as the eſſence of the human ſoul, participating of celeſtial matter, and as a ſpark engendered to warm benevolence, and lead to the raptures of love and rational felicity.

With ſuch ſentiments the amuſements of this State flow from the interchange of civilities, and a reciprocal deſire of pleaſing. That ſameneſs may not cloy, and make them dull, they vary the ſcene as the nature of circumſtances will permit: the opening ſpring brings with it the proſpect of their ſummer's labour, and the brilliant ſun actively warms into life the vegetable world, which blooms and yields a profuſion of aromatic odours: a creation of beauty is now a feaſt of joy, and to look for amuſements beyond this genial torrent of ſweets would be a perverſion of nature, and a ſacrilege againſt heaven.

The ſeaſon of ſugar-making occupies the women, whoſe mornings are cheered by the modulated buffoonery of the mocking bird, the tuneful ſong of the thruſh, and the gaudy plumage of the parroquet. Feſtive mirth crowns the evening. The buſineſs of the day being over, the men join the women in the ſugar groves, where enchantment ſeems to dwell. The lofty trees wave their ſpreading branches over a green turf, on whoſe ſoft down the mildneſs of the evening invites the neighbouring youth to ſportive play; and while the rural Neſtors, with calculating minds, contemplate the boyiſh gambols of a growing

progeny, they recount the exploits of their early age, and in their enthuſiaſm forget there are ſuch things as decrepitude and miſery. Perhaps a convivial ſong, or a pleaſant narration, cloſes the ſcene.

Rational pleaſures meliorate the ſoul; and by familiarizing man to uncontaminated felicity, ſordid avarice and vicious habits are deſtroyed.

Gardening and fiſhing conſtitute ſome part of the amuſements of both ſexes. Flowers and their genera form one of the ſtudies of the ladies; and the embelliſhment of their houſes, with thoſe which are known to be ſalutary, conſtitute a part of their employment. Domeſtic cares and muſic fill up the remainder of the day, and ſocial viſits without ceremony or form, leave them without ennui or diſguſt. The young men are too gallant to permit the women to have ſeparate amuſements; and thus it is that even in Kentucky we find that ſauvity and politeneſs of manners univerſal, which can only be effected by feminine poliſh.

The autumn and winter produces not leſs pleaſure. Evening viſits moſtly end with dancing by the young people, while the more aged indulge their hilarity, or diſſeminate information in the diſquiſion of politics, or ſome uſeful art or ſcience.

Such are the amuſements of this country, and ſuch the mode of living, which have for their baſis hoſpitality, and all the variety of good things that a luxuriant ſoil is capable of producing, without the alloy of contaminating vice and artificial want.

PREVALENT DISEASES IN THE UNITED STATES.

All countries have ſome peculiar diſeaſes, ariſing from the climate, manner of living, occupations, predominant paſſions, and other cauſes, whoſe ſeparate and combined influence is but imperfectly known. In North America we may count five:— nervous diſorders, rhumatiſm, intermitting fevers, loſs of teeth, and colds. It is remarkable, that nervous complaints are at preſent more frequent in Europe than they formerly were. They ſpring in a great meaſure from the indulgencies of a civiliſed life; but in America theſe fiends infeſt with leſs diſcrimination on the dwellings of induſtry and temperance. Proteus-like they aſſume every ſhape, and often baffle the beſt phyſicians. Their baneful effect on the mind requires the ſerious attention of legiſlators, divines, and moral philoſophers: we have often

witneſſed their amazing influence on religious ſentiments. When extreme, they derange the whole ſyſtem, obſcure the intellects, bewilder the imagination, prevent the natural order and operation of all the paſſions; the ſoul vibrates between apathy and morbid ſenſibility; ſhe hates when ſhe ſhould love, and grieves when ſhe ought to rejoice; ſhe reſembles a diſordered clock, that after a long ſilence, chimes till you are tired, and often inſtead of one, ſtrikes twelve. Theſe extremes are indeed rare, but the more general degrees are ſtill analogous, and produce a great ſum of evil.

Slight rheumatic pains are almoſt epidemic in ſome ſeaſons of the year. Yet theſe are ſcarcely worth mentioning in compariſon to the ſevere fits that afflict a great number of perſons, even in the earlier parts of life, growing more frequent and violent with age, not ſeldom attended with lameneſs, and contraction of limbs.

Fever and ague is here, as in other countries, the plague of marſhy and fenny ſituations, but what is ſingular, it alſo viſits the borders of limpid ſtreams. The leſſer degree of it, generally called *dumb ague*, is not rare in the moſt ſalubrious places during the months of September and October. Through all the low countries from north to ſouth this diſeaſe rages in a variety of hideous forms; and chiefly doth the fury *quartan* with livid hue, haggard looks, and trembling ſkeleton limbs, embitter the life of multitudes: many linger under it for years, and become ſo diſpirited, as not even to ſeek any remedy. It is a foul ſource of many other diſeaſes, often terminating in deadly dropſies and conſumptions.

Premature loſs of teeth is in many reſpects a ſevere misfortune. By impairing maſtication, and conſequently digeſtion, it diſpoſes for many diſorders. It injures the pronunciation, and is a particular diſadvantage in a great republic, where ſo many citizens are public ſpeakers; it expoſes the mouth and throat to cold, and various accidents; it diminiſhes the pleaſure of eating, though not ſublime pleaſure of life, and which we have heard ſome perſons very emphatically regret. Finally, it is a mortifying ſtroke to beauty, and as ſuch deeply felt by the fair ſex. Indeed, that man muſt be a ſtoic, who can without pity behold a blooming maiden of eighteen afflicted by this infirmity of old age! This conſideration is the more important as the amiable affections of the human ſoul are not leſs expreſſed by the traits and motions of the lips, than by the beaming eye. We have not mentioned the pains of tooth-ach, becauſe

they are not more common or violent in this country than in ſome others, where loſs of teeth is rare; many perſons here loſing their teeth without much pain.

The complaint of *catching cold* is heard almoſt every day, and in every company. This extraordinary diſorder, little known in ſome countries, is alſo very common in England. An eminent phyſician of that country ſaid, that "colds kill more people than the plague." Indeed, many ſevere diſorders originate from it among the Americans, as well as amongſt Europeans: it is probably often the ſource of the before-mentioned chronic diſeaſes. When it does not produce ſuch effects, it is nevertheleſs a ſerious evil, being attended with loſs of appetite, hoarſeneſs, ſore eyes, head-ach, pains and ſwellings in the face, tooth and ear-ach, rheums, liſtleſs langour and *lowneſs of ſpirits*: wherefore Shenſton had ſome reaſon to call this uneaſineſs *a checked perſpiration*. Great numbers in ſome parts of the United States experience more or leſs theſe ſymptoms, and are in ſome degree valetudinarians for one third of the year.

Eminent medical authors have, indeed, treated of theſe diſtempers; and ſome American phyſicians deſerve applauſe for their theoretical and practical exertions. Still it is devoutly to be wiſhed that theſe national evils may draw a more pointed attention: the limits of our deſign, however, permit only a few additional remarks.

Theſe diſtempers frequently co-exiſt in the moſt unhealthy parts of the country, and not ſeldom afflict individuals with united force. Compaſſion for ſuffering fellow citizens ought in this caſe to animate inveſtigation of thoſe general and complicated local cauſes. The extreme variableneſs of the weather is univerſally deemed a principal and general cauſe of colds, and of the diſorders by them produced; the fall and riſe of the thermometer by 20 and 30 degrees within leſs than four and twenty hours, diſturbing the ſtrongeſt conſtitutions, and ruining the weak. A moſt important deſideratum is therefore the art of hardening the bodily ſyſtem againſt theſe violent impreſſions; or, in other words, accommodating it to the climate. The general ſtamina of ſtrength ſupport it under the exceſſes of both cold and heat; the latter is, however, the moſt oppreſſive, as we can leſs elude it by artificial conveniencies. The Americans ſuffer, eſpecially during the ſummer four, till 6 a 8, critical extremes, when the thermometer after 86 a 92 degrees falls ſuddenly to 60. Could means be found to blunt theſe attacks on the human conſtitution, they would ſave multitudes from death and lingering diſeaſes. Sometimes this criſis

happens as late as medium September, and is in a few days ſucceeded by the autumnal froſts; in ſuch caſe weak perſons receive a ſhock, from which they cannot recover during the autumn, and which aggravate the maladies of the winter, eſpecially when it is early and rigorous.

Searching for general cauſes of the beforementioned diſtempers in the popular diet, the following circumſtances ſhould be examined: exceſſive uſe of animal food, eſpecially pork; the common drink of inferior ſpiritous liquors, both foreign and home made, not to mention a too frequent intemperance even in the beſt kinds; the conſtant uſe of tea among the fair ſex, drank generally very *hot* and *ſtrong*, and often by the pooreſt claſſes, of a bad quality.

In the general modes of dreſs we plainly diſcern theſe defects:—the tight-bodied clothes, worn by both ſexes, increaſe the heat of a ſultry ſummer; the cloſe lacing and cumberſome head-dreſſes of the ladies are eſpecially injurious to health. The winter cloathing is too thin for the climates of the northern and middle States, which is for ſeveral months at times equally cold with the north of Europe. Few perſons ſufficiently preſerve their feet from the baneful dampneſs of the ſluſh occaſioned by the frequent viciſſitudes of hard froſts and heavy rains during the winter; women generally wear ſtuff ſhoes; the American leather, though otherwiſe good, is very ſpongy, a defect owing to the precipitate proceſs of tanning. Nor does either ſex guard the head againſt the piercing north-weſt wind, which is general for five or ſix months: on journeys eſpecially, the men ſhould exchange their hats for caps that cover the ears and cheeks.

In the modes of lodging theſe improprieties are obſervable; the poorer, or more indolent people, eſpecially in the leſs improved parts of the country, frequently dwell in houſes that are open to the driving ſnow and chilling blaſt: good houſes often want cloſe doors; a chaſm of ſix or eight inches near the floor admits a ſtrong current of cold air, which ſenſibly affects the legs. Such houſes cannot be ſufficiently warmed by the common fire places; hence the frequent complaint, that the fore part of the body is almoſt roaſted, while the back is freezing; a ſituation very unnatural, productive of rheumatiſm and other diſtempers. The larger towns of North America have, with their ſpacious ſtreets, a number of narrow alleys, which are peculiarly detrimental in a ſultry climate, and in co-operation with the ſlovenly habits of their poorer inmates, are nurſeries of diſeaſe.

Among the general cuſtoms which may influence health, the moſt ſtriking is an exceſſive, and in ſome caſes an ill-judged cleanlineſs: the continual waſhing of houſes, eſpecially in the cold ſeaſon, has, we are confident, coſt the lives of many eſtimable women, and entailed painful diſeaſes on their families.

In the buſineſs of life we often remark a very irregular application; indolence ſucceeded by hurry and intenſe fatigue. This muſt particularly injure huſbandmen, as the neglect of a day may damage a precious crop, if it is not compenſated by exertions, which in the ſultry heat of ſummer are very trying to the ſtrongeſt conſtitutions.

As to nervous diſorders, philanthropy compels us to remark, that, beſides their general connection with a ſickly conſtitution, they have in a great meaſure originated from two ſingular cauſes. One is the convulſion of public affairs during and for ſome time after the war, which occaſioned many and great domeſtic diſtreſſes. The natural events of the war are univerſally known, and numbers of virtuous citizens alſo feel the dire effects of the ſucceeding anarchy, eſpecially in the loſs of property.* The operations of this cauſe are, however, continually leſſened by time that cures our griefs, or buries them in the grave; and ſuch evils will under Providence, be for ever prevented by the new confederation of the United States. The other cauſe is that gloomy ſuperſtition diſſeminated by ignorant, illiberal preaches, the bane of ſocial joy, of real virtue, and a manly ſpirit.† This phantom of darkneſs will be diſpelled by the rays of ſcience, and the bright charms of riſing civilization.‡

* Not by violence, but the well known diſorders of paper money in various forms.

† Perhaps, however, ere long it will be found, and univerſally acknowledged, that the prevalence of nervous diſorders in Europe and America is owing to an ill-directed or corrupt education, particularly amongſt females, where they moſt prevail; indeed, it is hardly poſſible to contemplate the preſent ſyſtem of education without being convinced of this truth. Inſtead of fortifying the mind with ſentiments ſuited to the various viciſſitudes to which we are expoſed in this life; inſtead of enlarging and cultivating the mind, and preparing it to meet adverſity and proſperity without being diſmayed at the one, or lifted up with the other, the whole attention is paid to exterior accompliſhments; and the mind neglected, becomes the victim of unruly paſſions, of affectation, and a contemptible ſpecies of falſe delicacy, or elſe of deſpondency; either, or all of which, if they are not the immediate cauſe, are yet the means by which nervous diſorders are fed and nouriſhed.

‡ It is pleaſing to ſee how fanaticiſm declines with agricultural improvement in many new ſettlements, and how refinement of public manners keeps pace with a preference of enlightened teachers.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS ON THE NATURAL PRODUCE AND RURAL ECONOMY OF THE UNITED STATES, &c.

The following obſervations and remarks are made with a particular reference to thoſe who may adopt the farming buſineſs, and of courſe fix their reſidence at a diſtance from cities and towns. The United States, if they are truly wiſe, will continue to give every poſſible encouragement to agriculture; and though it is certainly their wiſdom to purſue a manufacturing ſyſtem, yet it would be highly injurious for them to give it a preference; indeed, their great object ſhould be to make commerce and manufactures ſubſervient to the cauſe of agriculture, and to make the latter the baſis of the former. To do otherwiſe, would be perverting the order of nature. Agriculture has made a wonderful progreſs in ſeveral countries, ſince it became the buſineſs and favourite amuſement of philoſophers and men of taſte; and the American farmer may reap great advantage from the many excellent writings on this ſubject, but much improvement is yet wanting in every part of this noble ſcience; beſides, their local circumſtances require in ſome caſes peculiar methods. The United States extend through ſeveral climates, and the general irregularity of the ſeaſons mingles the diverſity of climate in every State; Pennſylvania, for inſtance, has often within two or three months the climates of Sweden, England, and Italy. This points out the propriety of adopting ſome practices from different countries, and eſtabliſhing others as their own.

As men of property and ſcience have embraced the occupation of farmers in America, and as a majority of the Houſe of Repreſentatives, if not of the Senate, are of this claſs of men, as well as the preſident, we may reaſonably expect that every attention will be paid to a ſubject ſo important in itſelf, and whereon ſo much of the happineſs of America depends. Before, however, we offer any obſervations on the theory or practice of American farming, we ſhall endeavour to give as full and comprehenſive an account as our plan will admit, of the vegetable productions of the United States; however, as few perſons in the United States have ſtudied natural hiſtory as a ſcience, the beſt information on this ſubject muſt be very imperfect; the following we truſt will, however, be found as complete as any that is at preſent extant.

FOREST TREES.

ELM, *ulmus Americana.* Of this tree there is but one ſpecies, of which there are two varieties, the white and the red. The inner rind of both is ſtringy and tough, and is frequently uſed for the bottoms of chairs, and for bed cords. The wood is not eaſily ſplit, and therefore ſerves for the naves of wheels. The bark of the white elm is uſed medicinally for the gravel. The EUROPEAN ELM, *ulmus campeſtris*, is ſo far naturalized as to propagate itſelf in copſes.

SASSAFRAS, *laurus ſaſſafras*, is commonly found in moiſt land. It does not, in this ſtate, grow to a large ſize. Its roots, bark and leaves have an aromatic ſmell. It affords a valuable ingredient for beer as well as for medicinal purpoſes. The wood makes handſome bedſteads, and it is ſaid that bugs will not be found in them for ſeveral years. The SPICE WOOD, *laurus benzoin*, or as it is commonly called FEVER BUSH, is another ſpecies of the *laurus*, common in New-Hampſhire: it is more aromatic than the ſaſſafras. In the weſtern country, its fruit and bark are uſed as a ſubſtitute for *pimento.*

WILD CHERRY. Of this they have many ſpecies, but they have not been well arranged and properly diſtinguſhed. They are very numerous in land which has been newly cleared, if not kept down by culture. The wood of the largeſt cherry tree, *prunus Virginiana*, is very highly eſteemed in cabinet work, being of a firm texture, a ſmooth grain, and a beautiful colour, between red and yellow.

BASSWOOD, or LIME TREE, *tilia Americana*, is ſometimes ſawed into boards, which are very white, but ſoft, and eaſily warped.

LOCUST, *robina pſeudo acacia*, is excellent fewel. Its trunk ſerves for durable poſts ſet in the ground, and may be ſplit into trunnels for ſhips, which are equal to any wood for that purpoſe. It thrives on ſandy and gravelly ſoils, and its leaves enrich them. For theſe reaſons, the cultivation of the locuſt has been thought an object worthy of attention, eſpecially as it is a tree of quick growth. For ſeveral years paſt it has been injured by a beetle inſect, which bores a hole through its trunk. Many trees have been entirely killed, and this circumſtance has proved a diſcouragement to their propagation.

BIRCH. Of this they have four ſpecies. 1. WHITE, *betula alba.* The bark of this tree is a ſubſtance of a ſingular kind,

and is perhaps the only bark which is leſs liable to rot than the wood which it incloſes. The whole interior ſubſtance of a fallen tree is frequently found rotten, whilſt the bark remains ſound. This bark is compoſed of ſeveral *laminæ*, eaſily ſeparable, of a firm conſiſtence, thin, flexible, ſoft and ſmooth: it may be written upon like paper: it is very inflammable, emitting a vivid flame and a very denſe, black ſmoak, which might eaſily be collected like lamp black. Of this bark the Indians formed diſhes, boxes, and light portable canoes, which they ſewed together with ſlender but tough filaments of the roots of ſpruce and cedar, cementing the joints with turpentine.—— 2. BLACK, *betula nigra*. The heart of this tree is of a beautiful brown, and is frequently ſplit and turned: it makes handſome bedſteads, chairs, and tables. Much of it is exported to Europe. 3. RED OR YELLOW, *betula lenta*. This is chiefly uſed for fewel, and is much eſteemed. 4. ALDER, *betula alnus*. Its bark is much employed in dying a dark brown. The wood, when of a proper ſize, makes excellent charcoal. It is common in ſwamps and by the ſide of rivers and brooks.

OAK. Of this they have four ſpecies. 1. BLACK, *quercus nigra*. The inner bark is uſed for tanning; the timber for the keels of ſhips. 2. RED, *quercus rubra*. Of this ſpecies there are three varieties. 1. The *red*, which grows ſometimes on high and dry land, but delights in a moiſt ſoil, and is generally found on the declivities of hills and borders of ſwamps. The wood of this tree is eaſily riven, and makes excellent ſtaves for molaſſes and for dry caſks. 2. The *ſwamp* oak, which is found in low wet places. It is poſſeſſed of greater elaſticity than any other oak. Splints of this wood have been ſubſtituted for whalebone. 3. *Yellow*, which grows on hills and dry ridges of land, makes the beſt of pipe ſtaves and ſhip timber.* 3. WHITE, *quercus alba*. 4. SHRUB, OR GROUND OAK, *quercus pumila*. It is found on barren hills and plains. It produces a gall, which is evidently the *nidus* of an inſect, and has been uſed as an ingredient in writing ink. There is another oak, called the *cheſnut*, or *new-found oak*; but whether it be of a different ſpecies, or a variety of either ſpecies above mentioned, has not been determined. 5. CHESNUT OAK, *quercus prinus*. Whether this is a different ſpecies, or only a variety of either of the ſpecies before mentioned, we believe is not yet determined.

* This arrangement of the oak is ſuggeſted by Dr. Cutler; In common parlance, the oak, which is uſed for pipe ſtaves and ſhip timber, is called the Upland White Oak; it is one of the moſt uſeful and valuable trees of the American foreſt.

6. LIVE OAK, *quercus Virginiana.* BLACK JACK OAK, *quercus aquatica.* The two latter are peculiar to the ſouthern States.

WALNUT. The American ſpecies of this genus have been confounded by botanical writers. There are at leaſt three in New-Hampſhire. 1. WHITE, OR ROUND NUT HICKORY, *juglans alba.* Its ſap is ſweet, but does not flow freely. Its wood is ſmooth and tough, and is much uſed for gun ſtocks, axe handles, and walking ſticks. 2. SHAG BARK, *juglans cinerea ?** The wood of this tree is not ſo valuable as the white, but the fruit is preferable, being larger, and having a ſofter ſhell. 3. OIL NUT, OR BUTTER NUT. This ſpecies has been called by ſome authors, *juglans alba*, and by others, *juglans nigra.* It differs ſpecifically from both, and therefore Dr. Cutler has given it the diſtinguiſhing name of *juglans cathartica*, expreſſive of the peculiar property of its bark, the extract of which is one of the beſt cathartics in the *materia medica.* It neither produces gripings, nor leaves the patient coſtive, and may be made efficacious, without hazard, by increaſing the doſe. Its operation is kind and ſafe, even in the moſt delicate conſtitutions. It is an excellent family medicine, is well adapted to hoſpitals, navies, and armies. It was much uſed by the military phyſicians in the late war, and it may become a valuable article of exportation. It is ſaid to be one of the beſt antidotes againſt the bite of the rattleſnake. The fruit of this tree, when gathered young, in the beginning of July, makes an excellent pickle; when ripe, it is a fattening food for ſwine: its ſhell is black, hard and rough: its kernal contains a large quantity of a rich ſweet oil:† its wood makes good fencing ſtuff; and its bark, beſides the medicinal virtues which it poſſeſſes, has a quality of dying ſeveral ſhades of grey and black.

CHESNUT, *fagus caſtanea*, is chiefly uſed for fencing; it is ſtraight, coarſe grained, eaſily riven and very durable; it is ſometimes ſplit into ſtaves and heading for dry caſks.

* I am uncertain whether this be the *cinerea* of authors, and therefore have "added the mark of interrogation. If it be not the *cinerea* (to which the cha- "racters pretty well agree (it has no ſpecific name." *Dr. Cutler.*

† In the ſouthern and weſtern parts of the United States, this tree is found in very great abundance. The Indians preſerved the oil which they extracted from the nut. Of this we have an early teſtimony in the journal of Ferdinando de Soto, A. D. 1540. When he came to Chiana, ſituate near the Apalachian mountains, about the latitude of 34° he "found great ſtore of oil of walnuts, clear as butter, and of good taſte." *Purchas*, vol. v, p. 1509. The Indians of New-England extracted an oil from acorns, by boiling them in water with aſhes of *punk*, or the rotten heart of maple. *Joſſelyn's Voyage.*

Beach, *fagus ſylvatica.* Of this there are three varieties; the white and the red are uſed as fewel; the black is ſmall and tough, and is uſed only for withes and ſwitches.

Hornbeam, *carpinus betulus*, is a ſmall but tough tree, and is uſed only for levers, hand ſpikes and ſtakes.

Button wood, *platanus occidentalis*, is a large tree, but as tough as the hornbeam: it is uſed for windlaſſes, wheels and blocks.

Pine, *pinus.* Of this genus they have at leaſt ſeven ſpecies. 1. The White pine, *pinus ſtrobus*, is undoubtedly the prince of the American foreſt in ſize, age, and majeſty of appearance. More of this ſpecies have been produced in New-Hampſhire, and the eaſtern counties of Maſſachuſetts, than in all America beſides. Theſe trees have a very thin ſap, and are diſtinguiſhed by the name of maſt pine from the ſucceeding growth of the ſame ſpecies, which are called ſaplings. The bloſſom of this and other pines appear about the middle of June; its *farina* is of a bright yellow, and ſo ſubtil that it is exhaled with vapour from the earth, aſcends into the clouds and falls with rain, forming a yellow ſcum on the ſurface of the water, which the ignorant erroniouſly call ſulphur, from the ſimilarity of its colour.

When a maſt tree is to be felled, much preparation is neceſſary. So tall a ſtick, without any limbs nearer the ground than eighty or a hundred feet, is in great danger of breaking in the fall. To prevent this, the workmen have a contrivance which they call *bedding* the tree, which is thus executed. They know in what direction the tree will fall, and they cut down a number of ſmaller trees which grow in that direction; or if there be none, they draw others to the ſpot, and place them ſo that the falling tree may lodge on their branches: which breaking or yielding under its preſſure, render its fall eaſy and ſafe. A time of deep ſnow is the moſt favourable ſeaſon, as the rocks are then covered, and a natural bed is formed to receive the tree. When fallen it is examined, and if to appearance it be found, it is cut in the proportion of three feet in length to every inch of its diameter, for a maſt; but if intended for a bowſprit or a yard, it is cut ſhorter: if it be not ſound throughout, or if it break in falling, it is cut into logs for the ſaw mill.

When a maſt is to be drawn, as its length will not admit of its paſſing in a crooked road, a ſtraight path is cut and cleared for it through the woods. If it be cut in the neighbourhood of a large river, it is drawn to the bank and rolled into the water,

or in the winter it is laid on the ice to be floated away at the breaking up of the river in the ſpring. From other ſituations maſts are now conveyed twenty, thirty or forty miles to the landing-places, at the head of the tide, and as the diſtance has increaſed, more ſafe and eaſy modes of conveyance have been invented. Formerly, if drawn on wheels, the maſt was raiſed by levers, and hung by chains under the axle. In this caſe it was neceſſary to uſe very ſtrong and heavy chains, and wheels of ſixteen or eighteen feet in diameter, that the maſt, in paſſing, might be cleared from the ground, which was often encumbered with rocks and ſtumps. Now, the common wheels and chains are uſed, and the largeſt ſtick, by a very eaſy operation, is raiſed on the axle. To perform this, the wheels being brought near to it, are canted; the axle being ſet in a perpendicular poſition, one wheel on the ground and the other aloft; the maſt is then rolled over the rim and ſpokes of the lower wheel, and faſtened to the axle; and when it is thus fixed, a chain, which is previouſly made faſt to the oppoſite ſide of the upper wheel, is hooked to a yoke of oxen, who, by a jerk, bring down the upper and raiſe the lower wheel, and thus both are brought into their proper poſition, with the maſt mounted on the axle. They uſe two pairs of wheels, one at each end of the maſt; by which means, it is not galled by friction on the ground, and the draught is rendered much eaſier for the cattle.

When a maſt is to be drawn on the ſnow, one end is placed on a ſled, ſhorter, but higher than the common ſort, and reſts on a ſtrong block, which is laid acroſs the middle of the ſled. Formerly, the butt-end was placed foremoſt, and faſtened by chains to the bars of the ſled, which was attended by this inconvenience; that in ſidelong ground, the ſtick by its rolling would overſet the ſled, and the drivers had much difficulty either to prevent or remedy this diſaſter, by the help of levers and ropes. The invention of the ſwivel-chain precludes this difficulty. One part of this chain is faſtened to the tongue of the ſled, and the other to the ſmalleſt end of the maſt, by means of a circular groove cut in it; one of the intermediate links is a ſwivel, which, by its eaſy turning, allows the ſtick to roll from ſide to ſide, without overturning the ſled. In deſcending a long and ſteep hill, they have a contrivance to prevent the load from making too rapid a deſcent. Some of the cattle are placed behind it; a chain which is attached to their yokes is brought forward and faſtened to the hinder end of the load, and the reſiſtance which is made by theſe cattle checks the deſcent.

This operation is called *tailing*. The moſt dangerous circumſtance is the paſſing over the top of a ſharp hill, by which means the oxen which are neareſt to the tongue are ſometimes ſuſpended, till the foremoſt cattle can draw the maſt ſo far over the hill, as to give them opportunity to recover the ground. In this caſe the drivers are obliged to uſe much judgment and care, to keep the cattle from being killed. There is no other way to prevent this inconvenience than to level the roads.

The beſt white pine trees are ſold for maſts, bowſprits and yards, for large ſhips.* Thoſe of an inferior ſize, partly unſound, crooked or broken in falling, are either ſawn into planks and boards, or formed into canoes, or cut into bolts for the uſe of coopers, or ſplit and ſhaved into clapboards and ſhingles. Boards of this wood are much uſed for wainſcoting and cabinet work; it is of ſmooth grain, and when free from knots, does no injury to the tools of the workmen; but the ſoftneſs of its texture ſubjects it to ſhrink and ſwell with the weather. The ſapling pine, though of the ſame ſpecies, is not ſo firm and ſmooth as the veteran pine of the foreſt, and is more ſenſibly affected by the weather.

* Douglaſs, vol. ii. p. 53, ſpeaks of a white pine, cut near Dunſtable in 1736, which was "ſtraight and ſound, ſeven feet eight inches in diameter, at the butt end." He alſo ſays, that when 'Colonel Partridge' (formerly Lieutenant-Governor of New-Hampſhire) 'Had the maſt contract, he ſent home a few of thirty-eight inches, and two of forty-two inches."

Mr. Belknap obtained from the books of the late contractor, Mark Hunking Wentworth, Eſq. deceaſed, the following account of the ſize and value of ſuch ſticks as he ſent to England for the uſe of the navy.

Maſts.			Yards.			Bowſprits.		
Diameter in inches.	Sterling value.		Diameter in inches.	Sterling value.		Diameter in inches.	Sterling value.	
	£.	s.		£.	s.		£.	s.
25	13	8	15	0	0	25	2	10
26	16	0	16	0	0	26	3	0
27	18	0	17	6	10	27	3	14
28	23	0	18	9	0	28	8	2
29	28	0	19	11	4	29	15	0
30	35	10	20	14	10	30	21	0
31	44	0	21	18	10	31	26	0
32	56	0	22	21	0	32	29	0
33	70	0	23	25	10	33	32	0
34	90	0	24	32	0	34	40	0
						35	42	10
						36	45	0
						37	52	10

N. B. It muſt be obſerved, that all theſe were hewn into the proper ſhape before the final dimenſions were taken, which determined their value.

The ſtumps and roots of the maſt pine are very durable. It is a common ſaying, that "no man ever cut down a pine, and "lived to ſee the ſtump rotten." After many years, when the roots have been looſened by the froſt, they are, with much labour, cut and dug out of the ground, and being turned up edgeway, are ſet for fences to fields, in which ſtate they have been known to remain ſound for half a century. A collection of theſe roots would make an impenetrable *abbatis*, which nothing but fire could eaſily deſtroy.

Before the revolution, all white pines, excepting thoſe growing in any townſhip granted before the twenty-firſt of September, 1722, were accounted the king's property, and heavy penalties were annexed to the cutting of them, without leave from the king's ſurveyor. Since that event, theſe trees, like all others, are the property of the landholder.

2. The YELLOW PIEE, *pinus pinea*, is harder and heavier than the white, but never grows to the ſame ſize; its planks and boards are uſed for the floors of houſes and the decks of ſhips.

3. The PITCH PINE, *pinus tæda*, is the hardeſt and heavieſt of all the pines; it is ſometimes put to the ſame uſes as the yellow pine; but at preſent the principal uſe of it is for fewel. When burnt in KILNS, it makes the beſt kind of charcoal; its knots and roots being full of the terebinthine oil, afford a light ſurpaſſing candles; its ſoot is collected, and uſed for lamp black. The making of tar from it is now wholly diſuſed. Formerly, when it was made, the method was this: a piece of clay ground was choſen; or if ſuch could not conveniently be had, the earth was paved with ſtone or brick, in a circular form, about twelve or fifteen feet in diameter, raiſed in the middle, and a circular trench was drawn round it a few inches in depth. The wood being cut and ſplit, was ſet upright in a conical pile, and covered on every ſide with ſods, a hole being left open at the top, where the pile was ſet on fire. The confined heat melted the reſinous juices of the wood, which flowed out at the bottom into the circular trench, and was conducted, by other gutters, to holes in the earth, in which were ſet barrels to receive it. Turpentine is collected from every ſpecies of the pine, by boxing the trees; that from the white pine is the pureſt; it ſometimes diſtils from the tree in beautifully tranſparent drops.

4. The LARCH, *pinus larix*, is the only tree of the terebinthine quality which ſheds its leaves in autumn. Its turpentine is ſaid to be the ſame with the Burgundy pitch.

5. The FIR *pinus balſamea*, yield a fine balſam, which is contained in ſmall bliſters on the exterior ſurface of its bark. This balſam is uſed both as an external and internal medicine. The wood is coarſer and more brittle than the pine, and is ſeldom either hewn or ſawn.

6. SPRUCE, *pinus Canadenſis*; of this they have two varieties, the white and the black. The *white ſpruce* is tall and ſlender, its grain is twiſting, and when ſtripped of its bark it will crack in a warm ſun; it is the worſt wood for fewel, becauſe of its continual ſnapping; in this reſpect it exceeds hemlock and cheſnut, both which are remarkable for the ſame ill quality; it is ſometimes formed into oars for large boats, but is inferior to aſh; it is often uſed for ſpars, for fencing ſtuff and for ſcaffolding; for all which purpoſes its form and texture render it very convenient, as it is ſtraight and tough, and may be had of any ſize from two inches to two feet in diameter. The *black ſpruce* is uſed only for beer; the young twigs of it are boiled till the bark may eaſily be ſtripped from the wood, and being ſweetened with molaſſes, make one of the moſt pleaſant and wholeſome beverages which nature affords: of this ſpruce is made the eſſence, which is as well known in Europe as in America.

7. The HEMLOCK, *pinus abes*, is, in ſtature, the next tree to the maſt pine; it grows largeſt in ſwampy land, and is very ſtraight; its grain is coarſe, and is not eaſily ſplit or hewn, but is ſawed into planks, joiſts and laths; its chief excellence in building is, that it holds a nail exceedingly well; it makes good flooring for bridges and barns, and the round timber is very durable in wharfs and dams: the bark is excellent for tanning leather. The balſam of the hemlock is uſed medicinally, but it cannot be collected in any great quantities.

WHITE CEDAR, or ARBOR VITÆ, *thuja occidentalis*.

JUNIPER, or RED CEDAR, *juniperus Virginiana*, it produces the juniper berry.

The white cedar of the ſouthern States, *cupreſſus thyoides*, is a very different tree from the white cedar of the northern States; but the red cedar is the ſame in all the States; it is a juniper, and is a ſpecies of that in European which produces the juniper berries: the wood of the red cedar is more durable, when ſet in the earth, than any other wood growing in America.

They have another ſpecies of juniper, *juniperus ſabina*, which does not riſe more than eighteen inches from the ground; but the branches extend horizontally ſeveral yards, and form, in open paſtures, an extenſive bed of evergreen: the leaves

are mixed with oats, and given to horſes to deſtroy the worms, which infeſt their bowels.

CYPRESS, *cupreſſus diſticha*, found only in the ſouthern States, uſed for ſhingles and other purpoſes, grows in ſwamps and very large.

WHITE WILLOW, *ſalix alba*, is originally an exotic, but now well naturaliſed and much propagated. "The bark of this tree is uſed as a ſubſtitute for the *cortex Peruviana*," or Peruvian bark.

SWAMP WILLOW, *ſalix*; this is the firſt tree that ſhews its bloſſoms in the ſpring; and in ſome ſeaſons its white flowers exhibit a delightful appearance, when all the neighbouring trees remain in their wintry hue.

POPLAR OR ASPEN, *populus tremula*. This tree is more frequently found in open or clear land than in thick woods; it is of quick growth; the wood is white, ſoft and ſmooth; it is uſed for laſts and heels of ſhoes, and for ſome kinds of turned work.

BLACK POPLAR, or BALSAM TREE. This is a beautiful foreſt tree, of a large ſize and quick growth, very proper for walks and ſhades; its buds, in the ſpring, are full of a rich balſam, reſembling the balſam of Peru: as the buds expand the balſam diſappears.

Of the MAPLE they have three ſpecies: 1. The WHITE, *acer negundo*; the wood of this tree, eſpecially that which is curled in its grain; is much uſed in cabinet work; it is firm and ſmooth; it takes a fine poliſh, and may be ſtained of the colour of black walnut or mahogany. 2. The RED, *acer rubrum*, grows in ſwamps, and is fit only for fuel. 3. The BLACK or ROCK maple exceeds the others in this reſpect, being of a very cloſe texture, hard and heavy, even when perfectly dry. But the grand excellency of this tree is the ſaccarine quality of its ſap, which has obtained for it the name of SUGAR MAPLE, *acer ſaccharinum*.

Of ASH they have two ſpecies. 1. The WHITE ASH, *fraxinus excelſior*; this, in good land, grows to the ſize of three feet in diameter; it is very tall, ſtraight and tough; its leaves and bark are an antidote to the venom of the rattle-ſnake; the wood is eaſily riven, and makes durable rails for fences; it is alſo formed into oars and hand-ſpikes, and ſerves for the frames of ploughs, carts, ſleighs and riding carriages, and for the handles of many uſeful tools in agricultural and mechanical employments. 2. The other ſpecies is BLACK ASH, *fraxinus Americana*, of which the RED and YELLOW are varieties. Splints of

the wood of aſh are obtained by pounding it with a maul, and are employed in making baſkets and brooms: this knowledge was probably derived from the Indians. The roots of yellow aſh are uſed by turners for the making of plates and bowls.

After going through the catalogue of foreſt trees, it may be proper to obſerve, that all woods which grow on high land are more firm and ſolid, and better for timber or fuel, than thoſe which grow in ſwamps: the ſame difference may generally be obſerved between thoſe in the open grounds, and thoſe in the thick ſhade in the foreſt. The pine is an exception to this remark; but whether the immenſe age or ſuperior ſtature of the foreſt pine be the cauſes which render it more firm than that which is found in the paſtures, cannot at preſent be aſcertained.

From ſeveral experiments made by the Count de Buffon, it appears, that the wood of trees, ſtripped of their bark in the ſpring, and left to dry ſtanding till they are dead, is harder, heavier and ſtronger, more ſolid and durable, than that of trees felled in their bark; and that the ſappy part of wood without bark is not only ſtronger than the common, but much more ſo than the heart of wood in bark, though leſs heavy: the phyſical cauſe of this augmentation of ſtrength and ſolidity he thus explains: "Trees increaſe in ſize by additional coats of new wood, which is formed from the running ſap between the bark and the old wood. Trees ſtripped of their bark form none of theſe new coats, and though they live after the bark is taken off, they do not grow. The ſubſtance deſtined to form the new wood, finding itſelf ſtopped and obliged to fix in the void places both of the ſap and heart, augments the ſolidity and conſequently the ſtrength of the wood."*

Beſide the immenſe quantity of living wood with which the foreſt abounds, nature hath provided an ample ſtore of that foſſil, ligneous ſubſtance, called *peat*. It appears to be formed of the deciduous parts of trees and ſhrubs, preſerved in a peculiar manner in the earth; it is uſually found in ſwamps between or under hills, where it has been accumulating for many ages; the decayed vegetation of one period having ſerved as a ſoil in which another growth has taken root and come to maturity. In the town of Dover, in New-Hampſhire, are two ſwamps,

* Nat. Hiſt. Vol. v. p. 267. It muſt be obſerved, that his experiments were made on *oaks*.

which, within the laſt twenty-five years, have been cleared of the ſtumps and roots of the lateſt growth, which were pine and hemlock. In digging them up another tier of ſtumps was found under them, the roots of which were found; and in ſome inſtances a third ſtump appeared under the ſecond. In ſuch ſwamps is found the peat, in which the ſhape of twigs, bark and leaves, is very apparent, but on preſſure it is conſolidated into a ſoft fatty ſubſtance: this being dug in ſpits of a proper ſize, and dried becomes valuable fuel; of which, though at preſent little uſe is made, yet poſterity will doubtleſs reap the benefit.*

* The following letter on the ſubject of peat, though in oppoſition to the above principal of its origin, will need no apology for its inſertion; it appears to us ſufficiently important to claim the attention of the naturaliſt, and calculated to promote an inquiry that may be attended with many beneficial conſequences:

"I very much doubt your doctrine of *peat*. It appears to me to be a ſubſtance *ſui generis*. Deciduous parts of trees and ſhrubs are often found mixed with it. But its inflammable property, I conceive, does not depend on the mere adventitious collections of decayed vegetables; for although peat is found in places favourable to ſuch collections, yet it is not found in every place where thoſe collections have been made. Beſides, in all the peat I have examined, there are numerous fibres of a ſingular conſtruction, variouſly ramified; in ſome kinds they are extremely fine, in others as large as a packthread. When the peat is firſt taken from the pit, the threads may be traced a conſiderable length, and, when waſhed, they have an appearance which has induced me to ſuſpect a vegetable organization. If they are a living vegetable, they ſeem to form the link between the vegetable and foſſil kingdom. It ſeems moſt probable, if thoſe fibres are not vegetable *ſui generis*, they may be fibrous roots of a bed of ſome particular ſpecies of moſs, upon which there has been a large collection of matter, which has buried them a certain depth under ground, where they are not ſubject to putrefaction. But there ſeems to be an inflammable foſſil in the compoſition of peat, different from the earth commonly found in ſimilar places. I am told, ſome peat appears to be entirely a foſſil, though I have never ſeen any ſuch. It is as eaſy to conceive of ſuch a foſſil as of pit-coal. If the foſſil contains the inflammable principle, it is not derived from deciduous vegetables. Have you never heard of its growing again where it has been dug out? One of my neighbours has often told me, that a ditch was dug through a meadow in his farm many years ago, where there is a body of peat; that the depth of the ditch exceeded the depth of the peat; and that the peat has puſhed out on both ſides ſo as nearly to meet in the center, but the ſides of the ditch above and below remain much the ſame, except ſome little change which the length of time has produced. I have not ſeen the place; but were I aſſured of this fact, I ſhould be inclined to believe the fibres to be living vegetables, and the foſſil to be poſſeſſed of the property of ſpar, with regard to the increaſe of its bulk; and that theſe two ſubſtances were mutually dependent on each other."

MS. letter of Dr. Cutler to Mr. Belknap.

FLOWERING TREES, SHRUBS, &c.

Globe flower, - -	Cephalanthus occidentalis,
Pigeonberry, - -	Ciſſus ſicyoides,
Virginia dogwood, -	Cornus florida,
Conel, - -	Cornus Canadenſis,
Red-flowered honeyſuckle,	Azalea nudiflora,
White American honeyſuckle,	Azaleá viſcoſa,
American tea - -	Ceanothus Americanus,
Cherry honeyſuckle, -	Lonicera diervilla,
Virginia ſcarlet honeyſuckle,	Lonicera Virginiana,
Dwarf cherry honeyſuckle,	Lonicera Canadenſis,
Evergreen ſpindle tree,	Euonymus Americanus,
Virginian itea, - -	Itea Virginica,
Stag's horn ſumach, -	Rhus typhinum,
Black haw, - -	Viburnum prunifolium,
Blackberried elder, -	Sambucus nigra,
Redberried elder, -	Sambucus Canadenſis,
Scarlet-flowered horſe cheſnut,	Æſculus pavia,
Judas tree, - -	Cercis Canadenſis,
Great laurel, - -	Kalmia latifolia,
Dwarf laurel, - -	Kalmia anguſtifolia,
Thyme-leaved marſh ciſtus,	Ledum thymifolium,
American ſenna, -	Rhodora Canadenſis,
Roſe bay tree, - -	Rhododendrum maximum,
White pepper buſh, -	Andromeda arborea,
Red-bud andromeda, -	Andromeda racemoſa,
Bog evergreen, - -	Andromeda calyculata,
Carolina red-bud, -	Andromeda nitida,
Carolina iron-wood tree,	Andromeda plumata,
Carolinian ſyrianga, -	Philadelphus inodorus,
Sorbus tree, - -	Sorbus aucuparia,
Mountain aſh, - -	Sorbus Americana,
Service tree, - -	Meſpilus Canadenſis,
Medlar tree, - -	Meſpilus nivea,
Sweet-cented crab apple-tree,	Pyrus coronaria,
Meadow ſweet, -	Spiræa ſalicifolia,
Queen of the meadows,	Spiræa tomentoſa,
Canadian ſpiræa, -	Spiræa hypericifolia,
Wild roſe, - -	Roſa Carolina,
Pennſylvanian ſwamp roſe,	Roſa paluſtris,
Superb raſpberry, -	Rubus odoratus,
Carolian Fothergilla, -	Forthergilla gardeni,
Tulip tree, - -	Liriodendrum tulipifera.

Evergreen tulip tree,	Magnolia grandiflora,
Climing trumpet flower,	Bignonia radicans,
Virginian ſtewartia,	Stewartia malacodendron,
Franklin tree,	Franklinia alatamaha,
Locuſt tree,	Robinia pſeudo acacia,
Roſe-flowered locuſt tree,	Robinia roſea,
Swamp willow,	Salix cineria?
Red-flowered maple,	Acer rubrum,
Plane-tree,	Plantanus occidentalis,
Poplar,	Liriodendron tulipifera,
	Populus heterophylla,
Catalpa,	Bignonia catalpa,
Umbrella,	Magnolia tripetala,
Swamp laurel,	Magnolia glauca,
Cucumber tree,	Magnolia acuminata,
Portugal bay,	Laurus indica,
Red bay,	Laurus borbonia,
Laurel of the weſtern country,	Qu. ſpecies?
Wild pimento,	Laurus benzoin,
Saſſafras,	Laurus ſaſſafras,
Honey-locuſt,	Gleditſia,
Fringe or ſnow-drop tree,	Chionanthus Virginica,
Barberry,	Berberis vulgaris,
Holly,	Ilex aquifolium,
Cockſpur hawthorn,	Cratægus coccinea,
Spindle-tree,	Euonymus Europæus,
Papaw,	Annona triloba,
Candleberry myrtle,	Myrica cerifera,
Dwarf-laurel,	Kalmia anguſtifolia,
	Kalmia latifolia,*
Ivy,	Hedera quinquefolia,
Trumpet honeyſuckle,	Lonicera ſempervirens,
Upright honeyſuckle,	Azalea nudiflora,
Yellow jaſmine,	Bignonia ſempervirens,
	Calycanthus floridus,
American aloe,	Agave Virginica,
Sumach,	Rhus, Qu. ſpecies?
Poke,	Phytolacca decandra,
Long moſs,	Tillandſia Uſneoides.

* Called ivy with us.

WILD-FRUITS.

Black currant, - -	Ribes nigrum,*
Gooſeberry, - -	Ribes groſſularia,†
Prickly gooſeberry, -	Ribes cynoſbati,
Grapes, - -	Vitis,
The black grape, -	Vitis labruſca,
Fox grape, - -	Vitis vulpina,‡
Barberry buſh, -	Berberis vulgaris,
Whortleberry, - -	Vaccinium liguſtrinum,
Ditto, - -	Vaccinium uliginoſum,
Blueberry, - -	Vaccinium corymboſum,
White whortleberry, -	Vaccinium album,§
Indian gooſeberry, -	Vaccinium frondoſum,
Long-leaved whortleberry,	Vaccinium ſtamineum,
Craneberry, - -	Vaccinium oxycoccos, ‖

* The BLACK CURRANT, *ribes nigrum*, is a native of the American ſwamps, and is much improved by culture; it is not much uſed as food, but is an excellent medicine for a ſore mouth and throat. An excellent wine may be made from the fruit; we have drank ſome of the age of ſeven years equal to the beſt flavoured port.

† The WILD GOOSEBERRY, *ribes groſſularia*, is very common in the borders of woods, and has been greatly meliorated by cultivation.

‡ Of grapes they have two ſpecies. The BLACK GRAPE, *vitis labruſca*, and the FOX GRAPE, *vitis vulpina*. Of theſe there are ſeveral varieties. From the ſpecimens of foreign grapes, which ripen in their gardens, there is ſufficient reaſon to believe that the culture of vines, in favourable ſituations, might be attended with ſucceſs. This opinion is corroborated by the judgment of foreigners occaſionally reſident in America. Wine, and in large quantities, has lately been made by the French people at their new ſettlement on the Ohio river, from the native grapes, without any kind of cultivation. They collected the grapes promiſcuouſly from all the varieties growing in that country. By ſeparating them, wines of different, and no doubt ſome of them of a much better quality, might have been made. The native grape is propagated with great eaſe; its growth is luxuriant, overſpreading the higheſt trees in the foreſts, and by proper attention would afford an ample ſupply of wines in the northern as well as ſouthern States. The principal difficulty ſeems to be the want of a proper knowledge of the proceſs in making wine, and preparing it for uſe. As far as poſſible to remedy this, and to render the cultivation of the vine and the making of wines more an object of attention, we ſhall in another part of this work enter more fully into the ſubject.

§ The Americans have ſeveral ſpecies of WHORTLEBERRY, *vaccinium corymboſum*, which grow in great abundance, and ſerve as wholeſome and palatable food; ſome of them are dried for winter.

‖ The CRANEBERRY, *vaccinium oxycoccos*, is a fruit peculiar to America. The common ſpecies grows on a creeping vine in meadows. The branches of the vine take root at the joints, and overſpread the ground to the extent of an acre. The berries hang on very ſlender ſtalks; at firſt they are white, but turn red as

Yellow plum, - -	Prunus Americana,
Beach plum, -	Prunus maratima,
Cherokee plum, -	Prunus ſylveſtris fructu majori,
Wild plum, - -	Prunus ſylveſtris fructu minori,
Large black cherry, -	Prunus nigra,
Purple cherry, - -	Prunus Virginiana,
Wild red cherry, -	Prunus rubra,
Dwarf or choak cherry,	Prunus Canadenſis,
Mountain cherry, -	Prunus montana,
Service-tree, - -	Meſpilus Canadenſis,
Brambleberry, - -	Rubus occidentalis,*
Sawteat blackberry or bumble-kites, - -	Rubus fruticoſus,
Briar blackberry, -	Rubus moluccanus,
Dewberry, - -	Rubus hiſpidus,
Common raſpberry, -	Rubus idæus,†
Smooth-ſtalked raſpberry,	Rubus Canadenſis,
Superb raſpberry, -	Rubus odoratus,
Strawberry, -	Fragaria veſca,‡
Scarlet ſtrawberry, -	Fragaria Virginiana, Jeff.§
Mulberry, - -	Morus nigra,
Red mulberry. -	Morus rubra,
Crab apple, -	Pyrus coronaria. ‖

they ripen, and when full grown are of the ſize of a cherry. They yield an agreeable acid juice, and, when ſtewed and made into a jelly, are extremely cooling in a fever, and a delicious ſauce at the table. They may be kept a long time in water, and ſuffer no injury from the froſt. They are frequently ſent abroad, and are highly refreſhing at ſea. The beſt way to preſerve them for long voyages, is to put them up clean and dry, in bottles cloſely corked. There is another ſpecies of craneberry, which grows in cluſters on a buſh, but it is not ſo large nor ſo common as the other.

* The BRAMBLEBERRY, *rubus occidentalis*. The RUNNING BLACKBERRY, *rubus moluccanus*. The UPRIGHT BLACKBERRY, *rubus fruticoſus*, are alſo very common, eſpecially in the newly cleared land, and afford an agreeable refreſhment.

† The common RASPBERRY, *rubus idæus*, is found in the moſt exuberant plenty in the new plantations, and in the old, by the ſides of fields and roads. The SUPERB RASPBERRY, *rubus Canadenſis*, is larger and more delicate. Its bloſſom is purple, and its leaves are ſometimes a foot in diameter.

‡ The STRAWBERRY, *fragaria veſca*, in ſome parts of the country, is very luxuriant in new fields and paſtures, but it is capable of great improvement by cultivation.

§ The native ſtrawberry is much improved by cultivation, and produces a larger and better-flavoured fruit than the exotic.

‖ This is a genuine and diſtinct ſpecies of the apple; it grows in all parts of North-America which have been explored, from the Atlantic as far weſt as the

POISONOUS PLANTS.

The following indigenous vegetable productions, under certain circumſtances, operate as poiſons; ſome of which, however, have been brought into medicinal uſe, and repute for the cure of diſorders attended with ſpaſmodic affections. HEMLOCK, *cicuta;* the THORN APPLE, *datura ſtramonium;* the HENBANE, *hyoſcyamus niger;* and the NIGHT SHADE, *ſolanum nigrum.* Other poiſonous plants, are the IVY, *hedera helix;* the CREEPING IVY, or, as it is called by ſome, MERCURY, *rhus radicans,* the juice of which ſtains linen a deep and indelible black; the SWAMP SUMACH, *rhus toxico dendrum;* the WATER ELDER, *viburnum opulus;* the HERB CHRISTOPHER, *actea ſpicata;* the STINKING SNAKEWEED, *cliſſortia trifoliata;* and the WHITE HELLEBORE, *veratrum album.*

NUT FRUIT.

White oak, -	Quercus alba,
Red oak, and ſeveral other ſpecies with ſmaller fruit,	Quercus rubra,
Black walnut, -	Juglans nigra,
Butternut, or oilnut,	Juglans cathartica,
White, or round nut hiccory,	Juglans alba,
Shag-bark hiccory,	Juglans cineria,*
Cheſnut, - -	Fagus caſtanea,
Chinquipin, or dwarf cheſnut,	Fagus pumila,
Beech nut, - -	Fagus ſylvatica,
Hazlenut, - -	Corylus avellana,
Filbert, - -	Corylus cornuta.

We may here mention the paccon or Illinois nut,—juglans, alba, foliolis lanceolatis, acuminatis, ferratis, tomentoſis, fructu, minore, ovato, compreſſo, vix. inſculpto, dulci, putamine, tenerrimo.—*Jefferſon.* This nut is about the ſize of a large, long acorn, and of an oval form; the ſhell is eaſily cracked, and the kernel ſhaped like that of a walnut. The trees which bear this fruit grow, naturally, on the Miſſiſſippi and its branches, ſouth of forty degrees north latitude. They grow well when planted in the ſouthern Atlantic States.

Miſſiſſippi; its bloſſoms are remarkably fragrant; its fruit ſmall, poſſeſſing perhaps of all others the keeneſt acid. The European crab is a very different fruit. It makes an excellent vinegar, and the cyder made from it is much admired by thoſe who profeſs to be connoiſſeurs in that article.

* The ſame, probably, as Clayton's Scaly bark hiccory of Virginia,—juglans alba cortice ſquamoſo.

EXOTIC FRUITS.

Of theſe, apples are the moſt common in the United States. They grow in the greateſt plenty and variety in the eaſtern and middle States; and the cyder which is expreſſed from them, affords the moſt common and wholeſome liquor that is drank by the inhabitants.

The other exotic fruits are pears, peaches, quinces, mulberries, plums, cherries, currants, barberries, all of which, except quinces and barberries, they have many ſpecies and varieties. Theſe, with a few apricots and nectarines, flouriſh in the eaſtern States, and are in perfection in the middle States.*

The exotic fruits of the ſouthern States, beſides thoſe already mentioned, are figs, oranges, and lemons.

MEDICINAL PLANTS.

Among the native and uncultivated plants of New-England, the following have been employed for medicinal purpoſes:

Water horehound,	Lycopus Virginica,
Blue flag,	Iris Virginica,
Skunk cabbage,	Arum Americanum, Catelb. and Dracontium foetidum, Linn,
Partridge berry,	Mitchella repens,
Great, and marſh plantain,	Plantago major et maritima,
Witch hazel,	Hamamelis Virginica,
Hound's tongue,	Cynogloſſum officinale,
Comfrey,	Symphytum officin,
Bear's ear ſanicle,	Cortuſa gmelini,
Appleperu,	Datura ſtrammonium.
Bitterſweet,	Solanum dulca-mare,
Tivertwig, or Amer. mazerion,	Celaſtrus ſcandens,
Elm,†	Ulmus Americana,
Great laſerwort, & wild angelica,	Laſerpitium trilobum, et latifolium,
Angelica, or Amer. maſterwort,	Angelica lucida,

* "In regard to tree fruit," ſays Dr. Tenny of Exeter, in New-Hampſhire, in a letter to Dr. Belknap, "we are in too northern a climate to have it "of the firſt quality, without particular attention. New-York, New-Jerſey, "and Pennſylvania, have it in perfection. As you depart from that tract, either "ſouthward or northward, it degenerates. I believe, however, that good fruit "might be produced even in New-Hampſhire, with ſuitable attention."

Belknap's Hiſtory N. H. Vol. III. p. 140.

† The bark of the ſweet-elm is a moſt excellent mucilage.

Water elder,	Virburnum opulus,
Elder,	Sambucus nigra,
Chickweed,	Alsina media,
Pettimorrel, or life of man,	Aralina racemosa,
Sarsaparilla,	Aralia nudicaulis?
Marsh rosemary,	Statice limonium,
Sundew,	Drosera rotundifoli,
Solomon's seal,	Convallaria stellata?
Adder's tongue,	Convallaria bifolia,
Unicorn,	Aletris farinosa,
Sweet flag,	Acorus calamus,
Several species of dock,	Rumex,
Bistort,	Polygonum bistorta,
Spice wood, or fever bush,	Laurus benzoin,
Sassafras,	Laurus sassafras,
Consumption root,	Pyrola rotundifolia,
Rheumatism weed,	Pirola minor,
Mouse ear,	Cerastium viscosum,
Gargit, or skoke,	Phytolacca decandria,
Wild hyssop,	Lythrum hyssopis,
Agrimony,	Agrimonia cupatoria,
Common avens, or herb bennet,	Geum Virginia,
Water avens, or throat root,	Geum rivale,
Blood root, or puccoon,	Sanguinario Canadensis,
Celandine,	Chelidonium majus,
Yellow water lily,	Nymphæa luten,
Pond lily,	Nymphæa alba,
Golden thread, or mouth root,	Nigella?
Liverwort,	Anemone hepatica,
Crowsfoot,	Ranunculus Pennsylvania,
Germander,	Teucrum Virg.
Catmint, or catnip,	Nepea catarita,
Head Betony,	Betonica officinalis,
Horsemint, spearmint, water mint, and pennyroyal,	Mentha spicata, viridis, aquatica, et pulegium,
Ground ivy, or gill go over the ground,	Glecoma hederacea,
Hedge nettle,	Stachys sylvatica,
Horehound,	Marrubium vulgare,
Motherwort,	Leonorus cardiaca,
Wild majorum,	Origarum vulgare,
Wild lavender,	Trichostema?
Wood betony,	Pidicularis Canadensis,

Shepherds's purſe, or pouch,	Thalapſpi burſa paſtoris,
Water creſſes, - -	Siſymbrium naſturtium,
Cranes bill, - -	Geranium macrorhizum,
Marſh mallow, - -	Althæa officin,
Mallow, - -	Malva rotundifolia,
Succory, - -	Crepis harbata,
Burdock, - -	Actium lappa,
Devil's bit, - - -	Serratula amara,
The root reſembles the European devil's bit, - -	Scabioſa ſucciſa,*
Tanſey, - - -	Tanacetum vulgare,
Wormwood, - -	Artemiſia abſinthiani,
Life everlaſting, - -	Gnaphalium odoratiſſimum?
Colts foot, - -	Tuſſilago farfara,
Golden rod, - -	Solidago Canad.
Elecampane, - -	Inula helenium,
Mayweed, - - -	Anthemis cotula,
Yarrow, - - -	Achillea millefolia,
American pride, - -	Lobelia cardinalis,
Three other ſpecies of lobelia,	Lobelia dortmanna, kilmii, et ſphilitica,
Dragon root, - -	Arum Virginia,
Stinging nettle, - -	Urtica urens,
White walnut, butter nut, or oilnut, - - -	Juglans cathartica,
Swamp willow, - -	Salix cincrea?
Sweet gale, - -	Myrica gale,
White hellebore, or pokeroot,	Veratrum album,
Moonwort, - -	Oſmunda luneria,
Female fern, - -	Pteris caudata,
Hearts tongue, - -	Aſplenium ſcolopendrium,
Spleenwort, - -	Aſplenium ſalicifolium,
Black maidenhair, -	Aſplenum adiantum,
Arſmart, - - -	Polygonum ſagitatum. Linn.
Pink root,† - - -	
Senna, - - -	Caſſia liguſtrina,
Clivers, or gooſe graſs, -	Galium ſpurium,
Palma Chriſti, - -	Ricinus,‡
Several ſpecies of mallow, Indian phyſic, - -	Spiræa trifoliata,

* From which circumſtance the Engliſh name has probably been applied to this plant.

† An excellent vermifuge.

‡ From which the caſtor oil is expreſſed.

Euphorbial ipecacuanhæ, pleuriſy root, - -	Aſclepias decumbens,
Virgina ſnake root, -	Ariſtolochia ſerpentaria,
Black ſnake root, -	Actæa racemoſa,
Seneca rattle-ſnake root	Polygala Senega,
Valerian, - - -	Valeriana locuſta radiata,
Ginſeng, - - -	Panax quinquefolium,
Angelicas - - -	Angelica ſylveſteris,
Caſſava, - - -	Jatropha urens.

CULTIVATED GRASSES.

All the graſſes, cultivated in the middle, and New-England States, are found growing indigeous. It is not improbable, however, that ſome of them may be naturalized exotics. The following are the principal graſſes ſown in the cultivated ground, or in any way propagated for ſeed and hay;

Herd's graſs, or fox tail,	Alopecurus pratenſis,*
Blue graſs, - - -	Alopecurus geniculatus,
Many ſpecies of bent,	Agroſtis,
Rhode-Iſland bent, -	Agroſtis interrupta,
The ſmall and great Eng. graſs,	Poa trivialis et pratenſis,
Wire graſs,	Poa compreſſa,
Fowl meadow graſs, -	Poa aviaria, ſpiculis ſubifloris,†
Red and white clover,	Trifolium pratenſe et repens.

The graſſes of Virginia, according to Mr. Jefferſon, are lucerne, ſaint foin, burnet, timothy, ray, and orchard graſs, red, white, and yellow clover; greenſwerd, blue graſs and crab graſs. South of Virginia very little attention is paid to the cultivation of graſſes. The winters are ſo mild, that the cattle find a tolerable ſupply of food in the woods.

NATIVE GRASSES.

Beſides the cultivated graſſes, the States of New-England abound with a great variety which are found growing in their native ſoils and ſituations, many of which have not been deſcribed by any botanical writers. The ſmall experiments which have been made, ſufficiently evince that ſeveral of them make

* This is reckoned the beſt graſs the Americans have, is a native, aud ſuppoſed to be peculiar to the eaſtern and middle States.

† "The fowl meadows, on Neponſit river, between Debham and Stoughton, "are conſidered by ſome a curioſity. A large tract of land is there cleared and "ſowed with an excellent kind of graſs, without the aſſiſtance of man."

Dr. Fiſher.

excellent hay. They might be greatly improved by cultivation, and are highly worthy the attention of farmers. Thoſe which are found moſt common are the following, viz.

The vernal graſs, - -	Anthoxanthum odoratum,
Timothy, or bulbus cat's tail graſs - - -	Phleum pratenſe,
Several ſpecies of panic graſs,	Panicum,
Several ſpecies of bent, -	Agroſtis,
Hair graſs, - - -	Aira aquatica,
Numerous ſpecies of *poa*—quaking graſs, ſeveral ſpecies,	Briza,
Cock's foot graſs, - -	Dactylis glomerata,
Millet, - - -	Milium effuſum,
Feſcue graſs, many ſpecies,	Feſtuco,
Oat graſs, - - -	Avena ſpicata,
Reed graſs, ſeveral ſpecies,	Arundo,
Brome graſs, - -	Bromus ſquarroſus,
Lime graſs, - - -	Elymus hyſtrix,
Barley graſs, - -	Hordeum pratenſe,
Dog's, or couch graſs, -	Triticum repens,
Many ſpecies of ruſh graſs,	Juncus,
Numerous ſpecies of *carex*, in freſh and ſalt marſhy ground,	
Several ſpecies of beard graſs,	Andropogan,
Soft graſs, - - -	Holcus lanatus et odoratus.*

PULSE AND HORTULINE PLANTS AND ROOTS.

Beſides thoſe tranſplanted from Europe to America, of which they have all the various kinds that Europe produces, the following are natives of this country:

Potatoes, - - -	Solanum tuberoſum.
Ground nuts, a ſort of potatoe, probably a ſpecies, highly reliſhed by ſome people,	
Tobacco, - - -	Nicotiana,
Pumpkins, - - -	Cucurbita pepo,
Cymlings. - - -	Cucurbita verrucoſa,
Squaſhes, - - -	Cucurbito melopepo,

Cantelope melons, beans, peas, hops. Probably others.

* Beſides theſe, there are many valuable graſſes, which, at preſent, are non-deſcripts.

CULTIVATED GRAIN.

Indian corn, zea mays, a native grain of North-America. The varieties of this grain, occaſioned by a difference in ſoil, cultivation, and climate, are almoſt endleſs.* Winter and ſummer rye, ſecale cereale, hybernum et vernum, the only ſpecies cultivated by the American farmers. The winter rye ſucceeds beſt in ground newly cleared, but ſummer rye is frequently ſown in old towns, where the land has been long under cultivation. The winter and ſummer rye are the ſame ſpecies, forming two varieties; but the winter and ſummer wheat are two diſtinct ſpecies. Several ſpecies of barley are cultivated; the moſt common is the ſix, ranked hordeum hexaſtichon; and the two, ranked hordeum deſtichon. The wheat principally cultivated are the winter and ſummer triticum hybernum et æſtivum. Oats, avena ſativa. Buck wheat, polygonum fagopirum.

In the ſouthern States, as far north as Virginia, where the lands are ſuitable, beſides the grain already mentioned, they cultivate rice. This grain was brought into Carolina firſt by Sir Nathaniel Johnſon, in 1688; and afterwards more, and of a different kind, probably a variety, was imported by a ſhip from Madagaſcar, in 1696; till which time it was not much cultivated. It ſucceeds well alſo on the Ohio river, where it is planted both on the high and low grounds, and in the ſame fields with Indian corn and other grain. A gentleman who had planted it ſeveral years in his garden, informed Dr. Cutler that it yielded at the rate of eighty buſhels an acre. At Marietta, it has anſwered the moſt ſanguine expectations of the inhabitants, producing equal to any other grain, without being at any time overflowed with water. The doctor himſelf ſaw it growing in a very flouriſhing ſtate, on high land, but it had not, at the ſeaſon he ſaw it, began to bloom. It was ſaid not to be of the ſame ſpecies of Carolina rice, its probably the wild rice, which we have been informed grows in plenty, in ſome of the interior parts of North-America, and, is the moſt valuable of all ſpontaneous productions of the country. In Pennſylvania

* Of all the different kinds of Indian corn, botaniſts have been able to find but one *ſpecies*. The difference in this *genus* of plants is probably accidental, owing to the above mentioned cauſes. It is poſſible, however, that among theſe *varieties*, *ſpecific* characters may yet be found. What is called the *ſpiked Indian corn*, is probably only a *variety*. The plant commonly known in the ſouthern States by the name of *Guinea corn*, is of the family of graſſes, as are rye, wheat, barley, oats, &c.

grows a ſort of grain, called by the Germans *ſpelts*, which reſembles wheat, and is a very valuable grain.

The above liſts are all of them imperfect, and many of them contain but a ſmall proportion in their reſpective claſſes of the produce of the States; they are, however, all that can be procured till Dr. Cutler and Dr. Mitchell finiſh the work they have undertaken, and thus bring us better acquainted with the vegetable productions of America.

To the foregoing we ſubjoin a catalogue of ſuch foreign plants as have not been cultivated, or at moſt but partially, in the United States, but which are worthy of being encouraged in America for the purpoſes of medicine, agriculture and commerce. From a pamphlet by John Ellis, F. R. S. preſented by the Honourable Thomas Penn, Eſq. to the American Philoſophical Society, through the hands of Samuel Powell, Eſq.

Latin Names.	Engliſh Names	Obſervations.
Rubia peregrina	Turkey madder	The firſt is ſuppoſed to be the ſame that is now cultivated in Smyrna for a crimſon dye.
Rubia tinctorum	Dyers madder*	
Quercus ſuber	Cork-bearing oak	Grows in the ſouthern parts of France, Spain, and Portugal.
Quercus ægilops	Avellanea of valenida oak	The cups of the acorns, which are very large, and uſed in dying, grow in Greece and Natolia, particularly in the iſland of Zia in the Archipelago, where Tournefort ſays they gather in one year 5000 cwt.
Quercus gallifera	Gall-bearing oak	Galls from Aleppo and Smyrna. This oak is not yet known in England: the acorns may be brought over in wax, and ſent to the ſouthern States.

* This plant is a native of the warmeſt parts of Europe, and is better calculated for the climate of the ſouthern States than either of Holland or England, where it is cultivated; but principally in the former, from whence England is chiefly ſupplied with this valuable dye. The chemiſts ſay, and with reaſon, that the warmth of the climate exalts the colour. If ſo, it may be well worth attention to encourage the planting of ſo valuable an article of commerce in a climate and ſoil that ſeems ſo much better adapted to it, where the land is cheap, and where vegetation is ſo much quicker and more luxuriant; and while they encourage the growth of it, they may have the advantage of manufacturing this valuable commodity at home.

Latin Names.	Engliſh Names.	Obſervations.
Carthamus tinctorius	Safflower	Much uſed in dying, grows in Egypt.
Rhamus catharticus minor Rhamus ſaxatilis	Buckthorn that produce yellow berries of Avignon	Uſed by painters and dyers; both theſe plants produce berries fit for this purpoſe.
Olea Europa	Olives of ſeveral varieties	For oil; theſe grow in France, Spain, & Italy. Young plants and ripe fruit of the French and Spaniſh ſorts, may be carried from thence.
Seſamum orientale	Oily grain	Propagated in the Levant for oil, which does not ſoon grow rancid by keeping.
Goſſypium herbaceum Goſſypium hirſutum	Two ſorts of annual cotton	Both theſe kinds of annual cotton are yearly ſown in Turkey, and would grow well in Georgia, Carolina, Virginia, &c.
Salſola ſoda Salſola ſativa and chenopodium maritimum	Theſe kinds of glaſſwort for barilla	Theſe are ſown yearly in fields near the ſea in Spain, for making barilla, for ſoap, glaſs, &c.
Ceratonia ſiliqua	Locuſt tree, or St. John's bread	The pods are excellent food for hard working cattle, and uſed for this purpoſe on the ſea coaſt of Spain, where they are eaſily propagated from ſeeds or cuttings.
Piſtachia vera	Piſtachia tree	They are propagated about Aleppo, where the female or fruit-bearing ones are ingrafted on ſtocks raiſed from the nuts.
Piſtachia terebinthus	Chio turpentine tree	This kind of turpentine is uſed in medicine.
Piſtachia lentiſcus	Maſtic tree	Gum maſtic from the iſle of Scio; as this tree, commonly called lentiſcus, is doubted to be the genuine maſtic tree, ſeeds of the true kind may be procured from the iſle of Scio.

Latin Names.	Engliſh Names	Obſervations.
*Styrax officinale	Gum ſtorax tree	This tree grows in Italy, Syria, and India; but the warmer climates yield the beſt gum.
Convolvulus ſcammonia	Gum ſcammony	Seeds of the plant, from whence this excellent drug is procured, were ſent into England from Aleppo, by the late Dr. Alex. Ruſſel: it bears the climate very well, and produces ſeed in hot ſummers, but requires the warmer climates of Carolina, Georgia, &c. to make the gum reſin that flows from it a beneficial article of commerce. It is ſo frequently adulterated in Turkey, that, to have it genuine, it is well worth propagating in the U. States.
Papaver ſomniferum	True opium poppey	This is recommended to be ſown in the ſouthern States for the ſake of obtaining the opium pure.†
Caſſia ſenna	Alexandrian purging ſenna	This grows in Upper Egypt, and is brought from thence to Alexandria; it would not be difficult to procure the ſeeds of this uſeful drug.
Croton ſebiferum	Tallow tree of China	This plant grows in moiſt places in China, and is of great uſe in that country.

* There is a reſinous juice, which by age hardens into a ſolid brittle reſin, of a pungent, warm, balſamic taſte, and very fragrant ſmell, not unlike the ſtorax caſamita, heightened with a little ambergris, which is produced from the ſtyrax aceris folio of Ray, or liquidambar ſtyraciflua of Linnæus Spec. plant. 1418, which grows in perfection in the Floridas. This, Dr. Lewis, in his Materia Medica, p. 553, ſays, might be applied to valuable medicinal purpoſes.

The French, in Du Pratz' hiſtory of Louiſianna, ſpeak with rapture of its healing qualities, and the high eſteem it is in among the Indians of Florida, on account of its infinite virtues: it is known to the Engliſh by the name of the ſweet gum tree, and to the French by the name of copalm. This is well worth the attention of phyſicians, as they can have it genuine, whereas the ſtorax from the eaſt is often adulterated.

† The ſeed of this ſpecies of poppy is recommended by a phyſician of great eminence as proper for the ſame purpoſes of medicine as ſweet almonds are uſed. It is obſerved not to have the leaſt degree of a narcotic quality in it.

Latin Names.	Engliſh Names.	Obſervations.
Rheum palmatum	True rhubarb	The ſeed of this plant was bro't to England by Dr. Mounſey, F. R. S. from Moſcow, and appears by experiment to be the genuine true rhubarb of the ſhops, and is a moſt valuable acquiſition to a country, as it will grow well in a deep rich ſoil, inclining to a ſandy or gravelly loam, but not in too wet a ſituation, and may be cultivated in the warm parts of the States.
Calamus rotang pterocarpus draco dracæna draco	Three ſorts of gum dragon or dragon's blood	1. From a kind of cane in the Eaſt-Indies. 2. From Java and Surinam. 3. From the Canary and Madeira iſlands.
Dolichos ſoja	A kind of kid bean, called daidſu	Uſed for making ſoye,* or Indian ketchup. See Kæmpff. Amœnitat.
Laurus caſſia	Caſſia lignea tree	Grows in Sumatra.
Laurus cinamomum	Cinnamon tree	In Ceylon, Guadaloupe, and in moſt of our newly ceded iſlands.
Laur. camphora	Camphire tree†	In Japan, and in Sumatra, now in England in the green houſes

* The method of preparing Eaſt-India ſoye, or India ketchup.

Take a certain meaſure, for inſtance a gallon, of that ſort of kidney beans, called daidſu by the Japaneſe, and caravances by the Europeans; let them be boiled till they are ſoft; alſo a gallon of bruiſed wheat or barley, but wheat makes the blackeſt ſoye, and a gallon of common ſalt. Let the boiled caravances be mixed with the bruiſed wheat, and be kept covered cloſe a day and a night in a warm place, that it may ferment; then put the mixture of the caravances and wheat, together with the gallon of ſalt, into an earthen veſſel, with two gallons and a half of common water, and cover it up very cloſe. The next day ſtir it about well with a battering machine or mill *(rutabulum)* for ſeveral days, twice or thrice a day, in order to blend it more thoroughly together. This work muſt be continued two or three months, then ſtrain off and preſs out the liquor, and keep it up for uſe in wooden veſſels; the older it is the clearer it will be, and of ſo much more value. After it is preſſed out, you may pour on the remaining maſs more water, then ſtir it about violently, and in ſome days after you may preſs out more ſoye.

† The camphire from Sumatra is greatly preferable to that of Japan; we are not certain whether it is from a different ſpecies of tree, but it ſeems well worth

Latin Names.	Engliſh Names.	Obſervations.
		about London. It will grow freely where oranges and lemons do.
Cycas circinalis	Saga palm tree	In Java, and the warmeſt parts of the Eaſt-Indies.
Amyris Gileadenſis	True balm of Gilead tree*	Lately diſcovered in Arabia by Dr. Forſkall, and deſcribed by Dr. Linnæus in a late diſſertation.
Arundo bambo	The true bamboo cane	Of great uſe in China, and might be alſo in the American States.†
Anacardus Orientalis	Siam varniſh tree, called tonrack by the Japaneſe	The fruit of this is the Malacca bean, or marking nut, and the Oriental anacardium of the ſhops. This is the common varniſh of the Eaſt-Indies, as deſcribed by Kæmpffer.
Thea	Tea	From Japan and China. See Kæmpff. Amœnitates, p. 60.‡

inquiring into, as the effects of proportionable quantities in medicine are ſurpriſingly different, perhaps it may be owing to the great difference of heat in the climates.

* We have in the iſland of Jamaica, a ſpecies of tree of this genus, called by Linnæus amyris balſamifera. See Species Plantarum, p. 496. Sir Hans Sloane, in his Hiſtory of Jamaica, vol. II. p. 24, calls this tree lignum rhodium, from the odoriferous ſmell of its wood when burnt, which it diffuſes a great way; for which reaſon he believes it to be the tree that afforded the agreeable ſcent which Columbus perceived on the ſouth ſhore of Cuba, upon the diſcovery of that iſland, as is mentioned by ſeveral hiſtorians. Dr. Pat. Browne in his Hiſtory of Jamaica, p. 208, calls this tree white candlewood, or roſewood, and commends it much; he ſays it is very reſinous, burns freely, and affords a moſt agreeable ſmell; and that all the parts of this tree are full of warm and aromatic particles.—Quere. Whether it is not worth while to extract the balſam, as it agrees ſo near in character and genus with that moſt valuable drug the balſam of Mecca?

† The French had brought this moſt uſeful plant from the Eaſt-Indies to their Weſt-India iſlands; a few roots have been got from thence to Grenada, and will perhaps in time become familiar in our iſlands. But too much pains cannot be taken in the propagation of this plant, as its uſes are manifold and extenſive, both in building, and all kinds of domeſtic inſtruments.

‡ It is aſſerted by ſome people, that the green tea and the bohea tea are two different ſpecies, but without foundation; they are one and the ſame ſpecies. It is the nature of the ſoil, the culture and manner of gathering and drying the leaves, that makes the difference; for take a green tea tree and plant it in the bohea country, and it will produce bohea tea, and ſo the contrary. This is a fact atteſted by gentlemen now in London, that have reſided many years in China, and who have had great experience in this article.—This plant has been lately obtained, and grows well in Georgia, &c. as it is become a valuable article of commerce, it ſhould be encouraged to the utmoſt.

Latin Names.	Engliſh Names.	Obſervations.
Gardenia Florida	Umky of the Chineſe	Uſed in dying ſcarlet in China. The pulp that ſurrounds the ſeeds, gives in warm water a moſt excellent yellow colour, inclining to orange. See Philoſophical Tranſactions, vol. lii. p. 654, where there is an exact figure of it.
Magnifera Indica	Eaſt-India mango tree	This excellent fruit is much eſteemed in the Eaſt-Indies, and it is ſaid there is a tree of it now growing in the iſland of Madeira. By the deſcription which Dr. Solander gives of this fruit, at Rio Janeiro, in Brazil, it is not ſo good as the Eaſt-India ſort.
Morus papyrifera	Paper mulberry tree	Uſed for making paper in China and Japan. See Kæmpff. Amœnit. p. 467. This has been ſome time in the Engliſh gardens.
Cinchona officinalis	Jeſuits bark tree	This grows at Loxa, in the province of Peru; and could it be obtained ſo as to be cultivated in the American States, would be of infinite advantage.
Dorſtenia contrayerva	Contrayerva root	This grows in New Spain, Mexico, and Peru.
Smilax ſarſaparilla	Sarſaparilla root	It is brought from the bay of Campeachy, and the gulph of Honduras, where it grows in plenty, and might eaſily be propagated in the ſouthern States.
Copaifera officinalis	Balſam copaiva tree	In Brazil and Martinico.
Toluifera balſamum	Balſam tolu tree	This tree grows near Carthagena, in South-America.
Hymenea courbaril	The locuſt, or gum copal tree, for the fineſt tranſparent varniſh	This tree is known to yield the true gum copal, and that the difference between this and gum anime, may be owing to ſoil and heat of climate; it grows wild in the American iſlands, the Muſquito ſhore, and in Terra Firma.

Latin Names.	Engliſh names.	Obſervations.
Jalapium officinarum	True jalap	This plant is ſuppoſed by ſome to be a kind of bindweed or convolvulus, that grows near Mexico; by others it is tho't to be a ſpecies of Marvel of Peru. As we are uncertain of the genus, it is well worth inquiring into, as a moſt uſeful drug, in order to propagate it in the States, particularly the ſouthern.
Bixa orellana	Arnotto, for dying	This grows in all the warm climates of America. The French cultivate it, but what the Spaniards ſend is much richer in colour, and more valuable.
Mimoſa Senegal	Gum Senegal tree	This grows in Egypt, and in Senegal.
Mimoſa Nilotica	Gum arabic	In Egypt, from whence the ſeeds may be procured.
Ficus ſycomorus	True ſycamore of Zacheus	This is reckoned the moſt durable timber known. The repoſitories of the mummies found in Egypt, are made of this timber.
Ficus Carica	Turkey figs	Figs grow in the greateſt perfection in Carolina, and would become a valuable trade if they had the method of curing them as in Turkey.
Vitis apyrena	Currants, or Corinthian grapes	The cuttings of this vine might be procured from Zant.
Fraxinis ornus	Calabrian manna aſh*	This is worth trying in the ſouthern colonies, where the heats are violent in the ſummer. It is common in Engliſh nurſery gardens.
Amygdalus communis	Sweet almonds	Theſe would grow to great perfection in the ſouthern States.
Capparis ſpinoſa	Caper tree	This ſhrub requires a rocky ſoil to grow in, as it is found about Marſeilles and Toulon.

* There is no drug ſo liable to addulteration as this; and therefore it is a medicine ſo frequently in uſe among perſons of tender conſtitutions, eſpecially young children, great care ſhould be taken to have it genuine.

Latin Names.	Engliſh Names.	Obſervations.
Punica granatum*	Balauſtians or the bloſſoms of the double flowering pomegranate	This tree would thrive extremely well in the ſouthern States, and yield a profitable article in their bloſſoms. Plants of this kind are to be bought from moſt Engliſh nurſerymen.
Lichen roccella	Argal, canary-weed, or orchell	It is poſſible this valuable plant may be found in the American iſlands, as well as in the Canaries and Cape Verd iſlands.
Ciſtus ladanifera	Gum labdanum	In Spain and the Archipelago.
Bubon galbanum	Gum galbanum	In Ethiopia.
Paſtinaca opoponax	Gum opoponax	In Sicily.
Amomum cardamomum	Cardamums	In the Eaſt Indies.
Curcuma longa	Tumerick	In the Eaſt-Indies.
Aſtragalus tragacantha	Gum tragacanth, or gum dragon	In the ſouth of France and in Sicily.
Cucumis colycinthis	Coloquintida, or bitter apple	In Africa.
Gentiana lutea	Gentia	In the Alps, Appennines, and Pyrenees. To be had of the nurſerymen in England.
Similax China	China root	In China and in New-Spain.
Pimpinella aniſum	Aniſe ſeeds	In Egypt.
Gambogia gutta	Gamboge	In the Eaſt-Indies.
Quercus coccifera	Alkermes oak	About Marſeilles and Toulon.
Myrrha offic.	Gum myrrh	In Abyſſinia.
Benzionum offic.	Gum Benjamin	In Sumatra and Java.
Ammuniacum offic.	Gum ammoniacum	In Africa.
Balſamum Peruvianum	Natural balſam of Peru	In Peru.
Olibanum Thus maſcalum	Frankincenſe	In the Upper Egypt and interior parts of Africa.

* The ſingle flowering, or fruit-bearing pomegranate, will afford the moſt grateful addition to the fruits of the States, and a valuable medicine. The ripe fruit full of ſeeds is to be met with at the Engliſh fruit ſhops in the winter ſeaſon: from the ſeeds of ſuch fruit this tree may be eaſily propagated.

Latin Names.	Engliſh Names.	Obſervations.
Nux moſchata offic.	Nutmegs with mace	In Amboyna.
Caryophylus aromaticus	Cloves	In the Molucca iſlands.
Piper nigrum	Pepper	Sumatra.
Garcinia mongaſtona	Mangoſteens	A moſt delicious fruit, grows in Java, and in ſeveral parts of the Eaſt-Indies.
Lechee	Lechee of China	This fruit is highly commended by all perſons who have been in China.
Ipecacuanha	Ipecacuanha of the ſhops, or Brazilian root	A very uſeful medicine, and worthy of attention to propagate; it will grow in any warm climate.
Ferula aſſa fœtida	Aſſa fœtida, or devil's dung, called hing in the Malay language	The gum of this plant is much uſed in medicine. Kæmpff. 535 and 536.

To this catalogue may be added liquorice, ſaffron, and aloes ſocotrina, as well as many others of equal importance.

We ſhall here ſubjoin ſome directions for carrying over ſeeds and plants from diſtant countries in a ſtate of vegetation. Many valuable trees and plants grow in diſtant countries, as in Europe, and particularly in the northern provinces of China, about the latitude of forty degrees, which would thrive well in North-America, more eſpecially in the middle and ſouthern States, which lie about the ſame latitude. But as the diſtance is great, the manner of preſerving the ſeeds properly, ſo as to keep them in a ſtate of vegetation, is an affair of conſiderable conſequence and ſome difficulty; the following hints are therefore offered for that purpoſe.

In the firſt place it ought to be carefully attended to, that the ſeeds ſhould be perfectly ripe when they are gathered; and they ſhould be gathered, if poſſible, in dry weather; afterwards they ſhould be ſpread thin on paper or matts, in a dry airy room, but not in ſunſhine. The time neceſſary for this operation will vary according to the heat of the climate, or ſeaſon of the year, from a fortnight to a month, or perhaps two may be neceſſary; the hotter the ſeaſon, the leſs time will ſuffice. This is to carry off their ſuperfluous moiſture, which, if

confined, would immediately turn to mouldineſs, and end in rottenneſs.

As there are two methods that have ſucceeded, and put the Americans in poſſeſſion of ſeveral young plants of the true tea-tree of China, we ſhall mention them both, in order to aſſiſt the collector in conveying the ſeeds of many valuable plants.

The firſt is by covering them with bees-wax in the manner explained in Phil. Tranſact. vol. LVIII. p. 75.

It principally conſiſts in chuſing only ſuch ſeeds as are perfectly ſound and ripe. To prove this, ſome of them muſt be cut open to judge what ſituation the reſt may be in, taking care to lay aſide any that are outwardly defective, or marked with the wounds of inſects. When a proper choice of them is made, they ſhould be wiped extremely clean, to prevent any dirt or moiſture being incloſed; each ſeed then ſhould be rolled up carefully in a coat of ſoft bees-wax half an inch thick; the deep yellow Engliſh bees-wax is the beſt. When the number intended to be incloſed are covered, pour ſome bees-wax melted into a chip-box of ſeven inches long, four broad, and three deep, till it is above half full; and juſt before it begins to harden, while it is yet fluid, put in the ſeeds rolled up in rows till the box is near full; then pour over them ſome more wax while it is juſt fluid, taking care when it is cold to ſtop all the cracks or chinks that may have proceeded from the ſhrinking of the wax, with ſome very ſoft wax; then put on the cover of the box, and keep it in as cool and airy a place as poſſible.

The method of incloſing tea ſeeds ſingly in wax, and bringing them over in that ſtate, has been practiſed for ſome time; but few have ſucceeded, owing to the thinneſs of the coat of wax, or putting paper firſt round them, or incloſing them too moiſt.

To this we add a method that promiſes ſucceſs for carrying plants from different parts. As there is a good deal of difference in climates, it will be neceſſary to obſerve, that plants from warm climates ſhould be put on board ſo as to arrive in warm weather, otherwiſe they will be deſtroyed by the cold; and the ever-greens, which are the moſt curious, muſt be ſent in the winter months, while their juices are inactive, ſo as to arrive before the heats come on. If the plants ſent were planted in pots or boxes, and kept a year, they might be carried over with very little hazard; or even if they were firſt tranſplanted from the woods into a garden, till they had formed roots, they might be ſent with much more ſafety.

The ſize of the boxes that will be moſt convenient for ſtowing them on board merchant ſhips, where there is very little room to ſpare, ſhould be three feet long, fifteen inches broad, and from eighteen inches to two feet deep, according to the ſize of the young trees; but the ſmalleſt will be moſt likely to ſucceed, provided they are well rooted. There muſt be a narrow ledge nailed all round the inſide of the box, within ſix inches of the bottom, to faſten laths or packthread to form a kind of lattice-work, by which the plants may be the better ſecured in their places. If the plants are packed up juſt before the ſhip ſails, it will be ſo much the better.

When they are dug up, care muſt be taken to preſerve as much earth as can be about their roots; and if it ſhould fall off, it muſt be ſupplied with more earth, ſo as to form a ball about the roots of each plant, which muſt be ſurrounded with wet moſs, and carefully tied about with packthread, to keep the earth about the roots moiſt: perhaps it may be neceſſary to incloſe the moſs with ſome paper or broad leaves, that the packthread may bind the moſs the cloſer. Loamy earth will continue moiſt the longeſt. There muſt be three inches deep of wet moſs put into the bottom of the box, and the young trees placed in rows upright cloſe to each other, ſtuffing wet moſs in the vacancies between them and on the ſurface; over this, leaves ſhould be put to keep in the moiſture, and over them the laths are to be faſtened croſs and croſs to the ledges or packthreads to be laced to and fro, to keep the whole ſteady and tight. The lid of the box ſhould be either nailed down cloſe, or may have hinges and a padlock to ſecure it from being opened, as may be found neceſſary, with proper directions marked on it to keep the lid uppermoſt. There muſt be two handles fixed, one at each end, by which means there will be leſs danger of diſturbing the plants. Near the upper part of the ends of the box there muſt be ſeveral holes bored to give air; or, in making the box, there may be a narrow vacancy left between the boards of one-third of an inch wide, near the top, to let out the foul air: and perhaps it may be neceſſary to nail along the upper edge of theſe openings, liſt, or ſlips of ſail-cloth, to hang over them, to ſecure the plants from any ſpray of the ſea; and at the ſame time it will not prevent the air from paſſing through. Boxes with plants packed in this manner muſt be placed where the air is free, that is, out of the way of the foul air of the ſhip's hold.

The following method of preſerving ſeeds from turning rancid from their long confinement, and the heat of the climates

which they may paſs through, was communicated ſome years ago by the celebrated profeſſor Linnæus, of Upſal, in Sweden. He adviſes, that each ſort of ſeed ſhould be put up in ſeparate papers, with fine ſand among them, to abſorb any moiſture; dried, loamy or ſoapy earth may be tried. Theſe papers, he ſays, ſhould be packed cloſe in cylindrical glaſs, or earthen veſſels, and the mouths covered over with a bladder, or leather tied faſt round the rims. He then directs that theſe veſſels, with the ſeeds in them, ſhould be put into other veſſels, which ſhould be ſo large, that the inner veſſel may be covered on all ſides, for the ſpace of two inches, with the following mixture of ſalts. Half common culinary ſalt; the other half to conſiſt of two parts of ſaltpetre, and one part of ſal-ammoniac, both reduced to a powder, and all thoroughly mixed together, to be placed about the inner veſſel, rather moiſt than dry. This he calls a refrigeratory, and ſays, it will keep the ſeeds cool, and hinder putrefaction. Perhaps if ſmall tight boxes, or caſks or bottles of ſeeds were incloſed in caſks full of ſalts, it might be of the ſame uſe, provided the ſalts do not get at the ſeeds: and as ſal-ammoniac may not be eaſily met with, half common ſalt, and the other half ſaltpetre, or common ſalt alone, might anſwer the ſame end. But it would be very neceſſary to try both methods, to know whether the latter would anſwer the purpoſe of the former, as it would be attended with much leſs trouble, and might prove a uſeful method to ſeedſmen, in ſending ſeeds to warm climates.

The ſmalleſt ſeeds being very liable to loſe their vegetative power by long voyages through warm climates, it may be worth while to try the following experiment upon ſuch kinds as are known for certain to be found. Dip ſome ſquare pieces of cotton cloth in melted wax, and while it is ſoft and almoſt cold, ſtrew the ſurface of each piece over with each ſort of ſmall ſeed, then roll them up tight, and incloſe each roll in ſome ſoft bees-wax, wrapping up each of them in a piece of paper, with the name of the ſeed on it; theſe may be either ſurrounded as before with ſalts, or packed without the ſalts in a box, as is moſt convenient.

The ſeeds of many of the ſmall ſucculent fruits may be carried from very diſtant parts, by preſſing them together, ſqueezing out their watery juices, and drying them in ſmall cakes gradually, that they may become hard; they may be then wrapt up in white writing paper, not ſpongy, as this is apt to attract and retain moiſture; but we believe it will be found, that a covering of wax will be better than one of paper.

The Alpine ſtrawberry was firſt ſent to England in a letter from Turin to Henry Baker, Eſq. F. R. S. by preſſing the pulp with the ſeeds thin upon paper, and letting it dry before they were incloſed. The paper mulberry from China was brought to England about the year 1754, much in the ſame manner.

Theſe hints may prompt to try the larger ſucculent fruits; for inſtance, the mangoes, lechees, and others of this kind: If their fleſhy part, when they are very ripe, was brought to the conſiſtence of raiſins or dried figs, it would keep their kernels plump, and in this ſtate they might be better preſerved in wax than by any other method yet known. The ſame method may be tried for flower ſeeds and other ornamental plants for gardens, which have been but little attended to in the United States, and which therefore an European ſhould furniſh himſelf with if he means to reſide in the country part of the Union; the ſame attention may be neceſſary to ſtones and kernels of choice European fruits.

METHOD OF CLEARING AND CULTIVATING NEW LANDS.

Several methods of raiſing a crop on new land have been practiſed in the New-England States; the eaſieſt and cheapeſt was originally learned of the Indians, who never looked very far forward in their improvements: the method is that of girdling the trees, which is done by making a circular inciſion through the bark, and leaving them to die ſtanding: this operation is performed in the ſummer, and the ground is ſown in Auguſt, in general with winter rye, intermixed with graſs. The next year the trees do not put forth leaves, and the land having yielded a crop, becomes fit for paſture. This method helps poor ſettlers a little the firſt year; but the inconvenience of it is, that if the trees are left ſtanding, they are continually breaking and falling with the wind, which endangers the lives of cattle; and the ground being conſtantly encumbered by the falling trees, is leſs fit for mowing; ſo that if the labour be not effectually done at once, it muſt be done in a ſucceſſion of time.

Some have ſuppoſed, that the earth, being not at once, but by degrees expoſed to the ſun, preſerves its moiſture, and does not become ſo hard; but the experience of the beſt huſbandmen has exploded this opinion. The more able ſort of huſbandmen in the New-England States, therefore, chuſe the method of clearing the land at firſt, by cutting down all the trees without exception. The moſt eligible time for this operation

is the month of June, when the ſap is flowing and the leaves are formed on the trees: theſe leaves will not drop from the fallen trees, but remain till the next year, when, being dry, they help to ſpread the fire, which is then ſet to the trees. This is done in the firſt dry weather of the ſucceeding ſpring, and generally in May; but if the ground be too dry, the fire will burn deep and greatly injure the ſoil. There is therefore need of judgment to determine when the wood is dry enough to burn, and the ſoil wet enough to reſiſt the action of the fire: much depends on getting what is called a *good burn*, to prepare the ground for planting. To inſure this, the fallen trees are cut and piled, and the larger the pile the better chance there is for its being well burned. But if the land be intended for paſture only, the trees are cut down, and after the fire has deſtroyed the limbs, graſs is ſown, and the trunks of the trees are left to rot, which, in time, turn to good manure, and the paſture is durable.

Some huſbandmen prefer felling trees in the winter, or very early in the ſpring, before the ſnow is gone. The advantage of this method is, that there are fewer ſhoots from the ſtumps of the felled trees, than if they are cut in the ſummer; theſe ſhoots encumber the ground, and muſt be cut out of the way or deſtroyed by fire. The diſadvantage of cutting trees in the winter is, that they will not dry ſo ſoon, nor burn ſo well, as thoſe cut in the ſummer with the leaves on: beſides, the month of June is a time when not only the trees are eaſieſt to be cut, but the ſeed is in the ground, and people can better attend to this labour, than when they are preparing for their ſpring work, or have not finiſhed their winter employments: the days too are then at their greateſt length, and more labour can be done in the courſe of a day: this labour, however, is often paid for by the acre rather than by the day; and the price of felling an acre is from one to two dollars, according to the number and ſize of the trees.*

The burning of trees generally deſtroys the limbs and ſmaller trunks; the larger logs are left ſcorched on the ground, and ſometimes ſerve to fence the field. After the fire has had its effect, and is ſucceeded by rain, then is the time for planting. No plough is uſed, nor is it poſſible for one to paſs among the roots and ſtumps, but holes are made with a hoe in the looſe ſoil and aſhes, in which, the ſeed being dropped and covered,

* Belknap's Hiſtory of New-Hampſhire.

is left to the prolific hand of nature, no other culture being neceſſary or practicable, but the cutting of the fireweed, which ſpontaneouſly grows on all burnt land. This fireweed is an annual plant, with a ſucculent ſtalk and long jagged leaf; it grows to the height of five or ſix feet, according to the ſtrength of the aſhes: it bears a white flower, and has a winged ſeed, which is carried every where by the wind, but never vegetates, except on the aſhes of burnt wood; it exhauſts the ground, and injures the firſt crop, if it be not ſubdued, but after the ſecond year diſappears. About the ſecond or third year another weed, called pigeonberry, ſucceeds the fireweed, and remains till the graſs overcomes it: it riſes to the height of three feet, ſpreads much at the top, and bears bunches of black berries, on which pigeons feed.

When the trees are burnt later in the ſummer, wheat or rye is ſown, mixed with the ſeeds of graſs, on the new land; the ſeed is ſcattered on the ſurface, and raked in with a wooden or iron tooth-rake, or a hoe. The huſbandman knows on what kind of land to expect a crop from this mode of culture, and is ſeldom diſappointed. Sometimes a crop of Indian corn is raiſed the firſt year, and another of rye or wheat the ſecond year, and the land is ſown with graſs, which will turn it into paſture, or be fit for mowing, the third year. The firſt crop, in ſome land, and the two firſt crops in any good land, will repay the expenſe of all the labour. It is not an uncommon thing for people, who are uſed to this kind of huſbandry, to bring a tract of wilderneſs into graſs for the two firſt crops, the owner being at no expenſe but that of felling the trees and purchaſing the graſs ſeed. Many huſbandmen in the old towns buy lots of new land, and get them cleared and brought into graſs in this way, and paſture great numbers of cattle; the feed is excellent, and the cattle are ſoon fatted for the market.

Huſbandmen differ in their opinions concerning the advantages of tilling their new land the ſecond year: ſome ſuppoſe, that mixing and ſtirring the earth does it more good than the crop injures it: others ſay, that one crop is ſufficient before the land is laid down to graſs; and that if it be ſown with grain and graſs, as ſoon as it is cleared, the large crops of graſs which follow, will more than compenſate for one crop of grain. When the ſeeding with graſs is neglected, the ground becomes moſſy and hard, and muſt be ploughed before it will receive ſeed. Land thus ſown will not produce graſs ſo plentifully as that which is ſeeded immediately after the fire has run over it;

beſides, this neglected land is generally overſpread with cherry trees, raſpberry buſhes, and other wild growth, to ſubdue which much additional labour is required. In good land, the firſt crops of hay are, on an average, a ton to an acre. That land which is intended for mowing, and which takes the common graſs well at firſt, is ſeldom or never ploughed afterwards; but where clover is ſown, it muſt be ploughed and ſeeded every fourth or fifth year: good land, thus managed, will average two tons of clover to the acre.

Such is the proceſs of clearing and cultivating lands in the New-England States, for a further view of the productions of which the reader is referred to the hiſtory of thoſe States.* A few additional remarks, however, may be neceſſary on the ſubject of tree fruit. Theſe States are certainly too far north to have it in perfection, *i. e.* of the firſt quality, without particular attention. New-York, New-Jerſey and Pennſylvania, have it in perfection. Depart from that tract, either ſouthward or northward, and it degenerates. We believe, however, that good fruit might be produced even in New-Hampſhire, with ſuitable attention: a proof of this is, that ſometimes they have it. In theorizing on the ſubject, three things appear to us particularly neceſſary, all which are totally neglected by the generality of American huſbandmen. The *firſt*, after procuring thrifty young trees of the beſt kinds, and grafting ſuch as require it, is to chuſe a ſituation for them, where they may have the advantage of a warm rich ſoil, and be well ſheltered from the chilling blaſts of the ocean. The *ſecond* is to keep the trees free from ſuperfluous branches, by a frequent uſe of the pruning hook, and the earth always looſe about their roots. The *third* is to defend the trees from inſects, particularly thoſe which by feeding on the fruit render it ſmall and knotty, as we frequently find apples and pears; or by depoſiting their eggs in the embryo, occaſion its falling off before it comes to maturity, as is obſervable in the various kinds of plums. But moſt of the farmers go on in the path traced out by their anceſtors, and are generally averſe to making experiments, the reſult of which is uncertain, or to adopting new modes of huſbandry, the advantages of which are in the ſmalleſt degree problematical. There are few cultivators among them who theorize, and ſtill fewer who read and think.

* Vol. II.

In the middle States, when a ſettler fixes on a ſpot of land, which he uſually buys, paying for it in gales, his firſt care is to cut down a few trees to build his log-houſe. A man can cut down and lop from twenty to thirty in a day of the ſize proper for the purpoſe. Theſe form the walls of the building. In general, the log cabins of this kind are ſuch as half a dozen men will eaſily finiſh in three or four days. Ten guineas worth of labour thus emyloyed, will lodge a family quite as comfortable as in the better kind of cottages in England.

He then proceeds to grub the land, *i. e.* to take up the ſmall trees, ſhoots, and underwood, by the roots: theſe are burnt upon the ground. In a general way this may be contracted for at about twenty ſhillings an acre. It is generally reckoned to coſt uſually five days work of a man to whom, as it is very hard work, the pay is three ſhillings a day, finding him in victuals, and allowing him a dram of whiſkey morning and evening. The price of this kind of work will eaſily be conceived to vary according to circumſtances. Where land is heavily timbered with trees of two or three feet diameter, as it is about the heads of the creeks, and on the iſlands of the Suſquehannah, the underwood is in ſmall proportion, but the expenſe of clearing much greater.

The land being grubbed, the trees immediately about the houſe are cut down, and for the preſent another portion is girdled only. This proceſs, deſtroying the vegetation of the branches, lets in the light and air ſufficiently to enſure a crop the next ſeaſon. The trees cut down are ſplit into a kind of rail for fences, which are made by laying theſe pieces angularwiſe one on the top of another, to the height of ſix or ſeven in number, much in the ſame way as the logs of a houſe are laid on each other, but ſlanting in alternate directions. A poſt and rail fence is not thought of till ſome years afterwards. In new land, after grubbing and girdling, *i. e.* taking up the underwood, and cutting through the bark of the larger trees in a circle all round the trunk, which prevents the leaves from growing next ſeaſon; he plows about two inches and a half deep, then acroſs; then ſows the ſeed and harrows it. Upon the average of his land, his crop of wheat is not above twelve buſhels per acre; of oats from fifteen to twenty.*

* In England we apprehend, the average wheat crop per ſtatute acre is at leaſt twenty buſhels. The average of the Iſle of Wight in 1793, was at leaſt thirty-five buſhels. The average of the whole State of Pennſylvania cannot be reckoned at above ten or twelve. Maryland the ſame. This is owing to the neglect of manures, to the repeated working of the ſame ground with crops of grain till

The trees cut down are never rooted up. The value of the land gained will not pay the expenſe of doing this. They are cut off about eighteen inches or two feet from the ground. The ſide roots are obſtructions to the plough for about two years, when they are completely rotted. The ſtumps in New-York and Pennſylvania States do not rot away completely under ten years; in Virginia and Maryland this happens in about ſeven. It appears, that by cutting off the tree a few inches below the ſurface of the ground, and covering the ſtump with mould, the expenſe would not be much increaſed, the deformity, which is indeed a great one in an American landſcape, would be prevented, and the proceſs of putrefaction accelerated. We never heard of but one perſon, Lord Stirling in New-Jerſey, who had his trees rooted up; and we are inclined to think it was done at an expenſe much beyond the convenience gained.

The expenſe of clearing heavily timbered land is conſiderable, ſometimes to the amount of five and ſix pounds per acre, but the great fertility of this kind of land affords ample recompence. In general the whole expenſe is not forty ſhillings an acre. One-half or two-thirds of the expenſe of clearing land in New-York State is repaid by the pot-aſh obtained in burning the wood. In Pennſylvania, and the ſouthern States, the back ſettlers are not ſo much in the practice of this uſeful method. The land ſurveyors have four pounds per thouſand acres for ſurveying a tract of land, and making return of it; but as the owner finds labourers and proviſions, theſe, with other incidental expenſes, will make the coſt of ſurveying altogether about twenty ſhillings per hundred acres.

Planters of any conſequence frequently have a ſmall diſtillery as a part of their eſtabliſhment. A Mr. White on the banks of the Suſquehannah near Sunbury, has one which may ſerve as a ſpecimen of this kind: he has two ſtills, the one holding ſixty, the other one hundred and fifteen gallons. To a buſhel and a half of rye coarſely ground, he adds a gallon of malt and a handful of hops; he then pours on fifteen gallons of hot water, and lets it remain four hours, then adds ſixteen gallons and a half more of hot water, making together a barrel of thirty-one

it will bear no more, and to the very ſlight labour they beſtow upon their tillage. It muſt be conſidered alſo, that much of the land is occupied by the ſtumps of trees not rotted, and never grubbed up.

But though in America leſs grain is produced per acre than in England, they get more per man. There, land is plentiful and labour ſcarce. In England it is the reverſe. Hence the accuracy of Britiſh, and careleſſneſs of American cultivation.

gallons and a half; this is fermented with about two quarts of yeaſt. In ſummer the fermentation laſts four days, in winter ſix; of this waſh he puts to the amount of a hogſhead in the larger ſtill, and draws off about fifteen gallons of weak ſpirit, which is afterward rectified in the ſmaller ſtill, ſeldom more than once. One buſhel of rye will produce about eleven quarts of ſaleable whiſkey, which fetches per gallon four ſhillings and ſixpence by the barrel. *Whiſkey* in England is uſually a ſpirit drawn from oats. The rye produces the baſis of gin.

We have no doubt but barley could be well grown, and well malted and brewed, in almoſt any part of America; and beer might be more generally introduced. The American ſmall beer, as well as the porter, is at preſent very good; and as there is no exciſe upon malt, nor upon malt-liquor; as grain is cheap, and the materials of a brewery to be had for little or nothing, it is rather ſurpriſing that breweries are not more generally eſtabliſhed.

The beſt view of the huſbandry of the middle States, and the cleareſt ideas on the ſubject, may be obtained from obſervations on a farm of a medium extent—ſuch a one occurs at Paxtang, in the State of Pennſylvania, in the poſſeſſion of a Mr. M'Alliſter, a ſpirited and intelligent farmer; and as his place will afford a favourable ſpecimen of an American plantation, we ſhall detail his eſtabliſhment.

His *farm* is about three hundred acres, near the river; a ſandy ſoil, earlier in vegetation by ten days or a fortnight than the higher lands at a diſtance. About one third of this quantity is in cultivation, the reſt in wood.

The rotation of his *crops* are grain; then clover mown twice the firſt year, and once the ſecond year. In autumn, it is turned in, and grain again, of ſome kind, ſown upon the ſame land.

He *manures* for his crops either with dung, with aſhes, or with plaiſter of Paris. It does not appear that he has any ſyſtem of proportion between cattle and land, for the purpoſe of procuring a regular ſupply of manure. The plaiſter of Paris he procures in the ſtone from Philadelphia, formerly at ſeven, now at twelve dollars per ton: he grinds it at home; one ton yields twenty-four buſhels. The French plaiſter of Paris is much the beſt; the Nova-Scotia plaiſter is not ſo good. It will not anſwer at all as a manure upon wet lands, but anſwers well on hot ſandy ſoils, which it preſerves moiſter than they would otherwiſe be during the heats of ſummer. He ſows the plaiſter in powder with clover, five or ſix buſhels to the acre.

His average produce is of wheat and rye about twenty-three buſhels to the acre, corn, (maize) and oats about thirty buſhels. Weight of a buſhel of wheat from ſixty pounds, which is the market weight, to ſixty-five pounds; of rye about fifty-eight pounds; oats about thirty-five pounds; corn, the white flint kind ſown the firſt week of May, about ſixty pounds per buſhel. The gourd-ſeed, maize, yields larger crops, but it is a late grain.

By means of his plaiſter manure he obtains at two mowings, per annum, three ton and a half of hay per acre. The hay is ready to be ſtacked uſually the day after it is cut.

His prices of produce and labour are to huſbandmen twenty-five pounds a year, with board, waſhing, and lodging; or ſix dollars a month, or two ſhillings and ſix-pence a day in common, and three ſhillings in harveſt time. For mowing an acre he pays three ſhillings, finding victuals and a pint of whiſky, or four and ſix-pence without finding any thing elſe. Women in reaping have as much wages as men, but at hay-making only fifteen-pence a day, and their victuals. The price of wheat is ſix ſhillings and ſix-pence a buſhel; maize three ſhillings and nine-pence; rye four to five ſhillings; oats two to two ſhillings and ſix-pence; buck-wheat two ſhillings and ſix-pence; ſalted pork thirty-three ſhillings per cwt.

His ploughs are the common light ploughs of the country. Drill ploughs are little in uſe: in moſt parts, the ſtumps of trees would prevent their being uſed. He has rejected the hoe-plough: firſt, becauſe he finds it cuts off too many of the young fibres of the plants; and ſecondly, becauſe the land is too dry to require the furrow. In lieu of the hoe, he harrows the ground, without regarding the grain, ſo as to lay it quite flat and deſtroy the ridge and furrow. This, he ſays, has been the practice in the neighbourhood for two years paſt, with ſucceſs.

In *feeding* his cattle, he makes it a rule to give them as much as they will eat. The cows, beſides clover-hay, and Timothy-hay, have potatoes mixed with ground Indian corn, and the waſh of the diſtillery. The hogs the ſame. His cows, however, even in ſpring do not yield above five or ſix quarts of milk at a meal. Here, as almoſt every where in America, Indian corn is the food the of the poultry.

Inſtead of the chaff-cutting machine, which he now uſes, he propoſes to bruiſe the hay between two mill-ſtones, of which the edges come contact: he has tried this in a ſmall way, and finds the hay much better and more expeditiouſly cut than by the chaff-cutter.

His *fences* are partly the common ſtake fence of the country, which we have before deſcribed, of wood ſplit into lengths of ſix or ſeven feet, and three or four inches ſcantling, and laid upon each other angular-wiſe: partly a chevaux de frize fence of wood ſtuck in the ground, and partly the common poſt and rail fence. He has tried thorn and privet hedges without ſucceſs. He then turned his attention to the prickly locuſt as an indigenous plant of the country. The ſeeds of this tree are contained in a pod like a bean, and it is extremely common in Pennſylvania. He ran a furrow with a plough about two or three inches deep, round his orchard, drilling in the ſeeds and covering them; but from the want of a ridge being previouſly thrown up, ſome heavy rains, which ſucceeded in about ten days, waſhed away a great many of the ſeeds, and rendered the fence incomplete. Thoſe ſtanding are about four years old, from the ſeed. They are as thick as a man's arm, at about a foot from the ground, and eight or nine feet high; and had they been dubbed, would have been a very complete fence, but the rains having ſpoiled the firſt plan, he neglected them. The one-year ſhoots of the locuſt-tree laid along the furrow, would have thrown out ſprouts. Perhaps this would be the eaſieſt method of planting them for a hedge. M'Alliſter ſays, that were he to go upon a new farm, of a thouſand acres for inſtance, of uncleared land, his firſt object ſhould be to cut a road of about two rood in width all round the eſtate. The heavy wood he would cut up for fences or fire wood, or ſuch other purpoſes as it might be fit for; the bruſh wood he would lay in two piles on each ſide this new road: between theſe he would ſow or plant locuſt, and by the time the bruſh wood was rotten, the locuſt would be a fence. The next operation ſhould be to plant an orchard, and erect a ſaw mill. Theſe ideas appear to be judicious.

His garden produces very fine grapes and ſtrawberries. The dry ſandy land there ſeems well adapted to the culture of the vine. A German in his neighbourhood, who poſſeſſes a very ſmall farm, has made every year lately three or four barrels of wine, which M'Alliſter, who has taſted it, thinks very good. He has no doubt whatever of the practicability of making good wine in Pennſylvania. This agrees with other information of perſons, who having ſucceeded in the ſmall way, are planting regular vineyards. Indeed there is a ſociety formed at Philadelphia for the promotion of the culture of vineyards, and there does not appear the ſlighteſt obſtacle to the ſucceſs of the attempt. Certainly the Rhine grape, which promiſes fair at Sir

Richard Worſley's vineyard in the Iſle of Wight, is much more likely to ſucceed in the middle and ſouthern States of America.

M'Alliſter's orchard contains thirty acres of ground, and one thouſand ſix hundred apple trees, part of them planted eight, and part thirteen years ago. They are two rood, thirty-three feet, apart. The year, 1793, was a very bad year for apples, and he made only fifteen barrels of cyder; the year before he made ſix hundred barrels, and if 1794 proved a good year, he expected to make one thouſand from his orchard. He ſuppoſes his trees in this caſe likely to yield ten buſhels of apples on the average. Perhaps this is the leaſt troubleſome and moſt profitable application of the ground. When the general appearance of the orchard has a red tinge, the trees are healthy. Againſt the grub he uſes a decoction of tobacco. He has ſeveral peach trees, but they have not long been planted. But one plum tree of the damaſcene kind, and a few pear, or apricot, and no nectarine trees. He gives ſixpence a piece for apple and peach trees, about three or four years old, that is fit to plant out. Peach trees grow about the thickneſs of the thumb, and four or five feet high in one year, from the ſtone, and bear fruit in four years from the ſtone. Cyder uſually ſells at ten ſhillings and twelve ſhillings per barrel, of thirty-one gallons and a half, but 1793 being a bad year, it ſold for three dollars per barrel, *i. e.* thirteen ſhillings and ſix-pence ſterling, one pound two ſhillings and ſix-pence currency. His cyder-preſs conſiſts of two caſt-iron cog wheels, about one foot diameter, with ſlanting cogs, turning vertically; theſe he means to change for wooden wheels, owing to the action of the acid upon the iron: they are fed with apples by a hopper; the motion is given by a horſe moving round. The maſh of apples thus produced, is put into a kind of caſe, and preſſed, not by a ſcrew, but by one end of a maſſy beam, which is forced down by means of the other end being raiſed by a lever. A man depreſſes the lever, which raiſes the neareſt, and depreſſes the fartheſt end of the beam. The juice is thus forced upon a a platform about ſeven feet ſquare, with a groove all round, and an outlet for the juice from one of the grooves; the beam is about twenty-five feet long, and about fifteen inches ſquare; the frames in which it moves, about twenty feet high: he ſometimes finds a difficulty in clearing his cyder, which he has not yet conquered. In England this is not an eaſy part of the proceſs nor is the beſt mode of doing it ſettled among the cyder makers. In the warmer climate of America, the liquor will be ſtill more liable to ſpontaneous fermentation after being once fined. The

cyder, however, of Pennſylvania, is much ſuperior, in flavour at leaſt, to the Britiſh.

He has a fiſh-pond of two or three acres, in which he keeps all the kinds of fiſh which the river produces. The waſte water from the fiſh pond is applied to ſeveral purpoſes, particularly to irrigate a quantity of meadow ground at half a mile diſtance. The Americans ſeem more alive to the benefit of irrigation than any other kind of agricultural improvement.

He has a diſtillery, much on the ſame plan as that already noticed; it is managed by a profeſſed diſtiller, who receives one third of the ſpirit produced for his trouble.

He has a ſmokery for bacon, hams, &c. it is a room about twelve feet ſquare, built of dry wood, a fire place in the middle, the roof conical, with nails in the rafters to hang meat intended to be ſmoked. In this caſe a fire is made on the floor in the middle of the building in the morning, which it is not neceſſary to renew during the day: this is done four or five days ſucceſſively. The vent for the ſmoke is through the crevices of the boards. The meat is never taken out till it is uſed. If the walls are of ſtone, or green wood, the meat is apt to mould.

His ſaw mill, which coſt about one hundred pounds, conſiſts of an underſhot water wheel, with a crank, which in its revolution moves one ſaw in a frame up and down. Another movement is annexed, by which a ratchet wheel is puſhed on, and this moves the logs forward in a frame; to the frame are annexed pins, which, when the ſaw has paſſed through the log, throws the works in and out of geer; one ſaw working one thouſand feet a day, is as much as that neighbourhood can at preſent keep employed, and the machinery is leſs complicated than if it worked more ſaws, and is about ſufficient to keep one man employed in attending it, ſupplying it with logs, and removing the planks as they are cut. This ſawyer has for wages ſix-pence per one hundred feet; in eighteen hours the ſaw will cut two thouſand two hundred feet. M'Alliſter receives from two ſhillings to two ſhillings and ſix-pence per one hundred feet. He purchaſes the logs from people who live up the country, and they ſend them down in rafts: he pays from two ſhillings and ſix-pence to three ſhillings a piece for logs of from fifteen to twenty feet long, and about a foot diameter; they come down in rafts conſiſting of from fifty to one hundred logs broad, and one eight or ten feet longer than the reſt, faſtened acroſs the reſt with withy

twigs; the projecting ends of the long croſs log anſwer for the purpoſe of ſteering by.

His griſt mill coſt about eight hundred pounds; he lets it out to a tenant. A load of wheat is ſixty buſhels, which coſts twenty-five ſhillings grinding, the farmer having the offal, *i. e.* the ſeconds, middlings, and bran. The waſte in grinding is about twelve pounds per cwt. Sixty buſhels of wheat make twelve barrels of flour, of one hundred and ninety-ſix pounds each, nett, *i. e.* ſomewhat more than three buſhels to one cwt. The offal is worth about three pounds a load: barrels coſt about one ſhilling and eight-pence each; if too green, they turn the flour ſour. The offal pays the expenſe of grinding and barrels. Flour ſells at Philadelphia for about forty-five ſhillings a barrel.* It is ſent thither from Paxtang, M'Alliſter's, by way of Newport, at ten ſhillings a barrel.

The details given reſpecting Mr. M'Alliſter's eſtabliſhment may appear long, but we were anxious to convey clear ideas of the actual ſtate and mode of living of the American planters, of which this is a fair, though a favourable ſpecimen. Comfortable as it is, M'Alliſter, like almoſt all the Americans, having improved the land he occupies, is not ſo attached to the ſpot as to be unwilling to remove to the wilderneſs of the back country, to ſee a new creation of the ſame kind form around him, the produce of his own exertions.

In the beſt cultivated parts of the middle States, the courſe of crops appear to be:

Firſt.---Indian corn, ſown from the middle of May to the firſt week in June, in hills about four feet apart each way, dropping three or four ſeeds in a hole. This is uſually gathered off time enough to ſow wheat in the fall of the year, though the Indian corn will ſtand without damage into the winter.

Second crop is wheat, for which the ground is prepared by two hoe plowings between the corn in the preceding ſummer, the plough going up one ſide of a ridge and down the other, and the ſame tranſverſely, which earths up the corn (maize) in the form of a hillock. The wheat is reaped at the uſual time, in the latter end of the ſummer. In the ſpring of this ſecond year, however, clover is ſown among the wheat, and when the latter crop is gotten off the ground, a few cattle are

* In the latter end of the year 1793, at Philadelphia, it had riſen to forty-ſeven and forty-eight ſhillings.

turned into the clover for a ſhort time, juſt to top it, but not to eat it cloſe.

Third and fourth year, clover mown twice in each year. After the laſt mowing in the autumn of the fourth year, the ground is plowed and fallowed till May, when in the fifth year, Indian corn comes on again.

Sometimes rye or winter barley is ſubſtituted for wheat, and ſometimes oats for Indian corn, in which caſe the oats are ſown in April. Frequently the ground is made to yield an autumnal crop of buck wheat, making two corn crops in one year, in which caſe the buck wheat is ſown in June, before the wheat harveſt, and is cut juſt before the November froſts. The fall, autumnal, crops are uſually ſown as near the middle of September as poſſible. There, as in England, white clover is the produce of lime-ſtone ſoil.

In the ſouthern States, and what is called the weſtern territory, the method of preparing and cultivating new lands is ſimilar to the middle States, except in the cultivation of tobacco, rice, indigo, &c.

CULTURE OF TOBACCO.

With reſpect to the culture of tobacco, it is an art that every planter thinks he is a proficient in, but which few rightly underſtand. A man who wiſhes to make fine tobacco, ſhould be very particular in the choice of his ſeed; we mean as to the kind. We do not know a greater variety of any kind of vegetable than of tobacco; from the ſweet-ſcented; the beſt ſort, to the thick-jointed, a coarſe kind of tobacco, but of which we think the moſt can be made. We would recommend to a gentleman who would wiſh for the reputation of a good planter, to cultivate the true ſweet-ſcented.

When he has choſen his ſeed, let him prepare the beds in which he intends to ſow it, very fine; when thus prepared, they muſt be burned with corn ſtalks, in order to deſtroy the ſeeds of weeds and graſs, which, even when he has done the beſt with his beds, he will find very troubleſome and difficult to extirpate. The beſt time for ſowing the ſeed is as early after Chriſtmas as the weather will permit. When ſown in beds, prepared as above directed, which ſhould be done as ſoon as poſſible after they are burned, inſtead of raking in the ſeed, the beds ſhould either be patted with boards, or gently trodden with naked feet. This being done, the next care is the covering them warmly with cedar or pine bruſh, to defend the young plants from the froſt.

After all his trouble and care, the planter's hopes are often blaſted by a little fly, which frequently deſtroys the plants when they firſt come up, and very often when they are grown to a moderate ſize; no certain remedy againſt them has yet been diſcovered: we have, indeed, heard, that ſulphur will deſtroy them, and we believe it will; but it muſt be often repeated, and will be too expenſive. We think that a pretty ſtrong infuſion of ſaſſafras root bark, ſprinkled frequently over the beds, would deſtroy thoſe inſects; and we judge ſo, becauſe its effects have been experienced upon the lice, a kind of fly that infeſts cabbages. Drought will alſo deſtroy the plants, even where they are large in the beds; the planter ſhould, therefore, before the drought has continued too long, water his plants night and morning, until he has a good rain. From theſe enemies to plants, the neceſſity of having ſeveral beds differently ſituated, ſome convenient to water in ſwamps, and ſome on high ground well expoſed, will be ſeen. Thoſe plants at a proper ſize, as opportunity offers, are to be tranſplanted into hills at three feet diſtance.

Here it may be neceſſary to give ſome directions as to preparing the ground to receive the plants, and to notice what kind of ſoil is beſt adapted to tobacco. The ſame kind of land that is proper for wheat, is ſo for tobacco, neither of them delighting in a ſandy ſoil. We do not think a clayey ſtiff ſoil will ſuit tobacco; however, let the ſoil be ſtiff or light, it ought to be made very rich, by cow-penning it on the ſward, or by ſpreading farm-yard manure over it, except it is ſtrong new land. We would recommend that the hills ſhould be made in the autumn, and at about the diſtance of three feet, or three and a half in the row and ſtep; by this means it has a larger ſurface expoſed to the froſt, which will aſſiſt in the pulveriſing and fertilizing it; a good hand may very well tend from ten to twelve thouſand hills of freſh light land, or from ſix to ten thouſand of ſtiff land; and we believe where the planter depends upon manuring his land for a crop, he will find it difficult to get even five thouſand hills properly manured.

If the planter has time to turn over, in the month of February, the hills which were made in the fall, he will find his advantage in it; but we ſcarce believe that time will be found.

If the tobacco ſeed has been ſown early in good beds, and thoſe beds properly attended to, the planter may expect to plant his hills from them in May. The earlier tobacco is planted the better, as it will not be fit to cut in leſs than three months: by

planting early, tobacco will be houſed in Auguſt, a month by far the beſt in the whole year to cut it, as it then cures of a fine bright nutmeg colour, and will have a much better ſcent than later tobacco. When the plants are large enough to ſet out, the tobacco hills muſt be prepared by re-working them, breaking the clods very fine, and then cutting off the top of the hill, ſo as to have it broad and low; it is then common to clap the hoe upon the top of it, which breaks the ſmall clods.

Having turned as many hills as it is convenient to plant at one time, the planter ſhould wait until a rain comes, ever ſo little of which, at this ſeaſon of the year, will be ſufficient, provided the plants can be drawn from the beds without breaking. The plants will more readily extend their roots, if ſet out after a moderate rain, than if planted in a very wet ſeaſon. The planter ſhould never prepare more hills than he can plant the next ſeaſon, as freſh turned hills are beſt for the plants. In this manner proceed until the whole crop is planted. Perſons may continue to plant every ſeaſon until the laſt of June, but we think they have very little chance of making good tobacco, if they have not their whole quantity planted by that time. After the crop is pitched or planted in the manner directed, it will require the cloſeſt attention. The tobacco has at this period a very dangerous enemy in a ſmall worm, called the ground-worm, which riſes from the ground, and makes great havoc among the young and tender plants, by cutting off and eating the leaves quite into the hill. It ſometimes happens, that the crop muſt be replanted five or ſix times before it can be got to ſtand well. The planter muſt then watch the firſt riſing of the worm, and every morning his whole force muſt be employed in ſearching round each plant, and deſtroying it. When the tobacco begins to grow, the planter muſt carefully cut down the hills ſhelving from the plants, and take every weed and ſpire of graſs from around the plants. without diſturbing the roots. They will, after this weeding, if the weather be ſeaſonable, grow rapidly. When they have ſpread over the hills pretty well, and a little before they are fit to top, about four of the under leaves ſhould be taken off; this is called priming, and then the tobacco muſt have a hill given to it.

As ſoon as it can be topped to ten leaves, it muſt be done, and this by a careful hand well uſed to the buſineſs: he ſhould ſuffer his thumb nails to grow to a conſiderable length, that he may take out the ſmall bud from the top without bruiſing, leaving

ten leaves behind in the firſt or ſecond topping, or until it grows too late for the plant to ſupport ſo many leaves; then to fall to eight, and even to ſix: but this the ſkilful topper will be the beſt judge of, as it can be only known from experience. The tobacco is now attacked by another enemy, as dangerous and as deſtructive as any; it is the horn-worm, of a green colour, which grows to a large ſize, and, if ſuffered to ſtay on the plant, will deſtroy the whole. The firſt glut of them, as the planters call it, will be when the tobacco is in the ſtate above-mentioned; and hands muſt be almoſt conſtantly employed in pulling them off and preventing their increaſe; but if the planter has a flock of young turkeys to turn into the field, they will effectually deſtroy theſe worms. The planter muſt again hill up his tobacco and lighten the ground between the hills, that the roots of the tobacco may extend themſelves with eaſe. Immediately after topping, the tobacco begins to throw out ſuckers between the leaves where they join the ſtalk; theſe ſhould be carefully taken off, for if they are ſuffered to grow, they greatly exhauſt the plant. Not long after the firſt glut of worms comes a ſecond, in greater quantities than the former, and muſt be treated in the ſame manner.

Tobacco, thus managed, will begin to ripen in the month of Auguſt, when it is to be cut, as it ripens, in order to be houſed: but the planter, if he is not a judge himſelf, or not able to attend to it, ſhould have a very ſkilful ſet of cutters, who know well when tobacco is ripe; for if it be cut before it is full ripe, it will never cure of a good colour, and will rot in the hogſhead after it is prized. The tobacco, when ripe, changes its colour and looks greyiſh; the leaf feels thick, and if preſſed between the finger and thumb will eaſily crack; but experience alone can enable a perſon to judge when tobacco is fully ripe.

We think the beſt time to cut tobacco is the afternoon, when the ſun has not power to burn it, but only cauſe the leaves to be ſupple, that they may be handled without breaking; it ſhould then remain on the ground all night; the next morning, after the dew is off, and before the ſun has power to burn it, it muſt be picked up, but there ſhould be no appearance of rain the preceding night; for ſhould a heavy rain fall upon the tobacco, when lying on the ground, it will injure it greatly, by filling it with grit, and perhaps bruiſing it. Tobacco is indeed generally cut in the morning, but in this caſe it muſt be watched very narrowly, and picked up, and put in ſmall heaps



TOBACCO PLANT

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on the ground, before it begins to burn; for if it be ſcorched by the ſun it is good for nothing.

There are different methods taken in the management of tobacco immediately after being cut, and ſufficiently killed by the ſun for handling: ſome hang upon fences until it is nearly half-cured before they carry it to hang up in houſes built for the purpoſe; but this mode we cannot approve of, as the leaves are too much expoſed to the ſun, and are apt to be injured. A much better method is, to have ſcaffolds made cloſe to the houſe intended to cure the tobacco in; and having a ſufficient number of tabacco ſticks, of about four feet and a half long, and an inch thick, to bring in the tobacco from the field, and putting from ten to fourteen or fifteen plants upon a ſtick, to fix the ſticks upon this ſcaffold, about nine inches one from another. There the tobacco ſhould remain until the leaves turn yellow. By this method the ſun is prevented from coming to the leaves, and the rays only fall on the ſtalks. After remaining a ſufficient time, the ſticks ſhould be removed with the tobacco on them, in the houſe, and be fixed where they are to remain until the tobacco be fully cured.

The houſes built for the tobacco ſhould be from thirty to ſixty feet long, and about twenty feet wide; the roof to have wind beams about four feet diſtance to fix the ſticks on, and contrived at proper ſpaces to receive the whole of the tobacco until the houſe is full; ſo that there ſhould be a ſpace of ſix inches between the tails of the upper plants and heads of the lower, for the air to paſs through.

If a perſon has houſe-room enough, we would adviſe, that the tobacco ſhould have no ſun, but be carried into the houſe immediately after it is killed, and there hung upon the ſticks. But, in this caſe, the plants ſhould be very few on the ſticks and the ſticks at a greater diſtance from each other, for tobacco is very apt to be injured in the houſe if hung too cloſe in a green ſtate. If a crop could be cured in this way without ſun, its colour would be more bright, and the flavour finer, the whole juices being preſerved unexhaled.

When the tobacco is fully cured in the houſe, which may be known by the colour of the leaf and the dryneſs of the ſtem, it may be then ſtripped from the ſtalk, when it is in a proper ſtate, that is, in a ſeaſon which moiſtens it ſo as it can be handled. As ſoon as the tobacco is ſo pliant, that it can be handled without breaking the leaves, it is to be ſtruck from the ſticks, put in bulk until it is ſtripped from the ſtalk; which, in

the earlier part of the year, ſhould be immediately done, leſt the ſtalks, which are green, ſhould injure the leaf. If the tobacco is too high in caſe when it is ſtruck, it will be apt to rot when it gets into a ſweat. One thing ſhould be particularly attended to, and that is, it ſhould be ſtruck as it firſt comes into caſe, for if it hangs until it is too high, or moiſt, and you ſhould wait until the moiſture dries away to the ſtate we adviſe it to be in when you ſtrike it, it will moſt certainly, when in bulk, return to its full ſtate of moiſture; and therefore it ſhould hang until it is perfectly dry; and you are to wait till another ſeaſon arrives to put it in proper caſe.

The next thing to be done after the tobacco is ſtruck is to ſtrip it; and here particular attention is neceſſary: all the indifferent leaves are firſt to be pulled from the ſtalk, by ſorters well acquainted with the buſineſs, and tied by themſelves, to be afterwards ſtemmed. The plant, with the fine leaves, is to be thrown to the ſtrippers; they are to ſtrip off the leaves, and tie up five leaves in a bundle, of equal goodneſs. When you have got enough for a hogſhead, which we ſhould adviſe not to be more than a thouſand weight, it ſhould be immediately packed up with very great care, and prized. The hogſheads ſhould be made of ſtaves not exceeding forty-eight inches long, and the head ought not to be more than from thirty to thirty-two inches in diameter. No directions can be given here for the packing, it can only be learned from practice. If more tobacco than here recommended be prized into a hogſhead, without much care it will be apt to be bruiſed, a circumſtance which ſhould be carefully avoided.

ON THE CULTURE OF INDIGO.

As the culture of this plant is in a manner confined to particular parts of the United States, the obſervations thereon will be conciſe; as, however, it may ere long be attempted, and certainly with a great probability of ſucceſs, in ſome parts of the ſouthern States, where it has not as yet been tried, the introduction of theſe remarks will need no apology.

The indigo tree is a ſtraight and rather buſhy plant; from its root ariſes a ligneous brittle ſtem, of the height of two feet, branching from the beginning, white on the inſide, and covered with a greyiſh bark: the leaves are alternate, compoſed of ſeveral ſmall leaves diſpoſed in two rows along a

common coſta, which is terminated by a ſingle foliolum, and furniſhed at its baſis with two ſmall membranes which are called ſtipulæ: at the extremity of each branch ariſe cluſters of reddiſh papilionaceous flowers, rather ſmall, and compoſed of a number of petals: the ſtamina, to the number of ſix, and the piſtil, ſurmounted with a ſingle ſtyle, are arranged as they are in moſt of the herbaceous flowers: the piſtil is changed into a ſmall rounded pod, ſlightly curved, one inch in length, and a line and a half in breadth, full of cylindrical, ſhining and browniſh ſeeds.

This plant requires a light ſoil, well tilled, and never deluged with water; for this reaſon ſpots are preferred which are ſloping, becauſe this poſition preſerves the indigo plant from the ſtagnation of the rain, which might deſtroy it, and from inundations, that might cover it with a prejudicial ſlime. Low and flat grounds may alſo be employed for this culture, if channels and ditches are made to draw off the waters, and if care be taken to plant them only after the rainy ſeaſon, which often occaſions overflowings. The ſeed is ſown in little furrows made by the hoe, two or three inches in depth, at the diſtance of a foot from each other, and in as ſtraight a line as poſſible. Continual attention is required to pluck up the weeds, which would ſoon choak the plant. Though it may be ſown in all ſeaſons, the ſpring is commonly preferred. Moiſture cauſes this plant to ſhoot above the ſurface in three or four days: it is ripe at the end of two months. When it begins to flower, it is cut with pruning-knives, and cut again at the end of every ſix weeks, if the weather be a little rainy: it laſts about two years, after which term it degenerates; it is then plucked up and planted afreſh.

As this plant ſoon exhauſts the ſoil, becauſe it does not abſorb a ſufficient quantity of air and dew to moiſten the earth, it is of advantage to the planter to have a vaſt ſpace which may remain covered with trees, till it becomes neceſſary to fall them, in order to make room for the indigo; for trees are to be conſidered as ſyphons, by means of which the earth and air reciprocally communicate to each other their fluid and vegetating ſubſtance; ſyphons, into which the vapours and juices being alternately drawn, are kept in equilibrium. Thus while the ſap aſcends by the roots to the branches, the leaves drawn in the air and vapours, which circulating through the fibres of the tree deſcend again into the earth, and reſtore to it in dew what it loſes in ſap. It is in order to maintain this reciprocal influence, that when there are no trees to preſerve the fields in a

proper ſtate for the ſowing of indigo, it is cuſtomary to cover thoſe which are exhauſted by this plant with potatoes, or lianes, the creeping branches of which preſerve the freſhneſs of the earth, while the leaves, when burnt, renew its fertility.

Indigo is diſtinguiſhed into ſeveral ſpecies, of which only two are cultivated: the true indigo, which is the ſort we have been ſpeaking of, and the baſtard indigo, which differs from the former, in having a much higher, more woody, and more durable ſtem; in having its foliola longer and narrower, its pods more curved, and its ſeeds black. Though the firſt be ſold at a higher price, it is uſually advantageous to cultivate the other, becauſe it is not ſo frequently renewed, is heavier, and yields more leaves, the produce of which is, however, leſs, from any equal quantity. The firſt will grow in many different ſoils; the ſecond ſucceeds beſt in thoſe which are moſt expoſed to the rain. Both are liable to great accidents in their early ſtate. They are ſometimes burnt up by the heat of the ſun, or choaked by a web with which they are ſurrounded by an inſect peculiar to theſe regions. Sometimes the plant becomes dry, and is deſtroyed by another very common inſect; at other times, the leaves, which are the valuable part of the plant, are devoured in the ſpace of twenty-four hours by caterpillers. This laſt misfortune, which is but too common, hath given occaſion to the ſaying, that "the planters of indigo went to bed rich, and roſe in the morning totally ruined."

This production ought to be gathered in with great precaution, for fear of making the farina that lies on the leaves, and which is very valuable, fall off by ſhaking it. When gathered, it is thrown into the ſteeping-vat, which is a large tub filled with water. Here it undergoes a fermentation, which in twenty-four hours at fartheſt is completed. A cock is then turned, to let the water run into the ſecond tub, called the mortar or pounding-tub. The ſteeping-vat is then cleaned out, that freſh plants may be thrown in; and thus the work is continued without interruption.

The water which hath run into the pounding-tub, is found impregnated with a very ſubtle earth, which alone conſtitutes the dregs or blue ſubſtance that is the object of this proceſs, and which muſt be ſeparated from the uſeleſs ſalt of the plant, becauſe this makes the dregs ſwim on the ſurface. To effect this, the water is forcibly agitated with wooden buckets that are full of holes, and fixed to a long handle. This part of the

process requires the greatest precaution. If the agitation be discontinued too soon, the part that is used in dying, not being sufficiently separated from the salt, would be lost. If on the other hand, the dye were to be agitated too long after the complete separation, the parts would be brought together again, and form a new combination; and the salt re-acting on the dregs would excite a second fermentation, that would alter the dye, spoil its colour, and make what is called burnt indigo. These accidents are prevented by a close attention to the least alterations that the dye undergoes, and by the precaution which the workmen take to draw out a little of it from time to time in a clean vessel. When they perceive that the coloured particles collect by separating from the rest of the liquor, they leave off shaking the buckets, in order to allow time to the blue dregs to precipitate to the bottom of the tub, where they are left to settle till the water is quite clear. Holes made in the tub at different heights are then opened one after another, and this useless water is let out.

The blue dregs remaining at the bottom having acquired the consistence of a thick muddy liquid, cocks are then opened, which draw it off into the settler. After it is still more cleared of much superfluous water in this third and last tub, it is drained into sacks; from whence, when water no longer filters through the cloth, this matter, now become of a thicker consistence, is put into chests, where it entirely loses its moisture. At the end of three months the indigo is fit for sale.

ON THE CULTURE OF RICE.

The culture of this plant, like the former, is confined to certain individual States. Low swampy lands are the only situations that have been deemed to offer a prospect of success from its cultivation; but as such situations are frequently found in the newly-settled parts of the Union, a few observations on it will not be foreign to our object of affording every possible information to European settlers.

Rice is a plant very much resembling wheat in shape and colour, and in the figure and disposition of its leaves. The panicle which terminates the stem is composed of small flowers, distinct from each other, which have four unequal scales, six stamina, and one pistil, surrounded with two styles: this pistil becomes a white seed, extremely farinaceous, covered with two interior scales, which are larger, yellowish, covered with light asperities, and furnished with several salient costæ, the middle one of which terminates in an elongated extremity. This plant thrives best in

low, damp and marſhy lands, when they are even a little overflowed. The period of its diſcovery is traced to the remoteſt antiquity.

Egypt, unfortunately for itſelf, firſt attended to it. The pernicious effect of this culture, rendered the country the moſt unhealthy in the known world; conſtantly ravaged by epidemical diſorders, and afflicted with cutaneous diſeaſes, which paſſed from that region to the others, where they have been perpetuated during whole centuries, and where they have been only put a ſtop to by the contrary cauſe to that which had occaſioned them; to wit, the drying up of the marſhes, and the reſtoring of ſalubrity to the air and to the waters. China and the Eaſt-Indies muſt experience the ſame calamities, if art doth not oppoſe preſervatives to nature, whoſe benefits are ſometimes accompanied with evils; or if the heat of the torrid zone doth not quickly diſpel the damp and malignant vapours which are exhaled from the rice grounds. It is a known fact, that in the rice grounds of the Milaneze, the cultivators are all livid and dropſical.

A great degree of the unhealthineſs of part of Georgia and South-Carolina is attributable to the ſame cauſe. Could the wild, or as it is termed, the mountain rice, be improved by cultivation ſo as to ſuperſede the culture of that grain in ſwamps, it would be a material benefit to ſociety; from experiments that have been made, there is ſome reaſon for hoping this may ere long be the caſe.

ON THE CULTURE OF HEMP.

Hemp is as profitable a production as any the earth furniſhes, and in point of utility, yields to few articles whatever. The manufacture of it employs numbers of individuals, a great portion of whom are women and children, and it finds a conſtant employment for the farmers otherwiſe leiſure time. Its advantages, either raw or manufactured, are, indeed, great to the farmer and merchant; but as many American farmers manufacture a conſiderable portion in their own families, the importance of the cultivation thereof is ſtill farther manifeſt.

The uſual height of the plant, when growing, is from five to ſix feet, but this varies very conſiderably according to circumſtances. That which is cultivated near Biſchwiller, in Alſace, is ſometimes more than twelve feet high, and upwards of three inches in circumference, the ſtalks being ſo deeply rooted, that a very ſtrong man can ſcarce pull them up. Mr. Arthur Young, in a tour through Catalonia in Spain, ſays, that where the coun-

try is well watered, the crops of hemp are extraordinary, and that the plants generally riſe to the height of ſeven feet. In Italy hemp is generally cultivated, though the Bologneſe only can pretend to any ſuperiority in the management of it. It is there ſown upon their beſt land, which are rich ſtrong loams, and on which they are at all poſſible pains to procure a fine friable ſurface. For manure they uſe dung, pieces of rotten cloth, feathers, and horns brought from Dalmatia. The plant, however, may be cultivated upon ground of every kind; the poorer land producing that which is finer in quality though in ſmaller quantity, whereas ſtrong and rich land produces a great quantity, but coarſer; it does not exhauſt the land on which it grows like flax, whence it is probable, that if properly managed, and care taken in the cultivation, it might be found to ſuperſede flax entirely. A Suſſex manufacturer, who writes on this ſubject in the Annals of Agriculture, informs us, that it may be raiſed for many years ſucceſſively on the ſame ground, provided it be well manured. An acre requires from nine to twelve pecks, according to the nature of the ſoil, the latter being the moſt uſual, though a variation in the quality of the ſoil makes an alteration both in the quantity and quality of the hemp. An acre produces on an average thirty-ſix or thirty-eight ſtone. The Abbé Brulle, in a treatiſe upon the culture and management of hemp, printed by order of the Lords of the Committee of Council for trade and foreign plantations, informs us, that the ſeaſon for ſowing extends from the 25th of March to the 15th of June. The ſeed ought always to be ſown thin, not exceeding two buſhels to an acre, and if you have the advantage of a drill plough, ſtill leſs will anſwer. As there are two kinds of hemp, the male and female, of which the former only produces ſeed, ſome regard muſt be had to this circumſtance. In ſome parts of England, the male and female are pulled together about thirteen weeks after the ſowing, but in others they are frequently ſeparated. This laſt method is recommended by the Abbé Brulle, who, for the more eaſy accompliſhment of it, directs that little paths ſhould be made lengthwiſe through the field at about ſeven feet diſtance from each other, to allow a paſſage for the perſon who pulls up the female hemp from among the other, the latter requiring to ſtand more than a month after for the purpoſe of ripening the ſeeds. The female hemp is known to be ripe by the fading of the flowers, the falling of the farina fecundans, and ſome of the ſtalks turning yellow. After the whole of this kind is pulled, it muſt be manufactured according to the directions hereafter given, and

ought to be worked, if poſſible, while green; the hemp thus produced, being much finer than that which is previouſly dried. The reaſon of this is, that the plant contains a great quantity of glutinous matter, which being once dried, agglutinates the fibres in ſuch a manner, that they can never be afterwards perfectly ſeparated; the female hemp, however, is always in ſmaller quantity than the male, and therefore where the crop is large, it will be impoſſible to work the whole as faſt as it is pulled or cut. It is known to be ripe by the ſtems becoming pale; but it muſt be remembered, that hemp of any kind will be much leſs injured by pulling the plants before they are ripe, than by letting them ſtand too long.

The male hemp being ſtripped of its leaves, &c. as afterwards directed, will ſoon be dry for ſtoring by the heat of the atmoſphere, though ſometimes it may be neceſſary to uſe artificial means; but where theſe are uſed, the utmoſt care muſt be taken, hemp, when dry, being exceedingly inflammable. The ſtored or dried hemp muſt be ſteeped and treated in every other reſpect as though it had been green; whence it is evident, that this operation ought never to be uſed but in caſes of neceſſity. It is likewiſe difficult to make hemp which has been dried previous to its being ſteeped, ſo white as that which has been worked green.

With regard to the perfecting of hemp ſeed for a ſubſequent ſeaſon, it would ſeem proper to ſet apart a piece of ground for this purpoſe; for M. Aimén, from forty plants raiſed in the common way, had only a pound and an half of ſeed, though the plants from which it was taken might be deemed fine; whereas, from a ſingle plant which grew by itſelf, he had ſeven pounds and an half. Some are of opinion, that by putting the cluſters which contain the hemp ſeed to heat and ſweat, the quality is improved; as many of thoſe ſeeds which would otherwiſe wither and die, may thus arrive at perfection. This, however, ſeems to be very problematical, as there are no experiments which ſhow that ſeeds, when ſeparated from the vegetable producing them, have any power of meliorating themſelves.

After the hemp is pulled, it muſt be taken in large handfuls, cutting off the roots, though this is not abſolutely neceſſary, the leaves, ſeeds, and lateral branches, being dreſſed off with a wooden ſword or ripple. It is then to be made up into bundles of twelve handfuls each, in order to be ſteeped, like flax, in water. This, or ſomething ſimilar, is abſolutely neceſſary, in order to ſeparate

the bark, which is properly the hemp, from the reed or woody part. This operation is called *water-retting*; but ſometimes a mere expoſure to the air is ſubſtituted in its place, turning the hemp frequently during the time it is expoſed: this is called *dew-retting*, but the former method is univerſally deemed preferable. Such hemp as is deſigned for ſeed is ſeldom water-retted, though, in the opinion of the manufacturer already quoted, it would be better if it were ſo. Dew-retted hemp is generally ſtacked and covered during the winter; in January and February it is ſpread upon meadow land, and whitens with the froſt and ſnow, though it is always much inferior to the other, and proper for coarſer yarns only.

The length of time required for ſteeping hemp is various, and a complete knowledge of it can only be attained by practice. It is uſual to continue the immerſion four, five, or ſix days; ſtanding water is preferred, and the ſame water will ſteep hemp three times during the ſeaſon, but the firſt has always the beſt colour. The Abbé Brulle prefers clear and running water, eſpecially if overhung with trees. The bundles are to be croſſwiſe upon each other, taking particular notice of the manner in which they lie when put in, that they may be taken out without difficulty. His time of ſteeping is from ſix to eleven days; and here we muſt obſerve, that it is much better to let it remain too long in the water than too ſhort a time. The ſtendereſt hemp requires the moſt ſoaking. The operation is known to be finiſhed by the reed ſeparating eaſily from the bark.

After the hemp is thoroughly ſteeped, the next operation is to ſeparate the bark from the reed or woody part; and this may be done in two ways, viz. either pulling out the reed from every ſtalk with the hand, or drying and breaking it like flax. The Abbé Brulle is very particular in his directions for this laſt operation, which he calls *reeding*, and which may be performed either in a trough under water, or upon a table. The whole, however, may be reduced to the following, viz. preſſing down the bundles either in the trough or on a table by proper weights, to keep the hemp ſteady on the middle or top end; then beginning at the upper part of the bundle, pull out the reeds one by one. As you proceed, the rind which remains will preſs cloſely upon the remaining unreeded hemp, and keep it more ſteady, ſo that you may take two, four, or even ſix ſtalks at a time. The weight is then to be removed from the top, and all the pieces of reed which remain there having brok-

en off in the former operation, are to be taken out. Laſtly, the middle weight is to be taken off, and any ſmall pieces which remain there taken out. If the reeding is performed on a table, the bundle muſt be weeded frequently, though ſlightly; a continual dropping of water would perhaps be the beſt method.

After the hemp is reeded, it muſt next be freed from the mucilaginous matter with which it ſtill abounds. This is done by pouring water through it, ſqueezing out the liquid after every affuſion, but taking care not to let the threads twiſt or entangle each other, which they are very apt to do. The Abbé is of opinion, that ſoft ſoap ſhould be diſſolved in the laſt water, in the proportion of an ounce to three pounds of dry hemp; which though not abſolutely neceſſary, contributes much to the ſoftening and rendering the hemp eaſy and pleaſant to dreſs.

Hemp is broken by machinery, after being ſteeped, in a manner ſimilar to flax, but the inſtruments generally uſed for this purpoſe are all worked by the hand. That which breaks in the operation is called *ſhorts*, and is about half the value of long hemp.

Beating of hemp is the next operation, which formerly was performed entirely by hand, but now in moſt places by a water mill, which riſes three or four heavy beaters that fall upon it alternately; the hemp being turned all the while by boys in order to receive the ſtrokes equally. The finer it is required to make the tow, the more beating is neceſſary. It is then dreſſed or combed by drawing it through heckles formed like the combs of wool manufacturers, only fixed. Sometimes it is divided into two or three ſorts of tow, and ſometimes in common heavy work, the whole is worked together into one ſort; the prices varying from ſix-pence to one ſhilling and ſix-pence per pound.

ON THE CULTURE OF FLAX.

The following particulars with regard to the manner of raiſing flax, has been for ſome years paſt warmly recommended by the truſtees for fiſheries, manufactures, and improvements in Scotland.

A ſkilful flax raiſer always preſers a free open deep loam, and all grounds that produced the preceding year a good crop of turnips, cabbage, potatoes, barley, or broad clover; or have been formerly laid down rich, and kept for ſome years in paſture.

A clay ſoil, the ſecond or third crop after being limed, will anſwer well for flax; provided, if the ground be ſtill ſtiff, that it be brought to a proper mould, by tilling after harveſt, to expoſe it to the winter froſts.

All new grounds produce a ſtrong crop of flax, and pretty free of weeds. When a great many mole-heaps appear upon new ground, it anſwers the better for flax after one tilling.

Flax ſeed ought never to be ſown on grounds that are either too wet or dry, but on ſuch as retain a natural moiſture; and ſuch grounds as are inclined to weeds ought to be avoided, unleſs prepared by a careful ſummer fallow.

If the ſeed be ſown early, and the flax not allowed to ſtand for ſeed, a crop of turnips may be got after the flax the ſame year; the ſecond year a crop of bear or barley may be taken; and the third year, graſs ſeeds are ſometimes ſown along with the flax ſeed. This is the method moſtly practiſed in and about the counties of Lincoln and Somerſet, in England, where great quantities of flax and hemp are every year raiſed, and where theſe crops have long been capital articles. There, old ploughed grounds are never ſown with lint ſeed, unleſs the ſoil be very rich and clean.

If the ground be free and open, it ſhould be but once ploughed, and that as ſhallow as poſſible, not deeper than two inches and an half. It ſhould be laid flat, reduced to a fine garden mould by much harrowing, and all ſtones and ſods ſhould be carried off.

Except a little pigeon's dung for cold or ſour ground, no other dung ſhould be uſed preparatory for flax, becauſe it produces too many weeds, and throws up the flax thin and poor upon the ſtalk.

Before ſowing, the bulky clods ſhould be broken, or carried off the ground; and ſtones, quickenings, and every other thing that may hinder the growth of the flax, ſhould be removed.

The brighter in colour, and heavier the ſeed is, ſo much the better; that which when bruiſed, appears of a light or yelloviſh green, and freſh in the heart, oily and not dry, and ſmells and taſtes ſweet, and not fuſty, may be depended upon.

Dutch ſeed of the preceding year's growth, for the moſt part, anſwers beſt; but it ſeldom ſucceeds if kept another year. It ripens ſooner than any other foreign ſeed. Philadelphia ſeed produces fine lint and few bolls, becauſe ſown thick, and anſwers beſt in wet cold ſoils. Riga ſeed produces coarſer lint, and the greateſt quantity of ſeed. Scots ſeed, when well win-

nowed and kept, and changed from one kind of ſoil to another, ſometimes anſwers pretty well, but ſhould be ſown thick, as many of its grains are bad, and fail. It ſprings well, and its flax is ſooner ripe than any other; but its produce afterwards is generally inferior to that from foreign ſeed.

The quantity of ſeed ſown ſhould be proportioned to the condition of the ſoil; for if the ground be in good heart, and the ſeed ſown thick, the crop will be in danger of falling before it is ready for pulling.

The time for ſowing flax ſeed is from the middle of March to the end of April, as the ground and ſeaſon anſwers; but the earlier the ſeed is ſown, the leſs the crop interferes with the corn harveſt.

Late ſown flax ſeed may grow long, but the flax upon the ſtalk will be thin and poor.

After ſowing, the ground ought to be harrowed till the ſeed is well covered, and then, ſuppoſing the ſoil, as before mentioned, to be free and reduced to a fine mould, it ought to be rolled.

When a farmer ſows a large quantity of ſeed, he may find it proper to ſow a part earlier and part later, that in the future operations of weeding, pulling, watering and graſſing, the work may be the eaſier and more conveniently gone about.

It ought to be weeded when the crop is about four inches long. If longer deferred, the weeders will ſo much break and crook the ſtalks, that they will never perhaps recover their ſtraightneſs again; and when the flax grows crooked, it is more liable to be hurt in the rippling and ſwingling.

Quicken graſs ſhould not be taken up, for being ſtrongly rooted, the pulling of it always looſens a deal of the flax.

If there is an appearance of a ſettled drought, it is better to defer the weeding, than by that operation to expoſe the tender roots of the flax to the drought.

When the crop grows ſo ſhort and branchy, as to appear more valuable for ſeed than flax, it ought not to be pulled before it be thoroughly ripe; but if it grows long and not branchy, the ſeed ſhould be diſregarded, and all the attention given to the flax. In the laſt caſe it ought to be pulled after the bloom has fallen, when the ſtalk begins to turn yellow, and before the leaves fall, and the bolls turn hard and ſharp-pointed.

When the ſtalk is ſmall, and carries few bolls, the flax is fine; but the ſtalk of coarſe flax is groſs, rank, branchy, and carries many bolls.

When the flax has fallen and lies, ſuch as lies ought to be immediately pulled, whether it has grown enough or not, as otherwiſe it will rot altogether.

When parts of the ſame field grow unequally, ſo that ſome parts are ready for pulling before other parts; only what is ready ſhould be pulled, and the reſt ſhould be ſuffered to ſtand till ready.

The flax-raiſer ought to be at pains to pull, and keep by itſelf, each different kind of lint which he finds in his field; what is both long and fine, by itſelf; what is both long and coarſe, by itſelf; what is both ſhort and fine, by itſelf; what is both ſhort and coarſe, by itſelf; and in like manner every other kind by itſelf that is of the ſame ſize and quality. If the different kinds be not thus kept ſeparate, the flax muſt be much damaged in the watering and other ſucceeding operations.

What is commonly called *under growth*, may be neglected as uſeleſs.

Few perſons that have ſeen pulled flax, are ignorant of the method of laying it in handfuls acroſs each other, which gives the flax ſufficient air, and keeps the handfuls ſeparate and ready for the rippler.

If the flax be more valuable than the ſeed, it ought by no means to be ſtacked up, for its own natural juice aſſiſts it greatly in the watering; whereas, if kept long unwatered, it loſes that juice, and the harle adheres ſo much to the boon, that it requires longer time to water, and even the quality of the flax becomes thereby harſher and coarſer. Beſides the flax ſtacked up over year, is in great danger from vermin and other accidents; the water in ſpring is not ſo ſoft and warm as in harveſt, and near a year is thereby loſt of the uſe of the lint: but if the flax be ſo ſhort and branchy as to appear moſt valuable for ſeed, it ought, after pulling, to be ſtooked and dried upon the field, as is done with corn; then ſtacked up for winter, rippled in ſpring; and after ſhelling, the ſeed ſhould be well cleaned from bad ſeeds, &c.

After pulling, if the flax is to be regarded more than the ſeed, it ſhould be allowed to lie ſome hours upon the ground, to dry a little, and ſo gain ſome firmneſs, to prevent the ſkin or harle, which is the flax, from rubbing off in the rippling; an operation which ought by no means to be neglected, as the bolls, if put into the water along with flax, breed vermin there, and otherwiſe ſpoil the water. The bolls alſo prove very inconvenient in the graſſing and breaking.

The handfuls for rippling ſhould not be great, as that endangers the lint in the rippling comb.

After rippling, the flax-raiſer will perceive, that he is able to aſſort each ſize and quality of the flax by itſelf more exactly than he could before.

A running ſtream waſtes the lint, makes it white, and frequently carries it away. Lochs, by the great quantity and motion of the water, alſo waſte and whiten the flax, though not ſo much as running ſtreams. Both rivers and lochs water the flax quicker than canals.

But all flax ought to be watered in canals or ponds, which ſhould be dug in clay ground if poſſible, as that ſoil retains the water beſt, but if a firm retentive ſoil cannot be got, the bottom or ſides of the canal, or both the bottom and ſides, may be lined with clay; or, inſtead of lining the ſides with clay, which might fall down, a ditch may be dug without the canal, and filled with clay, which will prevent both extraneous water from entering, and the water within from running off.

A canal of forty feet long, ſix broad, and four deep, will generally water the growth of an acre of flax.

It ought to be filled with freſh ſoft water from a river or brook, if poſſible, two or three weeks before the flax is put in, and expoſed all that time to the heat of the ſun. The greater way the river or brook has run, the ſofter, and therefore the better will the water be. Springs, or ſhort-runs from hills, are too cold, unleſs the water is allowed to ſtand long in the canal. Water from coal or iron is very bad for flax. A little of the powder of galls thrown into a glaſs of water, will immediately diſcover if it comes from minerals of that kind, by turning it into a dark colour, more or leſs tinged in proportion to the quantity of vitriol it contains.

The canal ought not to be under ſhade; which, beſides keeping the ſun from ſoftening the water, might make part of the canal cooler than other parts, and ſo water the flax unequally.

The flax-raiſer will obſerve, when the water is brought to a proper heat, that ſmall plants will be riſing quickly in it, numbers of ſmall inſects and reptiles will be generating there, and bubbles of air riſing on the ſurface. If no ſuch ſigns appear, the water is either not warm enough, or is otherwiſe unfit for flax.

Moſs holes, when neither too deep nor too ſhallow, frequently anſwer well for watering flax, when the water is proper, as before deſcribed.

The proper ſeaſon for watering flax is from the end of July to the end of Auguſt.

The advantage of watering flax as ſoon as poſſible after pulling has been already mentioned.

The flax being ſorted after rippling, as before mentioned, ſhould next be put into beets, never larger than a man can graſp with both his hands, and tied very ſlack with a band of a few ſtalks. Dried ruſhes anſwer exceedingly well for binding flax, as they do not rot in the water, and may be dried and kept for uſe again.

The beets ſhould be put into the canals or ponds ſlope ways, or half ſtanding upon end, the root end uppermoſt. Upon the crop ends, when uppermoſt, there frequently breeds a deal of vermin, deſtructive of the flax, which is effectually prevented by putting the crop end downmoſt.

The whole flax in the canal ought to be carefully covered from the ſun with divots; the graſſy ſide of which ſhould be next the flax, to keep it clean. If it is not thus covered, the ſun will diſcolour the flax, though quite covered with water. If the divots are not weighty enough to keep the flax entirely under water, a few ſtones may be laid above them. But the flax ſhould not be preſſed to the bottom.

When the flax is ſufficiently watered, it feels ſoft to the gripe, and the harle parts eaſily with the boon or ſhow, which laſt is then become brittle, and looks whitiſh. When theſe ſigns are found, the flax ſhould be taken out of the water, beet after beet; each gently rinſed in the water, to cleanſe it of the naſtineſs which has gathered about it in the canal; and as the lint is then very tender, and the beet ſlackly tied, it muſt be carefully and gently handled.

Great care ought to be taken that no part be overdone; and as the coarſeſt waters looneſt, if different kinds be mixed together, a part will be rotted, when the reſt is not ſufficiently watered.

When flax taken out of the canal is not found ſufficiently watered, it may be laid in a heap for twelve, eighteen, or twenty-four hours, which will have an effect like more watering; but this operation is nice, and may prove dangerous in unſkilful hands.

After the flax is taken out of the canal, freſh flax ſhould not be put a ſecond time into it, until the former water be run off, and the canal cleaned, and ſupplied with freſh water.

Short heath is the beſt field for graſſing flax, as when wet, it faſtens to the heath, and is thereby prevented from being blown away by the wind. The heath alſo keeps it a little above the earth, and ſo expoſes it the more equally to the weather. When ſuch heath is not to be got, links or clean old lea ground is the next beſt. Long graſs grounds ſhould be avoided, as the graſs growing through the lint frequently ſpots, tenders, or rots it; and grounds expoſed to violent winds ſhould alſo be avoided.

The flax, when taken out of the water, muſt be ſpread very thin upon the ground, and being then very tender, it muſt be gently handled. The thinner it is ſpread the better, as it is then the more equally expoſed to the weather. But it ought never to be ſpread during a heavy ſhower, as that would waſh and waſte the harle too much, which is then exceſſively tender, but ſoon after becomes firm enough to bear the rains, which, with open air and ſunſhine, cleans, ſoftens, and purifies the harle to the degree wanted, and makes it bliſter from the boon. In ſhort, after the flax has got a little firmneſs by being a few hours ſpread in dry weather, the more rain and ſunſhine it gets the better.

If there be little danger of high winds carrying off the flax, it will be much the better for being turned about once a week. If it is not to be turned, it ought to be very thin ſpread. The ſpreading of flax and hemp requires a deal of ground, but amply repays by enriching it greatly.

The ſkilful flax-raiſer ſpreads his firſt row of flax at the end of the field oppoſite to the point from whence the moſt violent wind commonly comes, placing the root ends foremoſt; he makes the root ends of every other over-lap the crop ends of the former row three or four inches, and binds down the laſt row with a rope; by which means the wind does not eaſily get below the lint to blow it away: and as the crop ends are ſeldom ſo fully watered as the root ends, the aforeſaid overlapping has an effect like giving the crop ends more watering. Experience only can fully teach a perſon the ſigns of flax being ſufficiently graſſed; then it is of a clearer colour than formerly, the harle is bliſtered up, and eaſily parts with the boon, which is then become very brittle. The whole ſhould be ſufficiently graſſed before any of it is lifted; for if a part be lifted

ſooner than the reſt, that which remains is in great danger from the winds.

A dry day ought to be choſen for taken up the flax; and if there be no appearance of high wind, it ſhould be looſed from the heath or graſs, and let looſe for ſome hours, to make it thoroughly dry.

As a great quantity of flax can ſcarcely be all equally watered and graſſed, and as the different qualities will beſt appear at lifting the flax off the graſs; therefore at that time each different kind ſhould be gathered together, and kept by itſelf, that is, all of the ſame colour, length and quality.

The ſmaller the beets it is made up in, the better for drying, and the more convenient for ſtacking, houſing, &c. and in making up theſe beets, as in every other operation upon flax it is of great conſequence that the lint be laid together as it grew, the root ends together and the crop ends together.

With reſpect to the dreſſing of flax, for many ages it was the practice to ſeparate the boon or core from the flax, which is the bark of the plant, beating it with a mallet, or more dexterouſly with the break, a ſimple and more convenient method than the former.

Theſe methods of breaking the flax are, however, ſlow and very laborious. A water mill was invented in Scotland about forty years ago, which, with ſome late improvements, makes great diſpatch, and in ſkilful and careful hands gives ſatisfaction. It has been generally conſtructed to break the boon by three dented rollers, placed one above the other. The middle one of which, being forced quickly round, takes the other two along with it, and one end of the handfuls of the flax being by the workmen directed in between the upper and middle rollers, the flax is immediately drawn in by the rollers; a curved board or plate of tin behind the rollers directs the flax to return again between the middle and undermoſt rollers; and thus the operation is repeated until the boon be ſufficiently broke. Great weights of timber or ſtone at the ends of levers, preſs the upper and under rollers towards the middle one.

The ſcutching, which was formerly done by hand, is likewiſe carried on by the mill in the following manner: four arms, ſomething like hand-ſcutchers, project from a perpendicular axle; a box around the axle incloſes theſe projecting ſcutchers; and this box is divided among the workmen, each having ſufficient room to ſtand and handle his flax, which, through ſlits in the upper part and ſides of the box, they hold

in to the ſtroke of the ſcutchers, which moving round horizontally, ſtrike the flax acroſs or at right angles, and ſo threſh out or clear it of the boon.

The breaking of the flax by rollers is ſcarcely ſubject to any objection, but that it is dangerous to workmen not ſufficiently on their guard, who ſometimes allow the rollers to take hold of their fingers, and thereby their whole arm is inſtantly drawn in: thus many have loſt their arms. To avoid this danger, a break, upon the general principles of the hand-break before deſcribed, has been lately adapted to water machinery, and uſed in place of rollers. The horizontal ſtroke of the ſcutchers was long thought too ſevere, and waſteful of the flax; but very careful experiments have diſcovered that the waſte complained of muſt be charged to the unſkilfulneſs or negligence of the workmen, as in good hands the mill carries away nothing but what, if not ſo ſcutched off, muſt be taken off in the heckling with more loſs, both of time and flax. But to obviate this objection of the violence of the horizontal ſcutchers, an imitation of hand-ſcutching has lately been applied to water. The ſcutchers then project from an horizontal axle, and move like the arms of a check reel, ſtriking the flax neither acroſs nor perpendicularly down, but ſloping in upon the parcel exactly as the flax is ſtruck by the hand-ſcutcher. This ſloping ſtroke is got by raiſing the ſcutching ſtock ſome inches higher than the center of the axle, and by raiſing or lowering the ſtock over which the flax is held, or ſcrewing it nearer to or farther from the ſcutchers, the workmen can temper or humour the ſtroke almoſt as he pleaſes.

A lint-mill, with horizontal ſcutchers upon a perpendicular axle, requires a houſe of two ſtories, the rollers or break being placed in the ground ſtory, and the ſcutchers in the loft above; but a mill with vertical ſcuthers on an horizontal axle, requires but one ground ſtory for all the machinery.

Another method of breaking and ſcutching flax, more expeditious than the old hand methods, and more gentle than water mills, has alſo been invented in Scotland. It is much like the break and ſcutcher giving the ſloping ſtroke laſt deſcribed, moved by the foot. The treddle is remarkably long, and the ſcutchers are fixed upon the rim of a fly wheel. The foot break is alſo aſſiſted in its motion by a fly. Theſe foot machines are very uſeful where there are no water mills, but they are far inferior to the mills in point of expedition.

The next operation that flax undergoes after ſcutching is heckling. The heckle is firmly fixed to a bench before the workman, who ſtrikes the flax upon the teeth of the heckle, and draws it through the teeth. To perſons unacquainted with this kind of work, this may ſeem a very ſimple operation; but, in fact, it requires as much practice to acquire the ſlight of heckling well, and without waiſting the flax, as any other operation in the whole manufacture of linen. They uſe coarſer and wider teethed heckles, or finer, according to the quality of the flax, generally putting the flax through two heckles, a coarſer one firſt, and next a fine one.

The following obſervations, firſt publiſhed in the Gentleman's Magazine for June 1787, ſeem worthy of very particular attention, and may not therefore be improperly ſubjoined as a ſupplement to the preſent article.

"The intention of watering flax is, in my opinion, to make the boon more brittle or friable, and by ſoaking, to diſſolve that gluey kind of ſap that makes the bark of plants and trees adhere in a ſmall degree to the woody part. The bark of flax is called the *harle*, and when ſeparated from the uſeleſs woody part, the *boon*, this harle itſelf is called flax. To effect this ſeparation eaſily, the practice has long prevailed, of ſoaking the flax in water to certain degree of fermentation, and afterwards drying it. For this ſoaking ſome prefer rivulets that have a ſmall current, and others ſtagnant water in ponds and lakes. In both methods the water acts as in all other caſes of infuſion and maceration; after two or three weeks it extracts a great many juices of a very ſtrong quality, which in ponds give the water an inky tinge and offenſive ſmell, and in rivulets mix in the ſtream and kill the fiſh. Nay, if this maceration be too long continued, the extracted and fermented ſap will completely kill the flax itſelf. For if inſtead of two or three weeks, the new flax were to lie ſoaking in the water four or five months, I preſume it would be good for nothing but to be thrown upon the dunghill; both harle and boon would in time be completely rotted; yet the harle or flax, when entirely freed from this ſap, and manufactured into linen, or into ropes, might lie many months under water without being much damaged; as linen, it may be waſhed and ſteeped in ſcalding water twenty times without loſing much of its ſtrength, and as paper, it acquires a kind of incorruptibility.

"It appears then eſſential to the right management of new flax, to get rid of this pernicious vegetative ſap, and to mace-

rate the boon; but from the complaints made againſt both the methods of watering now in uſe, there is reaſon to think that there is ſtill great room for improvement in that article. In rivulets, the vegetative ſap, as it is diſſolved, is carried off by the current, to the deſtruction of the fiſh. This prevents the flax from being ſtained; but the operation is tedious, and not complete, from the uncertainty of knowing when it is juſt enough, and not too much, or perhaps from neglect. In ponds, the inky tinge of the water often ſerves as a kind of dye to the flax, which imbibes it ſo ſtrongly, that double the labour in bleaching will hardly bring the linen made of ſuch flax to an equality in whiteneſs with linen made of flax untinged. This ſeems to be equally unwiſe as though we were to dye cotton black firſt, in order to whiten it afterwards. Theſe ponds, beſides, become a great nuiſance to the neighbourhood; the impregnated water is often of ſuch a pernicious quality, that cattle, however thirſty, will not drink of it, and the effluvia of it may perhaps be nearly as infectious as it is offenſive. If this effluvia is really attended with any contagious effects in our cold climate, a thing worth the inquiring into, how much more pernicious muſt its effects have been in the hot climate of Egypt, a country early noted for its great cultivation of flax?

"I have often thought that the proceſs of watering might be greatly improved and ſhortened by plunging the new flax, after it is rippled, into ſcalding water; which, in regard to extracting the vegetative ſap, would do in five minutes more than could water would do in a fortnight, or perhaps more than cold water could do at all, in reſpect to the clearing the plant of ſap. Rough almonds, when thrown into ſcalding water, are blanched in an inſtant; but perhaps a fortnight's macerating thoſe almonds in cold water would not make them part ſo eaſily with their ſkins, which are the ſame to them as the harle is to the flax. Where tea leaves to be infuſed in cold water a fortnight, perhaps the tea produced by that infuſion would not be ſo good to the taſte, nor ſo ſtrongly tinged to the eye, as what is effected by ſcalding water in five minutes. By the ſame analogy, I think, flax or any ſmall twig would be made to part with its bark much eaſier and quicker by being dipped in boiling water than by being ſteeped in cold water.

"This reflection opens the door for a great variety of new experiments in regard to flax. I would therefore recom-

mend to gentlemen cultivators and farmers, to make repeated trials upon this new ſyſtem, which would ſoon aſcertain whether it ought to be adopted in practice or rejected. One thing, I think, we may be certain of, that if the Egyptians watered their flax in our common manner, they undoubtedly watered it in very warm water, from the great heat of their climate, which would probably make them neglect to think of water heated by any other means than that of the ſun. A good general practice can only be eſtabliſhed upon repeated trials. Though one experiment may fail, another with a little variation may ſucceed; and the importance of the object deſired to the obtained will juſtify a good degree of perſeverance in the proſecution of the means. In this view, as the Chineſe thread is ſaid to be very ſtrong, it would be worth while to be acquainted with the practice of that diſtant nation, in regard to the rearing and manufacturing of flax, as well as with the methods uſed by the Flemings and the Dutch.

"Boiling water, perhaps, might at once clear the new flax from many impurities, which, when not removed till it be ſpun into yarn, are then removed with difficulty, and the loſs of ſubſtance to the yarn. Why ſhould not the longitudinal fibres of the flax, before they be ſpun into yarn, be made not only as fine but as clean as poſſible? Upon the new ſyſtem propoſed, the act of bleaching would begin immediately after the rippling of the flax, and a little done then, might perhaps ſave much of what is generally done after the ſpinning and weaving. To ſpin dirty flax with a view of cleaning it afterwards, appears to be the ſame impropriety as though we were to reſerve part of the dreſſing given to leather till after it is made into gloves.

"Should the plunging of the flax into the boiling water not ſuffice to make the boon brittle enough, as I am inclined to think it would not, then the common watering might be added; but in that caſe probably half the time uſually given to this watering would ſuffice, and the flax might then be laid in clear rivulets, without any apprehenſion of its infecting the water and poiſoning the fiſh, or of being diſcoloured itſelf; for the boiling water into which it had been previouſly put, would have extracted all the poiſonous vegetative ſap, which I preſume is what chiefly diſcolours the flax or kills the fiſh.

"On the ſuppoſition that the uſe of boiling water in the preparation of flax may be found to be advantageous and profitable, I can recollect at preſent but one objection againſt its being generally adopted. Every flax grower, it may be ſaid,

could not be expected to have conveniences for boiling water ſufficient for the purpoſe; the conſumption of water would be great, and ſome additional expenſe would be incurred. In anſwer to this I ſhall obſerve, that I preſume any additional expenſe would be more than reimburſed by the better marketable price of the flax; for otherwiſe any new improvement, if it will not quit coſt, muſt be dropt, were it even the ſearching after gold. In a large cauldron a great deal of flax might be dipt in the ſame water, and the conſumption perhaps would not be more than a quart to each ſheaf. Even a large houſehold pot would be capable of containing one ſheaf after another; and I believe the whole objection would be obviated, were the practice to prevail as in Flanders and Holland, that the flax-grower and flax-dreſſer ſhould be two diſtinct profeſſions.

"I ſhall conclude with recommending to thoſe who are inclined to make experiments, not to be diſcouraged by the failure of one or two trials. Perhaps the flax, inſtead juſt plunged into the ſcalding water, ought to be kept in it five minutes, perhaps a quarter of an hour, perhaps a whole hour. Should five minutes, or a quarter of an hour, or an hour, not be ſufficient to make the boon and harle eaſily ſeparate, it might perhaps be found expedient to boil the flax for more than an hour; and ſuch boiling when in this ſtate, might in return ſave ſeveral hours boiling in the article of bleaching. It is not, I think, at all probable that the boiling of the flax with the boon in it would prejudice the harle; for in the courſe of its future exiſtence, it is made to be expoſed twenty or forty times to this boiling trial, and if not detrimental in the one caſe, it is to be preſumed it would be detrimental in the other. Perhaps, after the boiling, it would be proper to pile up the flax in one heap for a whole day, or for half a day, to occaſion ſome fermentation; or, perhaps, immediately after the boiling, it might be proper to waſh it with cold water. The great object, when the flax is pulled, is to get the harle from the boon with as little loſs and damage as poſſible; and if this is accompliſhed in a more complete manner than uſual, conſiderable labour and expenſe will be ſaved in the future manufacturing of the flax. On this account I think much more would be gained than loſt, were the two or three laſt inches of the roots of the ſtems to be chopped off, or clipt off, previous to the flax being either watered or boiled. When the flax is watered, care ſhould be taken not to ſpread it out to dry, when there is a hazard of its being expoſed in its wet ſtate to froſt."

ON THE CULTIVATION OF THE VINE.

In ſeveral preceding parts of this work we have mentioned the advantages the United States poſſeſs for the culture of the vine, and, of conſequence, for the making wines of a ſuperior kind; as the attempts made have in many parts ſucceeded, and as many American farmers have attended to it of late, we ſhall need no apology for introducing the following eſſay on the culture of the vine, and the making and preſerving of wines ſuited to the different climates of the United States.

Whoever conſiders the general climate of North-America, the ſoil, the ſeaſons, the ſerenity and dryneſs of the air, the length and intenſeneſs of the heat, the fair and moderate weather that generally prevails in the fall, when grapes are coming to maturity, and arrive at their greateſt perfection; whoever compares the preſent ſtate of the air, with what it was formerly, before the country was opened, cleared and drained, will find, that they are every year faſt advancing to that pure and perfect temperament of air, fit for making the beſt and richeſt wines of every kind.

Such has been the bounty and goodneſs of heaven, that there are vines adapted to every country, to every region, from fifty degrees both north and ſouth latitude down to the equator; and the countries beyond theſe may eaſily be ſupplied by traffic, ſo that all the ſons of men may partake of this general, this univerſal bleſſing.

It is not every vine that is fit for every country; ſome are earlier, ſome are later ripe; ſome are tender and delicate, and will not ſtand the ſeverity of winter; others are hardy and robuſt, and will ſtand any weather. Hereafter we ſhall range them in proper and diſtinct claſſes, and adapt the different ſorts by name to the different climates in America, where they may be propagated with ſafety and to the beſt advantage.

A vine, from a ſtick or cutting, begins to bear fruit the third year, the fourth year it bears more, and the fifth year the planter may make wine; and from that time until it attains the full age of man, it increaſes in value and yields a richer wine; and, if from the beginning the vine is carefully pruned, duly manured and properly cultivated, it will amply reward for all the labour, expenſe and care, beſtowed on it, and will hold good above an hundred years, as moſt writers affirm; but then it muſt be tended by a careful and ſteady hand, for it will

not bear to be ſlighted or neglected: if the ground is not manured and kept in good heart, the vine will bear no fruit; if the planter neglects to cultivate the ſoil and keep it clean, the fruit will be knotty and ſtarved, and will not come to maturity; if he ſuffer the ſtakes or props to fall, and the vine to ſprawl on the ground, the fruit will not ripen, but remain auſtere, and will not make good wine. Wine is too rich a juice to be made from a barren ſoil, or by lazy idle ſlovens; ſuch men ſhould never undertake a vineyard; they not only hurt themſelves, but hinder others, who are fit for the undertaking, from making the attempt. If a vineyard does not ſucceed, the fault is in the man, not in the vine: it will flouriſh and proſper under a careful and diligent hand, but it will degenerate and run wild under the hand of ſloth and idleneſs. A gentlemen of Rome, who took great delight in vineyards, ſome of which he had raiſed with his own hands, wrote a very elegant piece upon the culture of wines, and in the moſt pathetic terms recommends it to the people of Italy, as the moſt profitable as well as agreeable and amuſing undertaking. Among many other encouragements, he tells them this ſtory: "Pavidius Veterenſis, a neighbour of my uncle, had a vineyard and two daughters. Upon the marriage of one of them, he gave with her as her dowry one-third of his vineyard; and then doubled his diligence, and cultivated the remainder ſo well, that it yielded him as much as the whole had done before: upon the marriage of the other daughter, he gave with her one other third of his vineyard; and now having but one-third part of the whole left, he ſo manured and cultivated it, that it yielded him full as much as the whole had done at firſt."

This ingenious author accuſes many of his countrymen of having begun this work with ſeeming reſolution, and of having carried it on for ſome time with aſſiduity, but before they had brought it to perfection they flagged, and for want of ſteadineſs and a little longer perſeverance, loſt their money, their labour, and all their proſpects. At the ſame time he proves to a demonſtration, from exact and minute calculations, the great advantages of vineyards notwithſtanding the great expenſe the Romans were at in buildings, incloſures, workmen and magnificent works, and brings his own vineyards, which were well known as proofs of all he had ſaid.

We ſhall take the liberty to conclude this introduction with a ſhort but pleaſing deſcription of the vine, which Cicero, in his beautiful tract upon old age, puts into the mouth of Cato:

"The vine, that naturally runs low, and cannot rear itſelf without a ſupport, is for this end provided with tendrils, by which, like ſo many hands, it lays hold on every thing it meets with that may raiſe it, and by theſe aids it expands and becomes ſo luxuriant, that to prevent its running out into uſeleſs wood, the dreſſer is obliged to prune off its ſuperfluous wandering branches; after which, from the ſtanding joints, in the enſuing ſpring, the little bud called the gem puſhes out the new ſhoot whereon the tender young grape is formed; which gradually ſwelling by nouriſhment from the earth, is at firſt auſtere to the taſte, but guarded with leaves around, that it may neither want due warmth, nor ſuffer by too ſcorching rays, it ripens by the ſun's enlivening beams, and acquires that delicious ſweetneſs and beautiful form, that equally pleaſes both the taſte and the eye; and then enriches the world with that noble liquor, the advantages of which I need not name. Yet is not the ſenſe of theſe, nor of all the advantages of huſbandry, that ſo nearly affect us, as the pleaſure I find in their culture alone; ſuch as ranging the vines and their ſupporting perches in exact and even rows, in arching and binding their tops, lopping off the woody and barren, and training the fruitful branches to ſupply every vacancy, and then contemplating the beauty and order with the proceſs of nature in the whole."

The firſt thing neceſſary to a good vineyard is a proper plot or piece of ground; its ſituation ſhould be high and dry free from ſprings and a wet ſpongy ſoil; its aſpect or front ſhould be towards the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt: though the ground be not a hill, yet if it be high, open and airy, and gradually aſcending towards the ſouth or ſouth-eaſt, it will do very well; if it be a fruitful hill, it will do better; but if it be a mountain, with a rich ſoil, it will be beſt of all, for the higher the vineyard the richer the vine.

The ſoil moſt natural to a vineyard, and ſuch as produces the ſweeteſt grapes, and the richeſt and ſtrongeſt wine, is a rich mould mixed with ſand: the newer and freſher the ground the better; ſuch a ſoil may be found on a riſing ground and on ſome hills, but very ſeldom on the ſides of mountains; for here the ſoil is generally ſtiff and clayey, ſo ordered by Providence, as being leſs ſubject to be waſhed away by hard rains; but this ſtiff ſoil on the ſide of mountains differs greatly from clay grounds below the winds and air, and the ſun's heat, ſo dry and warm it, that it becomes a proper bed for

vines, and renders them both prolific and productive of the richeſt wines.

A rich warm ſoil mixed with gravel, or a ſandy mould interſperſed with large ſtones or with ſmall looſe rocks, are alſo very proper for a vineyard: rocks and ſtones, if the ſoil be good, warm and dry, are no diſadvantage to vines; on the contrary they reflect great heat to the fruit, and thereby contribute towards perfecting the wine, eſpecially if they are on riſing ground, on the declivity of a hill, or on the ſide of a mountain: it is true they are attended with ſome inconveniencies: it is more difficult to keep ſuch a vineyard clean, to ſtake it well, to range the vines in proper order and regular form, to dung the ground, and gather in the vintage. But then, theſe rocks and ſtones will make a good, cloſe, ſtrong and laſting fence. On the ſides of hills and mountains they are abſolutely neceſſary to make low rough walls along the lower ſide of the vines, to preſerve the good ſoil from waſhing away. They ſerve alſo to keep the ground moiſt in hot dry times, when, but for them, the ſoil would be parched up along ſuch ſteep grounds. In ſhort, there would be no ſuch thing as raiſing vineyards on ſuch grounds, where it not for rocks and ſtones. For as it is neceſſary to keep the ſoil looſe and mellow, it would all waſh away with hard rains, if not prevented by forming a kind of rough wall of ſtones along the lower ſide of each row of vines. Again, ſuch lands are cheap, being unfit for other purpoſes, generally yielding but little timber or graſs. They may therefore be purchaſed by poor people, who could not afford to go to the price of good land. Laſtly, theſe ſteep hills and mountains always yield the richeſt wines, the value and price of which will compenſate for any extraordinary labour.

If the ground be worn and out of heart, it muſt be renewed and helped with dung, with freſh mould, with creek mud, with the rich ſoil that lodges along the ſides of brooks or rivers, or that ſettles in low places at the foot of hills or mountains, or by foddering cattle or ſheep upon it with good ſtore of ſtraw, ſalt hay, or corn ſtalks, &c. or by penning ſuch cattle upon it and plowing all under it as deep as may be, till all be made ſufficiently rich, or by any other method that ſhall beſt ſuit the owner.

If the ground is ſtiff, it may be mended by good ſtore of ſand, aſhes, ſoot, the rubbiſh and mortar of old buildings, well pounded, eſpecially if ſuch mortar be made of lime and ſand

by the duſt and ſmall coal of coal kilns, and the earth that they are covered with when they are burnt, ſea ſand or fine gravel, and fowl's and ſheep's dung, or the old dung of neat cattle.

After the ground is brought into good heart, and has been deep ploughed or dug and well harrowed, ſo as to be quite mellow, it ſhould be well ſecured with a good cloſe fence, ſufficiently ſtrong to prevent the intruſion of cattle and hogs, for on this depends much of the ſucceſs of the whole plantation.

The next ſtep to be taken is to provide a ſufficient ſtock of vine cuttings, not only enough to plant the vineyard, but a ſmall nurſery too. If theſe cannot be had all at once, the planter ſhould begin to lay up a year or two beforehand, and plant them in his nurſery in even rows, at four inches diſtance, and the rows three feet aſunder, that they may be hoed and kept clean; in this caſe he ſhould ſcatter ſome ſhort ſtraw and chaff between the rows to keep the ground moiſt and the weeds down. The ground of the nurſery ſhould be in good heart, but by no means ſo rich as the ſoil of your vineyard; if it is, when the plants are removed into the vineyard, they will ſeldom flouriſh or become fruitful. The reaſon of planting the cuttings ſo cloſe in the nurſery, is to prevent their ſhooting their roots too far into the ground, which would render them very difficult to take up without damaging the root, and more tedious to plant out.

Various ſorts of vines ſhould not be planted in one vineyard, if it is meant to make good wine. The moſt experienced vigenerons aſſert, that grapes of one ſort make the beſt wine; that if they are mixed they hurt the wine, by keeping it conſtantly upon the fret by means of their different fermentations. Be that as it may, we ſhould recommend this practice for reaſons that operate more ſtrongly, which are, that the more ſimple and pure wine is, the more perfect it is in its kind. Three different wines may be all good in kind, and very agreeable whilſt diſtinct, but when mixed together become quite the reverſe, and the whole be ſpoiled. If a vineyard contains one acre of ground, it ſhould have but two ſorts of grapes in it, if it is meant to make a profit of it by ſelling the wine; if it contains two acres we adviſe to have four ſorts in it; and if it contains three or four acres we ſhould not chuſe more: but if it contains ſix, eight or ten acres, perhaps it might be proper to have a greater variety; but then preference ſhould be given

to thoſe kinds that make the beſt wines, and ſuch as do not come in at the ſame time, from whence the planter would reap many advantages:—he would not be over hurried in the time of vintage, nor run the riſk of having ſome ſpoil upon his hands, whilſt he was making up the reſt; again, if a ſeaſon proved unfavourable, and ſome were cut off by the inclemency of the weather, others, that were later ripe, might eſcape the injury. It is certainly beſt to plant each ſort in a diſtinct quarter by itſelf, to avoid confuſion, and to reap every advantage.

The next thing to be conſidered is the quality of the vines to be made choice of. This muſt be limited and adapted to the climate where the vineyard is planted. The moſt hardy and earlieſt ripe will beſt ſuit the moſt northern States, we mean thoſe of New-Hampſhire, Maſſachuſetts, Rhode-Iſland, Connecticut, &c. The vines proper for theſe countries are,

The black auvernat,
The black Orleans,
The blue cluſter,
The miller grape.

Theſe four make the beſt Burgundy.

The black Hamburgh,
The red Hamburgh,
The white muſcadine,
The muſcadella,
The melie blanc,
The white Morillon,
The white auvernat,
The grey auvernat.

All theſe are ripe early in September.

All the foregoing ſorts will do very well for New-York, New-Jerſey and Pennſylvania; we mean for the clear and open parts of theſe countries; to which may be added the following ſorts, which are recommended for trial, they being more tender, but ripen in September; they ſhould be planted in a warm part of the vineyard:

The chaſſelas blanc, called the royal muſcadine,
The malvois or malmſey,
The grey frontiniac,
The red frontiniac,
The black Liſbon,
The white Liſbon,
The chaſſelas noir.

All the foregoing ſorts will do very well for the States of Maryland, Virginia and North-Carolina, to which are added the following, and recommended for trial, but they muſt have a warm place:

The white frontiniac,
The malmſey muſcat,
The claret grape of Bourdeaux,
The white Oporto,
The black Oporto,
The black damaſk,
The chicanti of Italy, which makes a rich wine much admired in Italy.

All the before-mentioned ſorts will do well in South-Carolina, and in the colonies ſtill farther ſouth, particularly in the rich ſoils of Kentucky, &c. To which may be added the following, as being ſtill more tender and later ripe:

The raiſin muſcat,
The Alicant and Malaga raiſin grape,
The red muſcat of Alexandria,
The white muſcat of Alexandria
The gros noir of Spain,
The St. Peter's grape.

In many parts of Virginia, North and South-Carolina, and in Georgia, what ſtrength nature afforded the ſoil has been exhauſted by tobacco, Indian corn, rice, &c. However, thoſe grounds that lie near to rivers and creeks, may eaſily be recruited; for theſe rivers abounded with rich mud, which is the beſt kind of manure for ſuch lands, and it would be no great expenſe to procure a ſufficient quantity of it to cover a piece of ground large enough for a vineyard, eſpecially as it may be done at ſuch times when other buſineſs is not very urgent: this mud muſt lie ſome time upon the ground before it is mixed with the ſoil, at leaſt a ſummer and a winter; for at firſt it will bake very hard, and be very crude; but the winds, dews, rains and froſts, with the help of the ſun, will ſweeten, mellow, and bring it into a proper order; then it muſt be equally ſpread and well mixed with the ſoil. Thus may the land be recruited, and kept in good heart, from time to time, and from a barren uſeleſs piece of ground, it may become profitable both to the owner and his country.

The nature and quality of the vines being conſidered and made choice of to ſuit the country, the next thing neceſſary is, to make choice of ſuch parts of a vine, for cuttings to plant, as may be moſt likely to grow and flouriſh, and alſo to produce healthy and fruitful vines, on which the ſucceſs and profits of a vineyard very much depend. All parts of a vine are not equally good and fit for plants; all branches that have not borne fruit, all ſuckers, lateral and ſecondary branches, and eſpecially the long running barren branches, ſhould be avoided; theſe different ſorts ſeldom produce fruitful vines; the cuttings ſhould be choſen from the teeming part of the vine, from among thoſe branches that were ſet apart for bearing fruit; and among theſe ſuch as are ſhort-jointed, and have been moſt fruitful the laſt ſummer: they ſhould be cut down cloſe to the old wood, for there the wood is ripeſt and moſt firm. The upper part of the ſame branch is leſs ripe, more looſe and ſpongy, more apt to fail, and very ſeldom makes ſo firm and laſting a vine. Howe-

ver, where vines are ſcarce, and men have not theſe advantages of choice, they muſt do the beſt they can. Theſe branches muſt be trimmed and cleared from the lateral or ſecondary branches; but in doing this, great care muſt be taken not to wound the buds or eyes, which a careleſs hand is very apt to do. If the bud be bruiſed with the back of the knife, ſo that the cotton that lies under the thin bark that covers the bud, and is wiſely intended to preſerve it from the injuries of the weather, be rubbed off, the bud will periſh. Therefore, as the buds lie cloſe to theſe lateral branches, and are in ſo much danger of being wounded, it is beſt and ſafeſt to cut the branches off a little above the height of the bud.

Theſe branches thus trimmed ſhould remain whole and at full length till the next April, which, in the northern States, is the beſt time for planting. They ſhould be ſeparated from the plant ſome time in September, or as ſoon as the vintage is over, that being the beſt time for the trimming of vines, becauſe the wounds which the vine receives are healed up, and ſecurely cloſed from the ſeverity of the winter ſeaſon. If this work is left till February or March, the vine ſuffers by the freſh wounds in long rains, ſleets and froſts that follow; or if the weather is favourable, it grows faint and is exhauſted by exceſs of bleeding.

The beſt way for preſerving the cuttings through the winter, and which we therefore recommend for a general practice, is as follows: At or near the north-weſt corner of the vineyard or garden, the fence being good and cloſe, a ſmall trench ſhould be dug five or ſix inches deep and wide, and ſufficiently long to contain all the branches. In this they ſhould be planted thick and cloſe with the butt ends down, and the trench filled up with the earth that came out of it, preſſed down well with the hand all about the bottom of the branches; the earth ſhould riſe two or three inches above the ſurface of the ground, to prevent the water from ſettling about the vines, which would rot them. If the cuttings are of various ſorts the planter ſhould be careful to diſtinguiſh them from each other by their proper names. Before the planting of the vines in this manner, two or more crotches, according to the quantity of vines, ſhould be driven down at about three feet from the trench, and parallel with it, upon which poles ſhould be laid to ſupport the upper part of the branches about twelve or fifteen inches from the ground; thus they will lie ſloping without touching the ground, which preſerves them from growing mouldy and from rotting.

The vines then ſhould be covered with ſtraw, laid lengthways upon them up and down a little beyond the trench, ſo that the water is carried off beyond the foot of the vines by this ſtraw roof; and yet the ſtraw muſt not be laid on too thick, leſt it continue moiſt too long and occaſion mouldineſs. Acroſs the top and bottom, poles ſhould be laid, and faſtened down to prevent the ſtraw from blowing away. Thus they ſhould remain till ſpring.

In the beginning of April, when ready for planting, the weather being moderate and calm, the froſt out of the ground, and nature teeming with freſh vegetation, then the branches ſhould be cut for planting. If one cutting from every branch is ſufficient for the purpoſe, then the lower part ſhould be cut about twelve or fourteen inches long. But as it is moſt likely that the planter will not have enough of theſe, he muſt make two or three cuttings of every branch, not leſs than a foot long; and having a trench made ready, place them in it cloſe together, the butt or lower end down, and cover them up with earth to the upper eye, till he is ready to plant, carefully placing every ſort by themſelves, with a label denoting the kind. This direction is calculated for New-York, New-Jerſey, and Pennſylvania. The more northern States will be a month later, and the more ſouthern colonies will be at leaſt a month, ſome two months earlier; planters muſt therefore conduct themſelves accordingly. In theſe laſt States, we would recommend the cuttings to be longer, that they may be planted deeper, the better to preſerve the vines from exceſſive heats and droughts.

The ground being well manured, and brought into good heart if old, or being naturally rich if new, and having been, at leaſt twice, deep ploughed and well harrowed the ſummer before, in the fall of the year it ſhould be deep ploughed the third time, acroſs the hill or riſing ground, and lie rough juſt as it is ploughed all winter, which will greatly prevent waſhing, and the froſts will mellow it and prepare it the better for vegetation.

In the ſpring of the year, as ſoon as the ground is dry, it ſhould be well harrowed both ways, and with a ſharp iron tooth harrow laid down ſmooth and even; and this general caution ſhould be attended to, never to meddle with the ground of the vineyard when it is wet, or even moiſt at top, nay, the planter ſhould avoid as much as poſſible walking in at ſuch a time. His own experience will ſoon teach him the reaſon of this caution; for he will find, that the lighter and more open

and looſe the ſoil of a vineyard is kept, the more his vines will flouriſh, and the more fruitful they will prove.

When the ground is in proper order, the planter ſhould provide a ſmall ſtake of four feet long for every vine, and begin to lay out his vineyard in the moſt regular manner the nature and ſhape of the ground will admit of. If he means to plough and harrow his vineyard with a ſmall ſingle horſe plough and a ſmall corn harrow, he ſhould leave a border of ten or twelve feet on each ſide of every ſquare to turn the horſe upon, leſt he tramples upon and deſtroys the outſide vines. There will be no need of ſuch borders along the upper or lower ſide of the ſquares, unleſs he chuſe it for the ſake of regularity; becauſe the vineyard ſhould never be ploughed up and down hill, but tranſverſely, for if it is it will be gullied, and the rich ſoil waſhed away by hard rains.

The following method of laying out a vineyard, we think, is as eaſy, as regular and as expeditious as any, for a long ſquare or a four-ſquare piece of ground: Lay it out in as many ſquares, at leaſt, as there are different kinds of grapes to be planted: the ſquares being laid out, plant the young vines in regular order, at about eight feet diſtance from each other. This we think the beſt diſtance for them to ſtand, but variations may be made according to the will of the planter.

If the vineyard is large enough to divide into four, ſix or eight ſquares, or more, according to the different ſorts of grapes deſigned to be planted in it, and not ſtraitened for room, the planter will find it very convenient, on many occaſions, to have croſs walks of twelve feet between the ſquares, not only to turn upon when ploughing, but for carting in of manure, and placing it conveniently for dunging the vines, which will be a ſaving of labour, beſides being attended with many other advantages.

The ground being prepared, and having as many vine cuttings as can be planted in half a day, ſoaking in rich dung water, in a pail, which ſerves beſt to keep the plants upright, the butt ends being down, holes muſt be dug at proper diſtances larger or ſmaller, according to fancy or judgement; for it matters not ſo they are deep enough to contain the plant. And here we with to clear up a point, which has led many people into miſtakes and rendered this work exceedingly tedious, that is, the throwing into the holes, in which the vines are planted, rich mould mixed with old dung, thinking that this muſt be a great advantage to the vine: this is a miſtaken notion, for as ſoon as its roots ſtrike beyond this rich mixture, into the common ſoil, which is many degrees poorer and colder, the conſequence is, the roots recoil and ſhrink back at coldneſs and poverty they had not been uſed to, and the vegetation is ſtopped, and the

plant degenerates and becomes barren; and if the plant is examined at bottom, it will be found, that inſtead of extending its roots to their uſual length, it has ſhot out a great number of ſmall fibres like threads, which extend no farther than the good mould; and theſe being quite inſufficient to anſwer the demands of nature, the plant periſhes, or remains in an inactive and barren ſtate. Whereas, had the vine been planted in the common ſoil at firſt, it would have met with no alteration, no ſudden change to check its growth. This is ſufficient proof, that the ſoil ſhould be well mixed and good, for the vine proſpers in a warm, fruitful ſoil, but proves unfruitful and periſhes in a ſoil cold and barren: yet a ſoil may be too rich, or made too rank by manure, and this extreme ſhould alſo be avoided. But to return to planting the vines; the holes being dug according to the mind of the planter, a ſtake ſhould be driven on one ſide of the hole, and the vine then planted with the foot ſet forward from the ſtake, and bent a little, ſo as to bring it gently up againſt it, but one eye only ſhould remain above the ſurface of the ground: the bud or eye muſt not touch the ſtake, but look from it: the earth, mixed well together, ſhould be preſſed gently about the vine, till the hole is almoſt full, and the reſt thrown in lightly without preſſing, ſo that it may riſe up to the eye of the vine, which ought to be about two inches above the common ſurface. By this means the vine will be preſerved from drying winds and the hot ſun till it begins to grow. Some place four or five paving ſtones about the foot of the vine, not ſo cloſe but that the roots may ſhoot out between them, and theſe they ſay, and we think with reaſon, condenſe the air in hot dry ſeaſons, and nouriſh the vine with moiſture, and cool and refreſh it when parched with exceſſive heats. In the northern colonies, the vines ſhould be planted on the ſouth ſide of the ſtakes for the ſake of the ſun: in the ſouthern colonies, they ſhould be planted on the north ſide, to avoid too great heat. The upper eye only ſhould ſhoot out branches, from which the head of the vine is formed. If any ſhoots ſhould riſe from below, which ſometimes is the caſe, the ſooner they are removed the better; theſe are called ſuckers, and very much exhauſt the vine.

When the vineyard is planted, if there are any cuttings remaining, they ſhould be planted in a nurſery, or along the north ſide of the ſtakes, for there will be occaſion for them, as many of the vines will fail, and the ſooner their places are ſupplied the better. If ſome of the vines do not ſhoot till July, they ſhould not be given up, as they may grow notwithſtanding; many have not ſhot till Auguſt, and yet have done well. Filling up all the vacancies, where the vines have failed or miſcarried, is abſolutely neceſſary to be done as ſoon as poſſible, either

the fall after the vines were planted, with plants from the nurſery, if the planter has any growing; or the next ſpring, with cuttings, which is the beſt ſeaſon for planting them; for having no root, they ſuffer greatly in the winter ſeaſon, and if planted in the fall, moſt of them periſh. If the vacancies ſhould by any means be neglected for three or four years, the planter will find it very difficult to raiſe thriſty and flouriſhing vines in ſuch places afterwards; becauſe, by this time, the neighbouring vines having ſhot their roots all round the ſpot where the young vine is to be planted, will ſo draw away the nouriſhment, and entangle the ſmall tender roots that firſt ſhoot from it, that it will not be able to ſhoot forward and flouriſh. Some, for this reaſon, plant two cuttings in a hole, leſt one ſhould miſcarry. To this the chief objection is, that hereby the regularity and uniformity of the vineyard is hurt; many of the vines ſtanding out of the line. For in a well-regulated vineyard the vines ſhould be always arranged in regular rows. If ſome of the vines prove weak the firſt ſummer, and do not recover ſtrength the ſecond, though manured and cultivated well, they ſhould be rooted out, (for in ſuch caſe they very ſeldom are worth raiſing) and healthy vines planted in their ſtead out of the nurſery.

In digging up the plants from the nurſery, care ſhould be uſed that they may be taken up without wounding or bruiſing the roots, and having a pail or ſmall tub half full of rich dung water, the plants ſhould be put with the roots downward into that, to preſerve them from the ſun and drying winds, which would ſoon parch and dry up theſe young tender roots and kill the vine. When the planter has dug up about a dozen or twenty plants, he ſhould then proceed to planting, which muſt be done in the following manner. The holes being dug deep enough and ſufficiently wide for the roots to be ſpread in at full length, ſome looſe earth ſhould be thrown in, and ſpread over the bottom of the hole. The plant ſhould then be fixed near the ſtake, ſo high that the little branches may riſe an inch or two above the ſurface of the ground. The roots, it will be perceived, for the moſt part grow in rows, one above another. The upper roots of all, which are called the day roots, muſt be cut away; the under roots of all muſt then be ſpread at full length, and covered with earth, then the next muſt be ſerved in the ſame manner, and ſo on till all be regularly extended and covered. This is purſuing nature, which is generally the beſt director. The earth alſo by this means will better ſettle about the roots, and the vines in the ſpring will grow and flouriſh as if they had not been moved or tranſplanted.

The vines being all planted as above directed, and the vine cuttings, with one bud only above ground, and that almoſt co-

vered with light earth, to preſerve them from ſuffering from heat and drying winds till they begin to grow; this upper bud only will ſhoot out branches, and the lower ones will throw out roots: and this is much better than having two or three buds above ground, and branches growing from them all, which only ſerve to weaken the vine, and hinder the forming of a good head, which is the firſt and chief point to be well ſecured.

We now proceed to the management of the vine in its infant ſtate, upon which will very much depend the after ſucceſs of the vineyard.

There are but two ways of forming and managing of vines to advantage for vineyards, by ſtakes or eſpaliers. As for wall fruit, the vines that are fixed to walls muſt be managed in the ſame manner as thoſe which are deſigned for eſpaliers, that is, the head of the vine is at firſt formed about three feet from the ground. But this we ſhall particularly explain when treating of the management of vines for eſpaliers; we ſhall begin with the proper culture of vines that are deſigned for ſtakes.

In this caſe, the head of the vine is formed near the ſurface of the ground: this method is now generally practiſed throughout wine countries, and indeed it is the only method proper for countries where the froſts in winter are ſo hard as to hurt vines, by which means the next year's crop is deſtroyed. There is no way to prevent this but by covering the vines in winter, which cannot be done when fixed upon frames or eſpaliers without great difficulty and labour, as well as danger to the vine.

The firſt ſummer after the vine is planted, there is nothing to do, but to tie up the little branches to the ſtakes with a ſoft band, as ſoon as they are grown about a foot or fifteen inches long, which will ſave them from being torn off by hard winds, which would endanger the vine; beſides, they grow the ſtronger and the better for it, and are out of the way of the hoe, the plough and the harrow. The ground ſhould be kept clean and free from weeds and graſs, for they are great enemies to vines, and if the ground is kept mellow and looſe, the vines will grow and flouriſh the better. If the planter has any litter, ſhort ſtraw and chaff, the ſhives of broken hemp or flax, the chaff of flax ſeed, the duſt and chaff of buckwheat, and the ſtraw trod fine with horſes when it is dry, any or all of theſe ſpread over the vineyards after it is hoed or ploughed and harrowed, will keep down the graſs and weeds, keep the ground moiſt and light, and greatly preſerve the good ſoil from waſhing away. If this is done the firſt three or four years, it will greatly forward the vines, bring the ground into good heart,

and finely prepare it to produce good crops, by keeping it looſe, airy and light.

In the month of September, when the leaf begins to wither and fall off, which is the beſt time for trimming of vines, the planter ſhould cut down all the branches to one good bud each, and remembering, that the lowermoſt bud next the old wood is called the dead eye, and never reckoned among the good buds. When the vines are thus trimmed, a careful hand ſhould take away the dirt from the foot of the vine, about four inches down, and cut away all the upper roots that appear above that depth. Theſe ſhould be taken away every fall for the firſt three years. The beſt way is, not to cut them off cloſe to the body of the vine, but about a ſtraw's breadth from it, as they will not be ſo apt to grow again as when cut cloſe. Theſe upper or day roots greatly weaken the vine, and hinder the lower roots from extending and firmly fixing themſelves below, on which greatly depends the ſtrength, firmneſs and durableneſs, of the vine, and alſo its fruitfulneſs. Beſides, by the roots running deep, the vine is preſerved from periſhing in long, tedious droughts. The foot of the vine ſhould be left open after the day roots are cut away, that it may dry and harden, till the hard froſts come: then the holes ſhould be filled again, and the head of the vine covered with chaff and ſhort ſtraw mixed, or with bog or ſalt hay, or with horſe litter that is free from dung and graſs ſeeds; for theſe ſhould be carefully kept out of a vineyard, which will ſave the labour of rooting out the graſs that would ſpring from them. Some cover the head of the vine with earth when they fill up the holes; but this is wrong, as it greatly endangers the vine, the ground, in warm rains, mouluing and rotting the vine. For the ſame reaſon, the planter ſhould ſuffer no dung to be among the ſtraw, hay or horſe litter, with which he covers his vines, as the heat of the dung, in warm rains or muggy warm weather, will mould and rot them; the cooler and drier they are kept, the better. When the planter trims his vines, if he finds that any of them have failed, which is very common, he ſhould plant others in their room immediately, if he has any plants of the ſame ſort growing in his nurſery; if not, he ſhould without delay, provide cuttings of the ſame kind, and preſerve them till ſpring, as before directed, and plant them in the vacant places, that the vineyard may be full and complete as ſoon as poſſible.

The ſecond ſummer the planter will find more branches ſhooting from the heads of his vines than did the firſt ſummer; and here the ſkill of a vigneron is neceſſary for forming the head in the beſt manner. The beſt method is to let the ſhoots grow till they are ten or twelve inches long, then to chuſe eight that are ſhort-jointed and much of a ſize that grow on all ſides of the vine, and ſtrike off all the reſt. If one branch among the whole

number appears much more thrifty than the reſt, the planter may perhaps be tempted to ſave it; but in this caſe his eye ſhould not ſpare, for it will draw to itſelf the chief nouriſhment of the vine, and deſtroy, or at leaſt much weaken the reſt of the branches, and after all will bear but little fruit, for the ſhort-jointed branches prove the beſt bearers, and theſe ſtanding on all ſides of the head, preſerve the vine in full ſtrength and vigour. For this reaſon, the rounder the head of the vine is formed, the better: if the branches are ſuffered to grow only from one ſide of the head, the other ſide ſuffers greatly, and is apt to periſh.

This year there ſhould be two ſtakes to a vine, one on each ſide, to which the branches ſhould be faſtened; by this means they are ſpread at a diſtance from each other, and grow the ſtronger; the ſun, air and winds, come to every part, the wood ripens well, the buds fill, and they are the better prepared to become fruitful in due time: whereas, when they are huddled all together, and faſtened up to one ſtake, they ſuffer greatly for want of the ſun and air to dry them, after rains, miſts and heavy dews; and in cloſe, damp weather, they often mildew and rot. Another reaſon for tying up the branches ſingly to the ſtakes on each ſide, as ſoon as they are long enough, is to prevent them from being torn off by hard winds, which would ruin the vines. The vineyard ſhould always be kept clean and free from weeds and graſs; and the dryer the ground is, and the hotter the weather, the more effectually they are deſtroyed, by hoeing, ploughing and harrowing. But the planter ſhould remember, never to meddle with his ground when it is wet, for in ſuch caſe he does more hurt than good.

This ſecond ſummer the main branches ſhould be ſuffered to grow about five feet long, and then the ends of them be nipped off, in order to keep them within proper bounds, and to hinder them from growing wild. The lateral or ſecondary branches ſhould be nipped off at the end when they are about a foot long, the nephews alſo ſhould be nipped off when they are about ſix inches long. This is much better than the taking all theſe ſmaller branches clean away, which is the practice of ſome; for when theſe are taken clean away, the main branches evidently ſuffer, they grow flat, and appear diſtorted; which plainly ſhews, that nature is deprived of ſomething that is eſſentially neceſſary to her well being. It is quite neceſſary to nip off the ends of the main branches, when they are grown about five feet long, as they grow the larger and ſtronger, the wood ripens the better, the lower buds are better filled and prepared for bearing fruit. Beſides, the vines become habituated to a low, humble ſtate, and their tendency to climb and mount up above every thing that is near them is checked, by which means they

bear fruit within reach. Some time after the tops of the main branches are nipped off, they will ſhoot out a ſecond time, and then they generally throw out, from near the end, two branches inſtead of one; theſe muſt be nipped off; at the ſame time the lateral or ſecondary branches muſt be looked to and nipped, if any of them are ſhooting out again.

In the fall of the year, as ſoon as the leaf begins to wither and fall off, which happens earlier or later, according to the weather, the branches ſhould be again cut down to one good bud each, the earth taken away round the heads of the vines, as before directed, the day roots cut off, and the vine managed juſt in the ſame manner as in the fall before. As ſome of the forward vines will bear fruit the third year from planting, and as it is natural for the planter to deſire fruit, and eſpecially to know what ſort, and how good, the different vines will bear, to ſatisfy his curioſity, we would adviſe him to ſet aſide two or three of each ſort of his moſt thriving vines for that purpoſe, and inſtead of cutting down all their branches to one bud each, like the reſt, leave two branches on each of theſe vines, with two or three good buds on each, which will ſhew ſome fruit for the ſatisfaction of his curioſity. But we would perſuade him to prevent the reſt from bearing fruit till the fourth year, and the weaker vines till the fifth, for the vineyard will make him ample ſatisfaction for this piece of ſelf-denial, as it greatly weakens a vine, and indeed any other fruit tree, to bear when ſo young; and however fond moſt men may be of their vines bearing much fruit, the overbearing of vines is allowed, on all hands, to hurt them greatly. To prevent which, in wine countries, where it is common to leaſe out vineyards to huſbandmen, whom they call vignerons, they have very ſtrict laws, obliging them to leave only four, ſix, or eight bearing branches on a vine, according to the age of the vineyard, the ſtrength of the vines, the goodneſs of the ſoil, and the cuſtom of different countries where good wines are held in repute, to prevent their hurting the vines, and the reputation of their produce. Theſe vignerons are likewiſe obliged, after three fruitful years, if ſo many happen ſucceſſively, to let their vineyards reſt one year without bearing fruit, that they may have time to recruit and gather freſh ſtrength.

The third ſummer the planter ſhould manage his vines in the ſame manner he did the ſecond, tying up all the branches to the ſtakes, one above another; only of thoſe vines that are to bear fruit, the fruit-bearing branches ſhould be tied up above the reſt, that the fruit may have the benefit of the ſun, the air and winds, all which are neceſſary to bring the fruit to maturity. This year a third ſtake ſhould be provided, which ſhould be

drove down in the ſpring, juſt on the north ſide of the vine, upon a line with the reſt. To this ſtake the branches that bear fruit, there being but few of them, will be beſt faſtened, becauſe there will be the more room for the branches of reſerve, which are to bear fruit the next year, to be diſtinctly faſtened to the ſide ſtakes. Theſe branches of reſerve are now of great importance to the owner, as the next crop will depend upon the right management of them. They ſhould, therefore, be carefully tied up at proper diſtances to the ſide ſtakes, that they may grow well, that the wood may ripen, and the buds may be well filled. When they are grown above five feet long, the ends muſt be nipped off, and the lateral branches kept ſhort, and the nephews reſtrained, if they grow too long. As to the few vines that bear fruit this ſummer, the fruit-bearing branches ſhould be nipped off five joints above the fruit, and the ſide branches and nephews kept ſhort, as above directed.

In the fall of this third ſummer, two of the beſt ſhort-jointed branches of reſerve ſhould be ſaved, one on each ſide of the head of the vine, for bearing fruit the next year: the reſt ſhould be cut down to one good bud each. If ſome of the vines be very ſtrong and flouriſhing, the planter may preſerve four branches for bearing fruit, but by no means more, one on each quarter of the vine. As to the branches on the few vines that bore fruit this year, they muſt be cut down to one good bud each; for the ſame branch ſhould never be ſuffered to bear fruit two following years, unleſs the trees fall ſhort of branches of reſerve, in that caſe the planter muſt do what neceſſity requires, and let the old branches bear a ſecond time, but they ſeldom or never bear large cluſters, nor fair fruit. Thoſe vines that bore fruit this year, ſhould not have above two branches on each left for bearing fruit the next year, by which means their ſtrength will be preſerved from being exhauſted when young; in conſequence of which they will laſt the longer, and bear fruit the more plentifully. The reſt of the management is the ſame with that of the laſt year; except that ſome time in the latter end of November, or ſomewhat later, if the hard weather keeps off, a ſmall long trench on each ſide of the vine ſhould be dug with a hoe, and the branches that are kept for bearing fruit, laid down gently into them, and covered over with the earth. The part which appears above ground muſt be well covered with ſtraw, bog, or ſalt hay; and, indeed, if the whole that is buried were alſo covered in the ſame manner, with ſtraw, &c. it would be

beſt; for the branches being of an elaſtic nature, they are very apt, upon the thawing of the ground, to riſe with their backs above the ground, and remain expoſed to the weather, by which means the crop is often loſt, which a ſmall covering of ſtraw or hay will prevent. If any of them ſhould be too ſtiff to bend down, then ſtraw ſhould be bound round them and the ſtake.

In the ſpring of the fourth year, the branches that have been preſerved for bearing fruit, ſhould be carefully trained up to the ſide ſtakes, the higher the better; the branches that ſhoot out from the head this ſpring, which are called branches of reſerve, and are deſigned to bear fruit the next ſucceeding year, ſhould be tied up to the ſtakes below the fruit-bearing branches, and one or two to the middle ſtake, if there is room, for oftentimes the fruit-bearing branches occupy the middle as well as the ſide ſtakes, and eſpecially in a plentiful year. The management of the vine in its bearing ſtate calls for a cloſe and particular attention. Some gentlemen, and thoſe who have written beſt upon this ſubject, recommend the taking away all the lateral or ſecondary branches and the nephews, cloſe to the body of the fruit-bearing branch, and to leave only the main leaves of that branch, thinking, by this method, that all the nouriſhment of the vine is thrown into the fruit. They alſo order the top of the branch to be taken off within three joints of the uppermoſt cluſter of grapes. Others again are for following nature, and ſuffering all the branches to extend themſelves as they will. Theſe we look upon as two extremes, and think that a middle way is the beſt, moſt rational and ſafeſt. The lateral branches, the leaves and nephews, are ſuppoſed by naturaliſts to draw off the crude and thin juices, and to hinder them from entering and ſpoiling the fruit, and alſo ſerve for the circulation of the air through all the parts which is neceſſary to vegetation, and for bringing the fruit to perfect maturity. That this is ſo, or how it is, we are not ſo well acquainted with the operations of nature as to determine; but this we know, that when theſe ſmaller branches are taken clean away, the main branches, inſtead of growing round, full and plump, which is their natural ſtate, become hard, flat, and diſtorted, and have an unnatural appearance. Beſides theſe branches, when kept within proper bounds, ſerve to ſhade the fruit from the ſcorching rays of the ſun, and to ſcreen them from violent winds, from hail and beating rains, from damps and fogs and cold night dews, which are all injurious to the fruit, as well as the cold dry north-eaſt winds, and the cold driving north-eaſt ſtorms. But this ſhould not lead

into the other extreme, for if the vine is left to itſelf, and all theſe branches ſuffered to grow, it will run wild and ruin itſelf by its own exceſs. This is the method of managing vines when the head is formed near the ground, and which is now practiſed in moſt vine countries in vineyards, except ſome parts of France, where they are ſtill fond of eſpaliers, and this method muſt be continued as long as the vines laſt, which moſt writers affirm, will be above one hundred years. As to the management of vines in gardens, againſt walls, and for forming of ſhady places, and many other ways to pleaſe the humour and fancy of the owner, that is not to be regarded, it has no relation to vineyards, though the leading obſervations reſpecting cutting, &c. will equally apply to them.

We have been informed that it is the practice of ſome to cut all the branches down, and to truſt to new ſhoots for bearing of fruit; and we have read the ſame account in a treatiſe publiſhed by James Mortimer, Eſq. fellow of the royal ſociety, in the year 1707, but theſe accounts are ſo vague, ſo general and ſuperficial, without entering minutely into any particulars, that no dependence can be placed upon them; nor can any man from the account form a judgment of the manner of doing it. However, from thence we have taken a hint, and propoſe a method which may be worth trial. In the fall of the third year of the vine's age, inſtead of ſaving two or four branches for bearing fruit, cut down theſe to two buds each, and the reſt cut down to one bud each; the upper buds of theſe branches that have two, are deſigned to bear fruit the next year, the lower buds and the buds of all the reſt are deſigned for fruit the year after, and therefore if any fruit ſhould appear upon them, it ſhould be taken away as ſoon as the cluſter appears; in the fall of the fourth year, all the branches that have borne fruit ſhould be cut clean away, and thoſe only left that did not bear fruit; and then according to the ſtrength of the vine, as many of theſe may be cut down to two buds, as in judgment it is thought the vine ought to bear, the reſt ſhould be cut down to one, always remembering that the branches that have but one bud, and the under bud of thoſe that have two, are to bear no fruit. When the vines come to be ſtrong and able to bear it, all the branches ſhould be cut down to two buds, and then there will be eight bearing branches in one year, which are quite enough for the ſtrongeſt vines; however, if the planter has a mind to ſtrain his vines, and to try how much they will bear, he may cut as many branches as he thinks fit down to three buds, two of

which may bear fruit, while the under buds are kept for branches of reſerve. In the fall, all the fruit bearing branches ſhould be cut clean away, for no branch ſhould be left to bear for two years. If this method ſhould ſucceed, and the planter think it preferable to the method firſt laid down, we mean that of preſerving branches of reſerve to be laid down and covered in winter, which is the German method, and the general practice of the Rhine, &c. then, in order to bring the older vines into this method, he ſhould cut down the fruit-bearing branches to one bud the firſt year, and the branches of reſerve to two or three buds each, as the vines appear able to bear it. In this the planter muſt form his judgement from the ſtrength of the vine, the goodneſs of the ſoil, the diſtance of the vines from each other, and the quantity of fruit they have borne the three preceding years: for vines muſt have time to reſt and recruit, if they are meant to laſt, and to bear again with vigour.

For the covering of theſe vines in the winter ſeaſon, we would adviſe a handful of ſoft hay, that is free from graſs-ſeeds, to be laid on the head of the vine, and a ſlight box made of rough cedar boards, or of pine, be put over the head, which will be a ſafe and ſufficient covering: otherwiſe a ſmall ſheaf of ſtraw, bound well round the ſtake, and the bottom brought all round the head of the vine, and ſecured by a band from blowing open, will do very well. The vines ſhould not be covered till hard weather is ready to ſet in, and they ſhould be dry when covered.

Before we proceed to the management of vines for the frame or eſpalier, it may be neceſſary to offer a few obſervations of a general nature, which all who grow vines will find it their intereſt to attend to.

When vines are trimmed in the fall, which they ought to be, as ſoon as the vintage is over, or as ſoon as the leaf withers and falls off, they ſeldom bleed, and never ſo as to hurt them. If vines have been neglected and not trimmed in the fall, and this work muſt be done in the ſpring, it ſhould be done in February, if good weather happens, or early in March. If it is done later, they will bleed too much, and endanger the crop. Searing the wound as ſoon as it is made with a hot iron, it is ſaid, and we think with reaſon, will prevent the bleeding. In trimming, keep about two inches from the bud, or half way between bud and bud, that the upper bud that is left may be free from danger. The rule is, to cut ſloping upward, on the oppoſite ſide to the bud, but this is no kind of ſecurity to the eyes below.

If, therefore, fearing every wound with a hot iron be thought too much trouble, another remedy is, to waſh the branches that are wounded and bleed, and eſpecially the buds, with a rag dipped in warm water, without touching the wound, which in eight or ten days will ſtop of itſelf; the liquor forming a ſtiff jelly upon the wound, like coagulated blood, and drying by degrees, heals up the wound. The waſhing muſt be deferred till they have done bleeding: unleſs this is done, the buds will be endangered. For ſo glutinous is the ſap, that it binds up the bud it reaches, that the leaves cannot open and unfold at the time of vegetation. In cutting off large limbs from old vines, it ſometimes happens that ants fall upon the pith, eat their way in, and make a hollow, where the water ſettles and rots it. In this caſe the remedy is, to cut ſuch branches cloſe down to where it is ſolid and green, and it will bark over and heal.

It is common for large buds to ſhoot out two or three branches each, but only one on each ſhould be ſuffered to grow; if fruit is expected on them, the planter ſhould be careful not to ſtrike them off till he knows which is moſt fruitful. Vines that are cloſe planted in a vineyard, cannot be expected to bear ſo much fruit as ſingle vines, or as thoſe that are planted at a diſtance. Their roots are too much confined, ſo that they cannot gather nouriſhment in ſo ſmall a compaſs of ground, to ſupport and bring to perfection a large quantity of fruit; and this is a ſufficient reaſon for reſtraining them, and for limiting the number of bearing branches, if it is meant to make good wine, to keep the vines in full vigour, and to preſerve them for many years; but the deficiency is fully made up by a greater number of vines, and the planting them cloſe, enables the planter the better to keep them low.

Vines that bear black or red grapes generally ſhoot forth a greater number of branches, and more vigorous, than thoſe that bear white grapes, and therefore the latter require more caution in trimming, and more care in the cultivation and management of the ſoil, that it be kept clean and in good heart.

When vines have been covered with earth during the winter ſeaſon, they ſhould not be uncovered in the ſpring, till the hard froſts are over, and then it ſhould be done in a fair, warm day, that they may dry before night, for if they ſhould freeze before they are dry, it would greatly hurt, if not ruin the crop.

In tranſplanting vines or trees of any kind, it has by long experience been found, that removing them in the fall, after the leaf is fallen, is much ſurer and ſafer than doing it in the ſpring:

for if trees are well ſtaked, ſo as to ſtand firm againſt hard winds, the ground will be ſo well packed about the roots, that they will grow in the ſpring as if they had not been removed, and are in no danger, if a dry ſeaſon ſhould happen (eſpecially if ſome horſe litter or old hay be thrown round them in the ſpring, ſo as not to touch the ſtem.) Whereas if they are removed in the ſpring, and a drought ſucceeds, before the ground is well ſettled about the roots, many of them will miſcarry.

As vines are beſt planted upon riſing grounds to prevent too much wet, and as it is neceſſary to keep the ſoil looſe and mellow, it thereby becomes more liable to be waſhed away by hard rains, which is a great injury to a vineyard; now if by any means this inconveniency can be avoided, it is a great point gained, and therefore it deſerves the particular attention of the planter: ſeveral ways have been tried, ſo as neither to injure the vines nor hurt the crop. The following method, where a perſon has the conveniency, will, we believe, be found effectual. Lay broad flat ſtones, not exceeding two inches in thickneſs, cloſe along the lower ſide of the vines, after the ground has been made looſe and mellow. Theſe ſtones being broad, and not very heavy, do not preſs hard upon the roots of the vines, nor pack the ground too cloſe. They reflect great heat on the vine and fruit, which helps to bring to maturity; they preſerve the ſoil from waſhing away, they keep the ground moiſt in the drieſt times, and hinder too much wet from penetrating down to the roots near the head of the vine, which chiefly occaſions the burſting of the grapes when they are near ripe, after a ſhower of rain. To prevent this evil is one reaſon for cutting away the day roots, which extend themſelves along near the ſurface of the ground. But where ſuch flat ſtones are not eaſy to be had, we would recommend ſhort ſtraw mixed with chaff, the ſhieves of flax and hemp, the chaff of flax ſeed, or old half-rotted ſalt, or bog hay, free from grais ſeeds, ſpread thin between the rows. On the ſide of ſteep grounds, of hills and mountains, ſtones in proportion to the deſcent, or logs of wood, where ſtones are not to be had, muſt be laid along the lower ſide of the vines, to keep the ſoil from waſhing away, which otherwiſe it will do, to the great damage, if not the ruin of the vineyard, and therefore in beginning a vineyard, in ſuch a ſituation, this is an eſſential part of the coſt.

A vineyard will thrive the better, and the crops will be more ſure, if it is well ſcreened by a good fence, buildings, mountain, or thick copſe of wood at a ſmall diſtance, from thoſe points

that lie north-eaſt and north; the winds from thoſe quarters, in the ſpring of the year, being very unfriendly to vines. But then a vineyard ſhould be quite open to all the other points of the compaſs; for vines ſucceed beſt in an open, clear, pure, warm air, free from cold damps, fogs, miſts, and condenſed air, ariſing from bogs, ſwamps, and wet clay grounds, and from large tracts of neighbouring woods. The north-weſt winds in America, are, indeed, rather advantageous to a vineyard; for although they are extremely cold in winter, and occaſion ſevere froſts, yet as the vines are then covered, they do them no harm. Beſides, thoſe winds are generally drying, and ſeldom bring wet; in the ſpring and ſummer they are always cool, and help to brace up, harden, and confirm the leaves and tender new ſhot branches of all trees and vegetables, which otherwiſe would remain languid and weak.

There are three ſeaſons when a careful and experienced vigneron ſhould deny acceſs to his vineyard; firſt, when the ground is wet, becauſe then the weight of a man preſſes down and packs the earth too cloſe and hard upon the roots of the vines. Secondly, when the vines are in bloſſom, becauſe if they are then diſturbed by handling, ſhaking, or rubbing againſt them, the farina or fine duſt that is formed on the bloſſom, which impregnates or gives life to the fruit, is ſhaken off and the fruit miſcarries. Thirdly, when the fruit grows ripe, becauſe the temptation is too ſtrong to withſtand, and perſons will pluck off the faireſt, ripeſt grapes, which injures the whole bunch, and certainly is a great injury to the owner, for the faireſt grapes make the richeſt and fineſt flavoured wines.

With reſpect to the management of vines upon eſpaliers, it muſt be remembered, that this is a practice only fit for ſouthern or very warm climates, where the winter froſts are not ſo ſevere as in more northern regions; for as they are to ſtand expoſed to all weathers, the germ or bud, from which the grapes ſpring, are apt to be chilled and deſtroyed by the ſeverity of a ſharp ſeaſon, and eſpecially by moiſt ſticking ſnows freezing hard on the branches.

The firſt year the young vines are trimmed and managed in the ſame manner as before directed.

The ſecond year, when they always ſhoot forth a greater number of branches, is the time for making choice of the beſt branches for ſtandards; the planter ſhould therefore ſet apart two of the beſt ſhortjointed branches on each vine for that purpoſe, that one may be ſecured in caſe the other ſhould fail, as theſe branches when young are ſubject to many accidents.

Having choſen two branches for ſtandards, he ſhould train them up as ſtraight as poſſible, one on each ſide of the ſtake, to which, when they are grown about fifteen inches long, they ſhould be bound with a ſoft band: as they grow longer, they ſhould be bound a ſecond and third time; and when they are grown up to the top of the ſtake, which ſhould be five feet high, the ends ſhould be nipped off that they may grow thicker and ſtronger. When the planter has taken away the tops of the vine, it will ſhoot out two branches at the top inſtead of one; theſe muſt alſo be nipped off and kept ſhort, but none of the lateral branches muſt be taken away till the time for trimming them. In the fall, when the vine leaves begin to wither and fall, one of theſe ſtandards from each vine ſhould be cut away cloſe to the ſtock, leaving the other, which will be out of danger; all the branches and nephews muſt be trimmed from it, and the top cut off within three feet and an half of the ground, leaving four buds at the top, and cutting off all the ends of the buds below them; all theſe wounds will be healed before the hard weather comes on; the two upper buds will be the arms of the vine, the two lower buds will be the two ſhoulders, and juſt under theſe the vine is faſtened to the eſpaliers, and is called the head of the vine.

The third ſummer the eſpaliers being regularly ſet up ſix feet high, in a line with the vines, the poſts being of ſome laſting wood, as red cedar, locuſt, or mulberry, which are ultimately the cheapeſt; or for want of theſe, of good thrifty cheſnut, that is not worm-eaten; and being firmly fixed in the ground, in the middle ſpace between vine and vine, the rails, four in height, muſt be well nailed to them, and placed on the north ſide of the vines, the lowermoſt about three feet from the ground, or juſt beneath the lowermoſt bud on the vine, the vine muſt be faſtened with a ſtrong band to a ſtake firmly fixed down near the root of the vine, and faſtened to the frame near the lower rail, the four buds riſing above it. When theſe buds ſhoot forth their branches, they muſt be regularly trained up to the rails above, and faſtened to them with a ſoft band; as ſoon as they are long enough to reach the firſt above them, they muſt be faſtened to that, and ſo to the next, &c. as they grow, and this muſt be done by a careful hand, becauſe theſe branches at firſt are very tender; if they ſhould be neglected till they are grown longer before they are tied, they will be in great danger of being torn off by hard winds, which will greatly damage the vine. When the branches are grown up to the top of the

frame, the ends muſt be nipped off even with it, and when from the tops they ſhoot forth again, they muſt again be taken off and kept down even with the frame. The lateral branches and nephews alſo muſt be kept within proper bounds, and not ſuffered to grow too long, for ſome of their ſide branches will ſteal away to a great length, and rob the vine of its ſtrength. If any fruit ſhould appear this year, which may happen, it ſhould be taken away as ſoon as it appears, and ſelf-denial will be amply rewarded the ſucceeding year.

In the fall of this third year, the lateral branches and nephews muſt be carefully cut away from the main branches, ſo as not to hurt or rub againſt the lower buds with the back of the knife, which is frequently done by cutting off the branches too near the germ or bud. For if the thin bark that covers the bud be rubbed off, under which is a ſoft warm covering of a kind of cotton, to preſerve it from cold, the wet gets in, freezes and deſtroys the germ. The four main branches that ſprung from the four buds, ſhould now be cut down to two good buds each; beſides the lower bud next the old wood, which is never looked upon as a good bud, though the planter will be obliged ſometimes to make uſe of it. In cutting off the main branches, care ſhould be taken to cut ſlanting upward, ſo that the wound appears in the ſhape of the nail of a man's finger, and the ſlope ſhould be on the oppoſite ſide of the bud, that if it ſhould bleed it may drop free of the bud; this is the rule on which we have given our opinion before. In cutting, care ſhould be taken not to approach too near the bud that is left, leſt you endanger it, by letting in the cold air and wet upon it, before the wound can heal.

The chief point in managing theſe vines, is, the providing branches of reſerve for recruiting the arms in ſuch manner as to confine the vine within the compaſs of the frame, for if new arms are raiſed from the old ones, the vine will ſoon outſhoot the frame. The planter muſt, therefore, ſeek for new arms from the ſhoulders; if a branch grows in a proper place, any where between the arms and the head, and happens to be broken, it ſhould be cut down to two or three good buds, as ſoon as it is diſcovered: this is called a keeper, and very well ſupplies the place of a branch of reſerve.

We above directed to cut the four main branches that grew from the four buds, down to two good buds each, but this is deſigned for the ſtrong vines only; thoſe that are weak, muſt be cut down to one good bud each branch, by which means

they will gather ſtrength the better, and if any fruit ſhould appear on the weak vines in the fourth, or even the fifth year, it ſhould be ſtruck off as ſoon as it appears.

The fourth year, when the vines are trimmed in the fall, the arms may be cut down to one good bud each, inſtead of being taken clean away, for the vines being yet young and low, theſe two buds will in a manner become part of the ſhoulders, being ſo near them; theſe will bear fruit the next, which is the fifth year, and then the two lower buds that grew on the branches which ſprung from the ſhoulder may be ſaved for branches of reſerve, by taking away the fruit as ſoon as they appear, and theſe will bear fruit the year after, which is quite ſufficient.

The ſixth year the planter may have three good buds on each branch for bearing fruit, and the ſeventh year he may have four buds on each branch, which will make eight bearing branches, which, as before obſerved, are thought by the beſt judges to be quite ſufficient for the ſtrongeſt vines, if it is meant to make good wine; and to this number vignerons are generally confined.

Vines that are deſigned for eſpaliers muſt be planted further aſunder than thoſe that are intended for ſtakes, for as they riſe much higher with the ſtem, they require more nouriſhment, and more room to extend their roots; ten feet is by no means too much: twelve would be better.

One general rule is neceſſary to be laid down in order to give young vine-dreſſers a clear idea of the nature and manner of trimming vines, which is a proceſs to young beginners; the young wood that grew this year, muſt be preſerved for bearing fruit the next year, and thoſe branches that did not bear fruit are better for the purpoſe than thoſe that did.

When the arms have borne fruit, they ſhould be cut away in the fall of the year, as ſoon as the vintage is over, provided there are branches of reſerve growing on the ſhoulders to ſupply their places: but if the trees have failed in theſe, notwithſtanding all attempts to procure them, the planter muſt then do what neceſſity requires, and cut the arms down to two, three, or four good buds each, according to the ſtrength of the vine, remembering not to ſuffer any fruit to grow on the branches that ſpring from the lower bud on each old arm, theſe being now abſolutely neceſſary for branches of reſerve, in order to recruit the arms the next year. According to theſe rules, vines on eſpaliers muſt be conſtantly treated.

As ſome of the ſouthern States have a hot ſandy ſoil, and are ſubject to great heats and parching droughts, we ſhall here offer a few thoughts and directions which we imagine moſt likely to render the vineyard ſucceſsful in theſe hot parching countries.

Firſt, we think it will be found neceſſary to ſhade the young vines the firſt two or three years, during the hot dry ſeaſons, by driving down firmly in the ground branches of trees thick ſet with leaves, on the ſouth ſide of the vines; theſe are better than mats, or pieces of thatch work, as the air and winds can paſs more freely through them; it will alſo be neceſſary to water the young vines twice a week, during the hot dry ſeaſons, in the evening, that the water may have the whole night to ſoak down to the roots of the vines, to cool and refreſh them; the branches in theſe hot countries ſhould not be tied up to the ſtakes, but ſhould be ſuffered to run on the ground to ſhade and keep it moiſt and cool. Theſe vines muſt be trimmed in the ſame manner, as thoſe which are deſigned for ſtakes, as ſoon as the leaf falls, or the vintage is over. The third year, inſtead of fixing ſtakes to faſten up the branches, ſhort crotches ſhould be drove down about ſix feet aſunder, and pretty ſtrong poles laid acroſs upon them, ſo that they may lie about fourteen inches from the ground, and ſo near to each other, that the branches of the vines may conveniently run upon the poles without dipping down and running upon the ground; if the ends of the vines ſhould run beyond the ſides of this bed of poles, they muſt be turned in and confined to their proper beds, becauſe it will be neceſſary to have a walk or path of two feet wide between the different beds to regulate the vines, to cut away the luxuriant ſuckers, to gather in the vintage, and to trim the vines.

This bed of poles ſhould be ſo placed, as to extend three feet on each ſide of the row of vines, ſo that the rows of vines ſtanding eight feet aſunder, there will be a path of two feet between row and row for the neceſſary purpoſes before mentioned. Particular care ſhould be taken not to take away too many branches from theſe vines, unleſs there ſhould happen an uncommon wet ſeaſon, nor to keep them too ſhort, becauſe they are deſigned to ſhade the ground as much as poſſible, in order to keep it cool and moiſt, which is neceſſary for the growth of the vine, and for bringing the fruit to perfection; but then in the beginning of Auguſt, or about a month before the different ſorts of fruits begin to grow ripe, each in their proper time, the lateral branches ſhould be taken away, and the tops of the main

branches cut off; but this muſt be done, not all at once, but by degrees, according to the dryneſs or wetneſs of the ſeaſon, for the purpoſe of doing this is to let in the ſun and the air, which, at this ſeaſon of the year becomes neceſſary to bring the fruit to perfect maturity; the wetter the ſeaſon at the latter part of the ſummer, the more branches muſt be taken away, and the ſhorter the main branches muſt be cut, and if neceſſary moſt of the leaves muſt alſo be plucked off; the fruit will ripen the better, and make the richer wine, and this may be done without any injury to the vines.

The ſame management with regard to the thinning the branches and the leaves at this ſeaſon of the year, is neceſſary for vines that are faſtened to ſtakes or eſpaliers, in order to meliorate and haſten on the full ripeneſs of the fruit; the longer white grapes hang on the vines, even after they are ripe, if the ſeaſon prove dry, the richer wine they make. But it is otherwiſe with the black grapes, when they are full ripe, they muſt be gathered, and the wine made; if not, they rot and dry away ſuddenly, and periſh in leſs than a week.*

We ſhall now take notice of the different ſoils and manures that are beſt for vineyards; a vineyard planted on a piece of good ſtrong new ground needs no manure the firſt ſeven years. The beſt manure for a vineyard is ſuch as is warm and free from graſs ſeeds; fowl's dung of every kind, except water fowl; ſoap-aſhes, or other aſhes ſprinkled thinly between the rows of vines, but not too near them, for this manure is very hot and

* The Portugueſe form the head of the vine near the ground, but whether through careleſſneſs, the love of eaſe, or the want of proper materials, we cannot determine, but they have a method peculiar to themſelves of managing their vines; they drive crotches into the ground, upon which they fix ſtrong poles, which lie about three feet from the ground, ſome more, ſome leſs, according to the ſteepneſs of the hill, for their vineyards generally grow upon the ſides of hills and mountains. The branches of the vines, when grown long enough, they throw over the poles and faſten them; they trim them and nip off the ends of the branches according to art, and in the beginning of autumn, they cut away the lateral branches and nephews at different times, and by degrees pluck away all ſuperfluous leaves, ſo that the fruit becomes much expoſed to the ſun, the air and winds, that they may arrive at full maturity. They then gather them and take away all the rotten and unripe fruit, throw them into the vat and tread them, which ſufficiently done, they take them out and preſs them as dry as they can; they then turn the huſks into the vat a ſecond time, and although they appear quite dry, yet they trample them over ſo long, that the very huſks ſeem to diſſolve into wine, this they preſs a ſecond time, and this is laid by for the richeſt Madeira wine, which in other countries is daſhed with water, and made into a thin wine for common uſe.

ſharp ;* the rich ſoil that is waſhed down and ſettles along the ſides of brooks and rivers, and in many low places along roads and highways; ſea ſand, mixed with common ſoil that might be taken up along the highways, would make an excellent manure; in ſhort, ſand of every kind, mixed in large proportions with good ſoil, is very nouriſhing to vines, for thoſe vines produce the ſweeteſt and richeſt grapes, and the ſtrongeſt and beſt flavoured wines, that grow in rich ſandy ſoils; the mortar of old buildings, that has been made of lime and ſand, pounded fine; the duſt of charcoal, the ſmall coal and the earth that the coal kilns are covered with when burnt; the ſoot of chimneys; the ſmall cinders and black dirt found about ſmiths ſhops; all theſe are excellent manures for loomy or clay grounds, to warm, to open and to dry them, and eſpecially if a large quantity of ſand be mixed with it; creek mud, or the mud along the ſides of rivers, thrown on in the fall, or thrown up and ſweetened all winter and laid on in the ſpring, is a rich manure for ſandy lands, or for clay and loomy lands, if mixed with a good quantity of ſand. All warm rich untried earth, is excellent, ſo is ſtreet dirt of cities.

The ſoil cannot be too freſh for a vineyard, provided it is not too rank, and therefore a freſh new ſoil, that has never been ploughed, at leaſt not in many years, is always recommended as moſt proper for a vineyard. A clean, light, warm, rich ſoil, that has a great mixture of ſand, is beſt; a rank, heavy, ſtubborn ſoil is not good, it is apt to rot the vines, unleſs it lies high along the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt ſides of hills and mountains; the dryneſs of the ſituation, and the intenſe heat of the ſun, greatly alter ſuch a ſoil, and meliorate it; they open, warm and ſweeten it, by drawing out its cold, ſour, bitter nature, and render it fit for the richeſt productions, ſo that here the ſtrongeſt and higheſt flavoured wines are made.

The Roman frame, which ſerved inſtead of eſpaliers in ancient times, was plain, cheap, and frugal, fit for farmers, and ſuch as every farmer may procure without expenſe on his own plantation. It conſiſted of ſtrong ſtakes, or ſmall poſts, fixed well in the ground in a ſtraight line ſix feet high, and three rows of poles tied faſt to them one above another, and fifteen inches apart, the upper pole being four, five, or ſix feet from the ground, according to the age of the vine; over the upper

* This manure is beſt ſpread on the ground in the fall, that it may mix with the ſoil and be properly tempered before the heat of the next ſummer comes on, otherwiſe it will burn up the plants.

pole the bearing branches were laid, looking toward the ſouth, and were faſtened to the pole, and this they called precipitating a vine; when the branches were grown long enough, they were faſtened to the middle pole, and then to the lowermoſt, and when they came near the ground they were cut off. The branches were regularly diſpoſed ſo that each might have the benefit of the ſun and air, by being faſtened to ſtakes driven down at certain diſtances along the frame, they were trimmed and managed in other reſpects juſt in the ſame manner as thoſe directed for eſpaliers; and indeed from theſe frames the eſpalier was taken.

The materials proper to make bands of to bind the vines to the ſtakes are, the ſweet flag, otherwiſe called the calamus aromaticus. Theſe long flat leaves cut in June, and dried in the ſhade, and then bundled up and kept in a dry place for uſe, do very well, but then they muſt be made wet when uſed. The long flat leaves of reed, the ruſhes and three ſquare that grow in marſhy or meadow ground, preſerved and uſed in the ſame manner, do as well.

From theſe neceſſary directions for planting and managing vines and vineyards we proceed to the making of wines; a ſubject which, though ſhort and eaſy, calls for great nicety and exactneſs. The making, fermenting and preſerving of wine, is a myſtery to the people of moſt countries, but when the methods of managing the proceſs are brought to light and explained, nothing appears more ſimple and eaſy. Introductory to this work, it will be neceſſary to give ſome directions about gathering the grapes.

We have already obſerved, that the black grapes differ from the white in the manner of ripening, but whether grapes are black or white, they muſt be fully ripe before they are gathered, otherwiſe they will not make good wine: they ſhould be gathered in a fair, dry day, when they are perfectly dry, and all the rotten and unripe grapes muſt be taken away from every cluſter, for they ſpoil the wine: if the vintage is large and more grapes are gathered than can be maſhed and preſſed out in one day, care ſhould be taken that they are gathered without bruiſing, for bruiſed grapes ſoon contract an unſavory taſte and hurt the wine in proportion; if they are maſhed the ſame day they are gathered, the bruiſing will do no hurt; nevertheleſs, we adviſe the gathering of them with care.

The black grapes are beſt known to be ripe, when a few of the forwardeſt grapes begins to ſhrivel and dry; then they ſhould be gathered and made into wine as faſt as poſſible.

If white froſts happen before ſome of the grapes are fully ripe though very near it, ſo as to want no farther feeding, there need not be any apprehenſions about them, they may ſtill hang on the vines, for they will grow ripe, rich and high flavoured notwithſtanding; but then they muſt be gathered before the weather is ſo cold as to freeze them; the light froſts that only kill the leaves do not hurt the fruit, unleſs it be ſuch as are late ripe; theſe ſhould be carefully covered from all froſts, they ſhould grow againſt walls or board fences fronting the ſouth or ſouth-eaſt, and at night be covered with mats, or frames thatched with ſtraw, which ſhould be ſo contrived as to be ſet up to cover the fruit or let down at pleaſure.

A pretty correct judgment may be formed of the goodneſs or badneſs of wine, and of a plentiful or thin vintage, by the ſeaſons of the year; if the ſpring and former part of the ſummer prove generally dry; with moderate refreſhing rains at intervals; if the ſeaſon in Auguſt and September prove hot and dry, if in the month of June the weather prove calm, ſerene and dry, when the vine is in bloſſom, and the fruit is forming, the vintage will in general be plentiful, and the wine rich and good: but if at the time of bloſſoming the ſeaſon ſhould prove wet and ſtormy, the winds high and bluſtering; if the ſpring is cold, wet, and backward; if the latter part of the ſummer and fall is ſtormy, raw and wet, the vintage will be thin, and the wine bad; when this happens, it will be neceſſary to boil one-half of the muſt, and to manage it as hereafter directed.

As the wine made from black grapes has a different management from that made from white grapes, we ſhall begin with the white:—theſe muſt be gathered, as before mentioned, in a fair day, when the grapes are perfectly dry; and both the rotten and unripe fruit carefully plucked off from every bunch; the cluſters muſt then be thrown into the vat, and thoroughly maſhed; for the more they are trampled and maſhed the better: about Paris they let the murk, that is, the ſkins, ſtalks, muſt and all, ſtand together in the vat eight and forty hours, and then preſs it off, but in other parts of France they preſs off as ſoon as the grapes are maſhed. The laſt method we ſhould prefer, provided the huſks are maſhed or trod over again in the Portugueſe manner, otherwiſe we ſhould prefer the method practiſed by the people about Paris, for this reaſon, becauſe there is a rich pulp that adheres to the ſkin of the grape, which is not ſeparated by the firſt treading; but by lying eight and forty hours in the murk, and the vat covered cloſe, which is the

practice, a pretty ſtrong fermentation is begun and continued ſome time, which partly diſſolves and partly looſens this rich pulp, which then chiefly comes away by preſſing; however, we are of opinion, that the treading of theſe huſks after the fermentation, the muſt having firſt run off into the receiver, would do the work more effectually if they were well preſſed after it. But then this caution muſt be attended to, that if vines are young, which always afford a thin, weak wine, or if the ſeaſons have been wet and bad, ſo that the juices are not rich, in thoſe caſes the muſt ſhould be boiled before any fermentation, in order to preſerve the wine, in that caſe the Portugueſe method ſhould be purſued, becauſe the boiling of wine after the fermentation has begun would entirely ſpoil it; the ſweet muſt only, as it runs from the treading into the receiver, ſhould be boiled. The firſt and ſecond preſſing being mixed together, is put into hogſheads, which ſhould be filled within four inches of the bung, that it may have room to work and ferment, the caſks being placed in ſome warm room or dry cellar. Then having a ſmall ſpile fixed in the middle of the head of the caſk, the third or fourth day a little of the wine ſhould be drawn in a glaſs, and if it is pretty fine, drawn off immediately into a clean dry well-ſcented caſk, the larger the better, ſo there is wine enough to fill it within two inches of the bung; it muſt then be ſtopped cloſe, leaving only the vent-hole open for a ſecond fermentation; after a few days it will work a ſecond time, but not ſo much as at the firſt. If the vine is ſtrong and good, which may be known by the age of the vineyard, and the goodneſs of the ſeaſons, it will be beſt to leave the bung-hole open for this ſecond working, in which caſe the wine will be the better; for ſtrong wines require a greater fermentation than weak, and the ſtopping of the bung-hole is a check upon the working, and prevents weak wines from ſpending themſelves too much, which muſt greatly hurt them; on the contrary, if ſtrong wines have not a thorough working, they are apt to grow thick and ropy, which hurts them as much the other way; by this the wine-maker may form a proper judgment what degree of fermentation is proper for the wine that is under working, and govern himſelf accordingly. Three or four days after the ſecond fermentation begins, which ſhould be carefully watched, the wine ſhould be again tried in a glaſs, and if it is pretty fine, a ſweet caſk ſhould be prepared, and a good large brimſtone match burned in it; as ſoon as the match is burnt out, whilſt the caſk is full of ſmoke,

the wine ſhould be drawn off into it, the caſk filled to the brim, and bunged up tight and the vent-hole ſtopped; the ſmoke of the brimſtone will hinder any farther fermentation: this is called ſtumming: a mortar of clay and horſe-dung, mixed up with ſtrong flax-ſeed tea, ſhould then be made, and the bung and vent-hole covered cloſe with it, and then it ſhould ſtand till it is fit to ſell or to uſe.

When the wine-maker firſt racks off his wine, if he has any old wine that is rich and good, of the ſame kind or colour, he ſhould put four or ſix gallons of it, and two gallons of good brandy into the caſk, (this quantity is ſufficient for an Engliſh hogſhead) and then rack off the wine into it for the firſt time; this will greatly ſtrengthen and preſerve the wine, and if it is weak, it will hinder too great a fermentation the ſecond time, and ſo preſerve the purer ſpirits from flying off.

When wine is in fermentation, all the groſs parts are thrown up to the top of the caſk or veſſel that it ferments in, and there meeting the air, they undergo a very great change, they contract a harſhneſs and become rancid. If then they are ſuffered to paſs down through the body of the wine, which they certainly will do as ſoon as the fermentation is over, they will communicate thoſe evil qualities to the wine, and it muſt be a ſtrong wine indeed that will ſtand ſuch a ſhock, and if the wine is weak, it will ſoon turn ſour; if the wine is ſtrong, and has a ſufficient ſtock of native ſpirits to defend it from thoſe bad impreſſions, yet it will contract an unſavoury harſhneſs which will not be removed for ſome time, nor will it be fit for drinking till age has ſmoothed and made it mellow. For this reaſon it is that wine ſhould be drawn off both times before the fermentation is quite over; and as to weak wines, they ſhould by no means work too much either time, three days are quite ſufficient for each working; ſtrong wines ſhould work longer for the reaſon above aſſigned; they are better able to ſtand it; beſides, it prevents ropineſs, and they fine the ſooner and better for it.

We now paſs on to the making of red wines from the black grapes. In France, red wines are managed in the following manner: the whole of one or even two days treading or maſhing, when the vintage is great, is thrown into a large vat, the muſt, ſtalks, ſkins and all, and ſtands in ſome warm dry place or cellar. The vat is covered cloſe with ſheets or blankets, or both, and thus it remains, from four to ſeven or even ten days, according to the coldneſs or heat of the weather. This is done to obtain a ſtrong fermentation, in order to give a deeper colour to the wine,

and this is the only end propoſed by it; the manager of this work viſits the vat twice a day, and in a glaſs views the colour of the wine and taſtes it; if the tincture is not deep enough to his mind, he knows by the taſte of the wine, whether it will ſtand a longer fermentation; if it will not, he contents himſelf with the colour it has, and draws and preſſes it off, and fills it into caſks, leaving about two inches from the bung for a ſecond fermentation. When the ſecond fermentation is over, which generally happens in four or five days, he then draws it off into clean well-ſcented caſks, and adds to it ſix gallons of good old wine, and two gallons of brandy, to an Engliſh hogſhead, which contains from ſixty to ſixty-three gallons. Where the ſame kind of wine is not to be had, he makes uſe of port wine.* He then fills the caſk quite full and bungs it up tight, leaving only the vent-hole open to let out the generated air.

This management of red wines, which perhaps, with little variation, is almoſt as ancient as the making of wine in France, deſerves ſome attention and a cloſe examination, inaſmuch as we are fully perſuaded, that it is capable of an eſſential improvement.

To underſtand the nature of this proceſs rightly, it muſt be remembered that, beſides the main pulp or core of the grape, which is white in black grapes as well as others, there ſticks to the inſide of the ſkin a conſiderable body of rich pulp, which is perfectly red, of a deeper die in ſome than in others: this pulp gives the colour to the grape, according to the lightneſs or deepneſs of its tincture: thus we ſee ſome grapes of a light red, ſome of a full red, and ſome of a deep red: ſome again are almoſt black, ſome quite black, and ſome of a ſhining jet: this ſame pulp alſo gives the tincture or colour to the wine, for the ſame grape is capable of making white wine as well as red wine; if the main core, which is firſt trod out, be only uſed, the wine will be white; thus they make white Burgundy, &c. but if the red pulp be mixed with it, it makes it of a rich purple colour. As this is a clear caſe, and lies expoſed to every diſcerning eye, the great point of improvement to be gained, is to diſſolve or extract this rich pulp, without injuring the wine. That the preſent method is the beſt and moſt effectual to that purpoſe, we can by no means think; the violent fermen-

* When we ſay, "where the ſame kind of wine is not to be had, he makes uſe of Portugal wines," this is mentioned with a view to the United States, not that the French make uſe of ſuch wines, for they always have enough of their own of the ſame kind.

tation through which the wine is made to paſs, in order to procure the tincture, muſt exhauſt the ſpirits in a very great degree, and leave the body weak and ſubject it to harſhneſs, to turn eager or vapid in a ſhort time; theſe wines grow worſe not better by age: many inſtances of this kind we meet with in the French clarets, among which, where one hogſhead proves good, ſound and wholeſome, ten, not to ſay twenty, prove harſh and diſagreeable. Theſe conſiderations have led many to think, that the preſent management calls for a reformation. The following experiment was made ſome years back in New-Jerſey, which ſeems to have anſwered: in a clean ſtone pot, wide and open, containing two gallons, was ſqueezed as many Burgundy grapes as nearly filled it, with the liquor and ſkins; the ſtalks left out. It ſtood in a dry room covered with a coarſe dry towel four double, four days and nights fermenting; it was then ſtrained off and the ſkins very well maſhed with the hand; by this means there was obtained a full deep tincture of that kind of purple that is peculiar to the Burgundy wine; it was then left to ferment in a large caſe bottle: after the firſt and ſecond fermentations were over, there was found about a quart of rich ſediment at the bottom, and a pretty thick ſkin formed on the top; the ſmell was very pleaſant and truly vinous, the juſt indications of a ſound, healthy wine. By this experiment it appears, that three days fermentation, allowing the firſt day for heating, which is preparatory to fermentation,* is ſufficient to obtain a tincture, with the help of ſqueezing the ſkins a ſecond time, without injuring the wine; it was found, that what red pulp remained adhering to the ſkins, ſeparated from them very eaſily, and by the colour of the wine, before the ſecond ſqueezing, that the fermentation had diſſolved moſt of this pulp, or extracted a great part of its tincture. From this proceſs there is reaſon to conclude, that if the huſks or ſkins, after four days lying in the murk, were taken out and thrown into the maſh vat, and heartily trod over again, and eſpecially if ſome of the muſt, or rather wine, (for it is wine after fermentation) was now and then thrown over the huſks, as they are trampling it in order to waſh away the pulp, that a full tincture might be obtained without treating the wine, as the preſent manner is, and without running ſo great a riſk of ſpoiling it.

As this is a very important point, upon the right management of which depends the goodneſs of the wine, and as a farther

* The degrees of heat are mentioned by Boerhaave, Hoffman and others.

improvement is hereby deſigned, we have dwelt the longer upon the ſubject, and therefore hope it will not be conſidered as a uſeleſs digreſſion.

Wine made from young vineyards is always thin and weak, and ſo are wines from old vineyards, when the ſeaſons have been cold, ſtormy and wet, and without ſome aſſiſtance they will not hold ſound long; this aſſiſtance is given two ways, either by the help of ſome old ſtrong wine, one fourth part at leaſt, and four gallons of brandy to an Engliſh hogſhead, or if that is not to be obtained, then half of the muſt ſhould be boiled away to one-half of its quantity, that is, if one-half of the muſt contains forty gallons, that muſt be boiled away to twenty, this greatly enriches it, and makes it of the conſiſtence of liquid honey: as ſoon as it is cool, mix it with the reſt of the muſt, and let it ferment together, and then manage it as other wines: when a vineyard comes to be ten or twelve years old, it will yield much ſtronger wines.

The boiling of muſt is managed in the following manner, which ſhould be carefully attended to: the copper or kettle being well cleaned, the inſide ſhould be rubbed over with a woollen rag dipped in ſweet oil, which preſerves the wine from contracting a nauſeous, copper or braſs taſte; the muſt ſhould be then thrown in, and a gentle fire kindled under the copper with bruſh or ſmall ſplit wood, the copper ſtanding ſo high that the wood need not touch the bottom of it; for if at any time the wood touches the bottom of the kettle or copper, the wine will be burned, which will ſpoil it; it ſhould therefore be ſtirred often from the bottom, and the ſcum taken off as it riſes till clear; the muſt boiled away is called deſrutum, or the rob of grapes. If there is a neglect in raiſing the ſediment from the bottom of the copper, it will burn and ſpoil the wine, as it turns it bitter.

And here we muſt caution every one who attempts to make wine, to be ſtrictly careful to have all the veſſels and inſtruments made uſe of in this work perfectly clean and ſweet; for if they have any ſour, unſavoury or offenſive ſmell, they will communicate it to the muſt and ſpoil the wine; and every thing that has an offenſive or diſagreeable ſmell ſhould be removed from the place where wine is made, and from the cellars where it is kept; the cellar ought to be dry and warm, for damps or wet hurt wines exceedingly: it muſt alſo be free from muſtineſs, and, in good weather, the windows next the ſouth and weſt ſhould be opened, to admit the warm dry air, which will prevent muſtineſs and dangerous damps.

Hogſheads well bound with iron are the only ſafe caſks for wine; if old wine pipes, or hogſheads with wooden hoops, are truſted, it is ten to one but they deceive; they conſtantly want repairing every year, but iron-bound caſks will hold many years without any expenſe at all, ſo that in three years time they become by much the cheapeſt caſks, we mean for ſtanding caſks, out of which the wine is racked into other caſks for ſale; but then as ſoon as they are empty the lees ſhould be taken out, and ſaved for diſtilling into brandy, and the ſame day the caſk filled with water, or elſe they will be deſtroyed by a ſmall worm, which will pierce it like a ſieve.

Every man that has a vineyard ſhould have a ſtill and good worm, that he may diſtill all the lees, the huſks and the ſcum into good brandy, which he will want for the preſervation of his wines; the ſame ſtill will do to make peach brandy and the ſpirits of cyder, which will ſoon pay for it. A ſtill that holds a barrel is quite large enough, unleſs his vineyards and orchards be very large indeed.

We now paſs to the different management of wine after fermentation; one method we have already mentioned: ſome, after the ſecond fermentation, leave the wine in the ſame caſk upon the lees, and adding the old wine and brandy to it, they ſtop up the bung-hole, and leave only the vent-hole open to let out the generated air, till the month of March, filling up the caſk from time to time as the wine ſubſides or waſtes, and then draw it off into a clean, well-ſcented and well ſtummed caſk, and ſtop all cloſe with mortar.

Others again, in the month of March, before they rack it off and ſtum it, roll the caſk backward and forward in the cellar to mix the lees thoroughly with the wine, thinking thereby to communicate the ſtrength of the lees to the wine, and then let it ſtand and ſettle till it is fine, and rack it off into clean well-ſtummed caſks, and ſtop and plaiſter all up cloſe.*

* It is proper to notice, that the lees of ſtrong wines may be of advantage, and communicate ſome ſtrength to weak wines, that are racked off upon them, but it does not therefore follow, that all lees are beneficial to the wines that produce them; for, as we have already obſerved, the lees in the time of fermentation, being thrown up to the top of the veſſel, there meet with the air, and being expoſed to it for four or five days, contract a harſh and rancid nature, if they do not grow quite ſour; and then ſubſiding, as ſoon as the fermentation is over, and ſettling to the bottom of the caſk, where they are left for the wine to feed upon, we leave any man to judge what kind of food this muſt be, and what manner of good it can communicate to the wine. But ſo rigid and arbitrary is cuſtom, that it is even looked upon next to rebellion, to deviate or depart from the cuſtoms of our fathers. The cyder made in America for above

It will be no doubt obſerved, that we have been ſilent in this eſſay, about vines that are natives of America; the reaſon is, they have in part already been noticed, and their qualities in general deſcribed: they are in general ſuppoſed to be much more untractable than thoſe of Europe: they are very hardy, and will ſtand the frame, for they brave the ſevereſt ſtorms and winter blaſts; they ſhrink not at ſnow, ice, hail or rain; the wine they afford is ſtrong and good.

The fox-grape, whoſe berries are large and round, delights moſt in a rich ſandy loam; here they grow very large and the berries are ſweeteſt; but they will grow in any grounds, wet or dry; thoſe that grow on high grounds generally become white, and the colour alters to a dark red or black, according to the lowneſs or wetneſs of the ground: the ſituation, we think, muſt greatly affect the wine, in ſtrength, goodneſs and colour; the berries are generally ripe the beginning of September, and when fully ripe they ſoon fall away: thus much we have obſerved as they grow wild; what alteration they may undergo, or how much they may be improved by proper ſoils and due cultivation, we cannot ſay.

There is a ſmall black grape, a ſize bigger than the winter grape, that is ripe in September; it is pleaſant to eat, and makes a very pleaſant wine. Theſe are well worth cultivating, as is the grape of Scioto and the newly-diſcovered grape of Indian river in Maryland, which promiſes to be a valuable acquiſition to the vineyard.

The froſt, or winter grape, is known to moſt perſons; both the bunches and berries are ſmall, and yield but little juice, but the richneſs of the wine may make up for the ſmallneſs of the quantity; the taſte of the grape is auſtere till pretty hard froſts come, and then it takes a favourable turn and becomes very ſweet and agreeable: this vine ſhoots forth great numbers of ſlender branches, and might do very well for the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt ſides of a ſummer-houſe or cloſe walk, if all the uſeleſs and barren branches were cut away. The vines of America, in general,

one hundred years was conſtantly ſpoiled by this miſtake. Every man that makes cyder very well knows, how ſoon the pumice corrupts and grows ſour by being expoſed to the air, and yet no man in all that time ever prevented the pumice, after fermentation, from ſettling down through the whole body of cyder, but there left it to remain for his cyder to feed upon all winter, and indeed all the next ſummer too, if it laſted ſo long, and the owner complained of the hardneſs of his cyder, and ſo did every body elſe that drank it; and yet this long remained without a remedy, becauſe it had been the cuſtom of their fathers.

are fit for ſtrong high eſpaliers, but they muſt be watched narrowly, and every unneceſſary and unprofitable branch taken away.

The native vines of the northern and middle States have a covering of bark of ſo cloſe and firm a texture, that they ſtand all weathers without injury; they fear nothing but a froſt after they put forth the tender bud. We know that cold winds and winter blaſts have a great effect upon the human body, they brace up and confirm all the ſolids, harden and ſtrengthen the whole frame, and render a man active, briſk and lively: they have likewiſe a wonderful effect upon the brute creation; the covering of ſheep, cattle and horſes, in hot countries, is very thin and cool, remove them into a cold region, ſheep ſoon acquire a covering of wool, horſes and cattle a thick coat of hair. Why then ſhould not vines, by being tranſplanted from a warm into a cold region, acquire a firmneſs and covering ſuitable to their new ſituation? We believe, by a proper management, that they may by degrees be inured to colder countries, but ſuch a hardineſs muſt not be ſuppoſed to be acquired all at once but by being, winter after winter, a little more and more expoſed to the ſeverities of the weather: they may thus in a few years be, in a great meaſure, reconciled to almoſt any climate; late ripe fruits, however, will not do as yet to the northward of the capes of Virginia; it is the early ripe fruits that the middle States muſt cultivate, till the climate becomes more temperate by the country's being cleared farther back; none that ripen much after October will ſuit at preſent, and the lateſt they raiſe, ſhould arrive at full maturity by the end of November.

ON THE CULTURE OF SUGAR MAPLE, &c.

The *acer ſaccharinum* of Linnæus, or the ſugar maple, as before obſerved, grows in great quantities in the weſtern countries of all the middle States of the American Union. Thoſe which grow in New-York and Pennſylvania yield the ſugar in a greater quantity than thoſe which grow on the waters of the Ohio. Theſe trees are generally found mixed with the beach, hemlock, white and water aſh, the cucumber tree, linden, aſpen, butter nut, and wild cherry trees: they ſometimes appear in groves covering five or ſix acres in a body, but they are commonly interſperſed with ſome or all of the foreſt trees which have been mentioned. From thirty to fifty trees are generally found upon an acre of ground. They grow chiefly in the richeſt ſoils, and frequently in ſtony ground. Springs of the pureſt water abound

in their neighbourhood. They are, when fully grown, as tall as the white and black oaks, and from two to three feet in diameter;* they put forth a beautiful white bloſſom in the ſpring before they ſhew a ſingle leaf; the colour of the bloſſom diſtinguiſhes them from the acer rubrum, or the common maple, which affords a bloſſom of a red colour. The wood of the ſugar maple is of an inflammable nature, and is preferred upon that account by hunters and ſurveyors for fire-wood. Its ſmall branches are ſo much impregnated with ſugar as to afford ſupport to the cattle, horſes and ſheep, of the firſt ſettlers during the winter, before they are able to cultivate forage for that purpoſe. Its aſhes afford a great quantity of pot-aſh, exceeded by few or perhaps by none of the trees that grow in the woods of the United States.

The tree is ſuppoſed to arrive at its full growth in the woods in twenty years.

It is not injured by tapping: on the contrary, the oftener it is tapped the more ſyrup is obtained from it. In this reſpect it follows the law of animal ſecretion. A ſingle tree has not only ſurvived, but flouriſhed after *forty-two* tappings in the ſame number of years. The effects of a yearly diſcharge of ſap from the tree in improving and increaſing the ſap, is demonſtrated from the ſuperior excellence of thoſe trees which have been perforated in an hundred places, by a ſmall wood-pecker which feeds upon the ſap. The trees, after having been wounded in this way, diſtil the remains of their juice on the ground, and afterwards acquire a black colour. The ſap of theſe trees is much ſweeter to the taſte than that which is obtained from trees which have not been previouſly wounded, and it affords more ſugar.

From twenty-three gallons and one quart of ſap procured in twenty hours from only two of theſe dark-coloured trees, Arthur Noble, Eſq. of the State of New-York, obtained four pounds and thirteen ounces of good grained ſugar.

A tree of an ordinary ſize yields, in a good ſeaſon, from twenty to thirty gallons of ſap, from which are made from five to ſix pounds of ſugar: to this there are ſometimes remarkable exceptions: Samuel Low, Eſq. a juſtice of peace in Montgo-

* Baron La Hontan, in his voyage to North-America, gives the following account of the maple tree in Canada. After deſcribing the black cherry tree, ſome of which, he ſays, are as tall as the loftieſt oaks and as big as a hogſhead, he adds, "The maple tree is much of the ſame height and bulk: it bears no reſemblance to that ſort we have in Europe."

mery county, in the State of New-York, informed Arthur Noble, Eſq. that he made twenty pounds and one ounce of ſugar between the 14th and 23d of April, in the year 1789, from a ſingle tree that had been tapped for ſeveral ſucceſſive years before.

From the influence which culture has upon foreſt and other trees, it has been ſuppoſed, that by tranſplanting the ſugar maple tree into a garden, or by deſtroying ſuch other trees as ſhelter it from the rays of the ſun, the quantity of the ſap might be increaſed, and its quality much improved. We have heard of one fact which favours this opinion: A farmer in Northampton county, in the State of Pennſylvania, planted a number of theſe trees about twenty-ſeven years ago in his meadow, from leſs than *three* gallons of the ſap of which, he obtains every year a pound of ſugar. It was obſerved formerly, that it required five or ſix gallons of the ſap of the trees which grow in the woods, to produce the ſame quantity of ſugar.

The ſap diſtils from the *wood* of the tree: trees which have been cut down in the winter for the ſupport of the domeſtic animals of the new ſettlers, yield a conſiderable quantity of ſap as ſoon as their trunks and limbs feel the rays of the ſun in the ſpring of the year.

It is in conſequence of the ſap of theſe trees being equally diffuſed through every part of them, that they live three years after they are *girdled*, that is, after a circular inciſion is made through the bark into the ſubſtance of the tree, for the purpoſe of deſtroying it.

It is remarkable, that graſs thrives better under this tree in a meadow, than in ſituations expoſed to the conſtant action of the ſun.

The ſeaſon for tapping the trees is in February, March and April, according to the weather which occurs in theſe months.

Warm days *and froſty* nights are moſt favourable to a plentiful diſcharge of ſap.* The quantity obtained in a day from a tree is from five gallons to a pint, according to the greater or leſs heat of the air. A Mr. Low informed Arthur Noble, Eſq. that he

* The influence of the weather in increaſing and leſſening the diſcharge of the ſap from trees is very remarkable.

Dr. Tonge ſuppoſed long ago (Philoſophical Tranſactions, No. 68.) that changes in the weather of every kind might be better aſcertained by the diſcharge of ſap from trees than by weather glaſſes. I have ſeen a journal of the effects of heat, cold, moiſture, drought and thunder, upon the diſcharges from the ſugar trees, which diſpoſes me to admit Dr. Tonge's opinion. *Dr. Ruſh.*

obtained near three and twenty gallons of ſap in one day, (April 14, 1789) from the ſingle tree which was before mentioned. Such inſtances of a profuſion of ſap in ſingle trees are, however, not very common.

There is always a ſuſpenſion of the diſcharge of ſap in the night if a froſt ſucceed a warm day. The perforation in the tree is made with an ax or an auger; the latter is preferred from experience of its advantages: the auger is introduced about three-fourths of an inch, and in an aſcending direction, that the ſap may not be frozen in a ſlow current in the mornings or evenings, and is afterwards deepened gradually to the extent of two inches. A ſpout is introduced about half an inch into the hole made by this auger, and projects from three to twelve inches from the tree. The ſpout is generally made of the ſhumach,* or elder,† which generally grow in the neighbourhood of the ſugar trees. The tree is firſt tapped on the ſouth ſide; when the diſcharge of its ſap begins to leſſen, an opening is made on its north ſide, from which an increaſed diſcharge takes place. The ſap flows from four to ſix weeks, according to the temperature of the weather. Troughs large enough to contain three or four gallons made of white pine, or white aſh, or of dried water aſh, aſpen, linden,‡ poplar or common maple, are placed under the ſpout to receive the ſap, which is carried every day to a large receiver, made of either of the trees before mentioned. From this receiver it is conveyed, after being ſtrained, to the boiler.

To preſerve the ſap from rain and impurities of all kinds, it is a good practice to cover the troughs with a concave board, with a hole in the middle of it.

It remains yet to be determined, whether ſome artificial heat may not be applied ſo as to increaſe the quantity and improve the quality of the ſap. Mr. Noble informed Dr. Ruſh, that he ſaw a tree, under which a farmer had accidentally burnt ſome bruſh, which dropped a thick heavy ſyrup reſembling molaſſes: this fact may probably lead to ſomething uſeful hereafter.

During the remaining part of the ſpring months, as alſo in the ſummer, and in the beginning of autumn, the maple tree yields a thin ſap, but not fit for the manufactory of ſugar: it affords a pleaſant drink in harveſt, and has been uſed inſtead of rum, in ſome inſtances, by thoſe farmers in Connecticut, whoſe anceſtors have left to them here, and there, a ſugar maple tree, probably to ſhade their cattle, in all their fields. Mr. Bruce deſcribes a drink of the ſame kind, prepared by the inhabitants of Egypt,

* Ruſh. † Sambucus Canadenſis. ‡ Liriodendrum tulipifera.

by infuſing the ſugar cane in water, which he declares to be "the moſt refreſhing drink in the world."*

There are three methods of reducing the ſap to ſugar:

FIRST, By *freezing it.* This method has been tried for many years by a Mr. Obadiah Scott, a farmer in Luzerne county, in Pennſylvania, with great ſucceſs. He ſays, that one-third of a given quantity of ſap reduced in this way, is better than one-half of the ſame quantity reduced by boiling. If the froſt ſhould not be intenſe enough to reduce the ſap to the graining point, it may afterwards be expoſed to the action of the fire for that purpoſe.

SECONDLY, By *ſpontaneous evaporation.* The hollow ſtump of a maple ſugar tree, which had been cut down in the ſpring, and which was found ſome time afterwards filled with ſugar, firſt ſuggeſted this method of obtaining ſugar to our farmers. So many circumſtances of cold and dry weather, large and flat veſſels, and above all, ſo much time, are neceſſary to obtain ſugar, by either of the above methods, that the moſt general method among the farmers is to obtain it.

THIRDLY, By *boiling.* For this purpoſe the following facts, which have been aſcertained by many experiments, deſerve attention:

1. The ſooner the ſap is boiled, after it is collected from the tree, the better; it ſhould never be kept longer than twenty-four hours before it is put over the fire.

2. The larger the veſſel is in which the ſap is boiled, the more ſugar is obtained from it.

3. A copper veſſel affords a ſugar of a fairer colour than an iron veſſel.

The ſap flows into wooden troughs, from which it is carried, and poured into ſtore troughs or large ciſterns, in the ſhape of

* Baron La Hontan gives the following account of the ſap of the ſugar maple tree, when uſed as a drink, and of the manner of obtaining it: "The tree yields a ſap which has a much pleaſanter taſte than the beſt lemonade or cherry water, and makes the wholeſomeſt drink in the world. This liquor is drawn by cutting the tree two inches deep in the wood, the cut being made ſloping to the length of ten or twelve inches; at the lower end of this gaſh a knife is thruſt into the tree ſlopingly, ſo that the water runs along the cut or gaſh, as through a gutter, and falls upon the knife, which has ſome veſſels placed underneath to receive it. Some trees will yield five or ſix bottles of this water in a day, and ſome inhabitants of Canada might draw twenty hogſheads of it in one day, if they would thus cut and notch all the maple trees of their reſpective plantations. The gaſh does no *harm to the tree.* Of this ſap they make ſugar and ſyrup, which is ſo valuable, that there can be no better remedy for fortifying the ſtomach; it is but few of the inhabitants that have the patience to make them, for as common things are ſlighted, ſo there are ſcarce any body but children that give themſelves the trouble of gaſhing theſe trees."

a canoe or large manger, made of white aſh, linden, baſs wood, or white pine, from which it is conveyed to the kettle in which it is to be boiled. Theſe ciſterns, as well as the kettle, are generally covered by a ſhed to defend the ſap from the rain. The ſugar is improved by ſtraining the ſap through a blanket or cloth, either before or after it is half boiled. Butter, hog's lard, or tallow, are added to the ſap in the kettle, to prevent its boiling over; and lime, eggs, or new milk, are mixed with it, in order to clarify it. Clear ſugar, however, may be made without the addition of either of them. A ſpoonful of ſlacked lime, the white of one egg, and a pint of new milk, are the uſual proportions of theſe articles, which are mixed with fifteen gallons of ſap. In ſome ſamples of maple ſugar, clarified with each of the above articles, that in which milk alone was uſed, had an evident ſuperiority in point of colour.

The ſugar after being ſufficiently boiled is grained and clayed, and afterwards refined, or converted into loaf ſugar. The methods of conducting each of theſe proceſſes is ſo nearly the ſame with thoſe which are uſed in the manufactory of Weſt-India ſugar, and are ſo generally known, that we need not ſpend any time in deſcribing them.

It has been a ſubject of inquiry, whether the maple ſugar might not be improved in its quality, and increaſed in its quantity, by the eſtabliſhment of boiling houſes in the ſugar maple country, to be conducted by aſſociated labour. From the ſcattered ſituation of the trees, the difficulty of carrying the ſap to a great diſtance, and from the many expenſes which muſt accrue from ſupporting labourers and horſes in the woods, in a ſeaſon of the year in which nature affords no ſuſtenance to man or beaſt, we are diſpoſed to believe, that the moſt productive method both in quantity and profit of obtaining this ſugar, will be by the labour of private families. For a great number of years, many hundred private families in New-York and Pennſylvania have ſupplied themſelves plentifully with this ſugar during the whole year. We have heard of many families who have made from two to four hundred pounds in a year; and of one man who ſold ſix hundred pounds all made by his own hands in one ſeaſon.*

* The following receipt, publiſhed by William Cooper, Eſq. in the Albany Gazette, fully eſtabliſhes this fact.

" Received, Cooper's Town, April 30th, 1790, of William Cooper, ſixteen " pounds, for ſix hundred and forty pounds of ſugar, made with *my own hands*, " without any aſſiſtance, in leſs than four weeks, beſides attending to the other " buſineſs of my farm, as providing fire wood, taking care of the cattle, &c. " John Nicholls. Witneſs, R. Smith."

A ſingle family, conſiſting of a man and his two ſons, on the maple ſugar lands between the Delaware and Suſquehannah, made one thouſand eight hundred pounds of maple ſugar in one ſeaſon.

Not more knowledge is neceſſary for making this ſugar than cyder, beer, ſour krout, &c. and yet one or all of theſe are made in moſt of the farm houſes of the United States. The kettles and other utenſils of a farmer's kitchen will ſerve moſt of the purpoſes of making ſugar, and the time required for the labour, if it deſerves that name, is at a ſeaſon when it is impoſſible for the farmer to employ himſelf in any ſpecies of agriculture. His wife and all his children above ten years of age, moreover may aſſiſt him in this buſineſs, for the profit of the weakeſt of them is nearly equal to that of a man when hired for that purpoſe.

A comparative view of this ſugar has been frequently made with the ſugar which is obtained from the Weſt-India ſugar cane, with reſpect to its quality, price, and the poſſible or probable quantity that can be made of it in the United States, each of which we ſhall conſider in order.

First. The quality of this ſugar is neceſſarily better than that which is made in the Weſt-Indies. It is prepared in a ſeaſon when not a ſingle inſect exiſts to feed upon it, or to mix its excrements with it, and before a particle of duſt or of the pollen of plants can float in the air. The ſame obſervation cannot be applied to the Weſt-India ſugar. The inſects and worms which prey upon it, and of courſe mix with it, compoſe a page in a nomenclature of natural hiſtory. We ſhall ſay nothing of the hands which are employed in making ſugar in the Weſt-Indies, but that men who work for the excluſive benefit of others are not under the ſame obligations to keep their perſons clean while they are employed in this work, that men, women and children are, who work excluſively for the benefit of themſelves, and who have been educated in the habits of cleanlineſs. The ſuperior purity of the maple ſugar is farther proved by its leaving a leſs ſediment when diſſolved in water than the Weſt-India ſugar.

It has been ſuppoſed that the maple ſugar is inferior to the Weſt-India ſugar in ſtrength. The experiments which led to this opinion we ſuſpect have been inaccurate, or have been made with maple ſugar prepared in a ſlovenly manner. Dr. Ruſh examined equal quantities by weight of both the grained and the loaf ſugar, in hyſon tea, and in coffee, made in every reſpect equal by the minuteſt circumſtances that could affect the quality or taſte of each of them, and could perceive no inferiority in the ſtrength of the maple ſugar. The liquors which decided this queſtion were examined at the ſame time by Alexander Hamilton, Eſq. ſecretary of the treaſury of the United States, Mr. Henry Drinker, and ſeveral ladies, who all concurred in the above opinion.

Secondly. Whoever conſiders that the ſugar maple tree grows ſpontaneouſly without cultivation, that the Americans have many millions of acres in their country covered with them, that the tree is improved by repeated tappings, and that the ſugar is obtained by the frugal labour of a farmer's family, and at the ſame time conſiders the labour of cultivating the ſugar cane, the capitals ſunk in ſugar works, the firſt coſt of ſlaves and cattle, the expenſes of proviſions for both of them, and in ſome inſtances the additional expenſe of conveying the ſugar to a market in all the Weſt-India iſlands, will not heſitate in believing that the maple ſugar may be manufactured much cheaper, and ſold at a leſs price than that which is made in the Weſt-Indies.

Thirdly. The reſources for making a ſufficient quantity of this ſugar, not only for the conſumption of the United States, but for exportation, will appear from the following facts. There are in the States of New-York and Pennſylvania alone, at leaſt ten millions of acres of land which produce the ſugar maple tree, in the proportion of thirty trees to one acre. Now ſuppoſing all the perſons capable of labour in the family to conſiſt of three, and each perſon to attend one hundred and fifty trees, and each tree to yield five pounds of ſugar in a ſeaſon, the product of the labour of ſixty thouſand families would be one hundred and thirty-five million pounds of ſugar; and allowing the inhabitants of the United States to compoſe ſix hundred thouſand families, each of which conſumed two hundred pounds of ſugar in a year, the whole conſumption would be one hundred and twenty million pounds in a year, which would leave a balance of fifteen million pounds for exportation. Valuing the ſugar at ſix-ninetieths of a dollar per pound, the ſum ſaved to the United States would be eight million dollars by home conſumption, and the ſum gained by exportation would be one million dollars. The only part of this calculation that will appear improbable is, the number of families ſuppoſed to be employed in the manufactory of the ſugar, but the difficulty of admitting this ſuppoſition will vaniſh when we conſider, that double that number of families are employed every year in making cyder, the trouble, riſks and expenſes of which are all much greater than thoſe of making maple ſugar.

But the profit of the maple tree is not confined to its ſugar; it affords an agreeable molaſſes, and an excellent vinegar. The ſap which is ſuitable for theſe purpoſes, is obtained after the ſap which affords the ſugar has ceaſed to flow, ſo that the manufactories of theſe different products of the maple tree, by ſucceeding, do not interfere with each other. The molaſſes may be made to compoſe the baſis of a pleaſant ſummer beer. The ſap

of the maple is moreover capable of affording a ſpirit, but we hope this precious juice will never be proſtituted by American citizens to this ignoble purpoſe. Should the uſe of ſugar diet become more general in America, it may tend to leſſen the inclination or ſuppoſed neceſſity for ſpirits, for a reliſh for ſugar in diet is ſeldom accompanied by a love of ſtrong drink. It is the ſugar which is mixed with tea which makes it ſo generally diſagreeable to drunkards; but a diet conſiſting of a plentiful mixture of ſugar has other advantages to recommend it, which we ſhall briefly enumerate.

First. Sugar affords the greateſt quantity of nouriſhment in a given quantity of matter of any ſubſtance in nature; of courſe it may be preſerved in leſs room in our houſes, and may be conſumed in leſs time than more bulky and leſs nouriſhing aliment. It has this peculiar advantage over moſt kinds of aliment, that it is not liable to have its nutritious qualities affected by time or the weather, hence it is preferred by the Indians in their excurſions from home. They mix a certain quantity of maple ſugar, with an equal quantity of Indian corn, dried and powdered, in its milky ſtate. This mixture is packed in little baſkets, which are frequently wetted in travelling, without injuring the ſugar. A few ſpoonfuls of it mixed with half a pint of ſpring water, afford them a pleaſant and ſtrengthening meal. From the degrees of ſtrength and nouriſhment which are conveyed into animal bodies by a ſmall bulk of ſugar, we conceive it might be given to horſes with great advantage, when they are uſed in places or under circumſtances which make it difficult or expenſive to ſupport them with more bulky or weighty aliment. A pound of ſugar without graſs or hay, we have been told, has ſupported the ſtrength and ſpirits of an horſe, during a whole day's labour in one of the Weſt-India iſlands. A larger quantity given alone has fattened horſes and cattle during the war before laſt in Hiſpaniola, for a period of ſeveral months, in which the exportation of ſugar, and the importation of grain, were prevented by the want of ſhips.

Secondly. The plentiful uſe of ſugar in diet is one of the beſt preventatives that has ever been diſcovered of the diſeaſes which are produced by worms. Nature ſeems to have implanted a love for this aliment in all children, as if it were on purpoſe to defend them from thoſe diſeaſes. A gentleman in Philadelphia who early adopted this opinion, by indulging a large family of children in the uſe of ſugar, has preſerved them all from the diſeales uſually occaſioned by worms.

Thirdly. Sir John Pringle has remarked, that the plague has never been known in any country where ſugar compoſes a material part of the diet of the inhabitants. We think it probable that the frequency of malignant fevers of all kinds has

been leſſened by this diet, and that its more general uſe would defend that claſs of people who are moſt ſubject to malignant fevers from being ſo often affected by them.

Fourthly. In the numerous and frequent diſorders of the breaſt, which occur in all countries, where the body is expoſed to a variable temperature of weather, ſugar affords the baſis of many agreeable remedies: it is uſeful in weakneſſes, and acrid defluxions upon other parts of the body. Many facts might be adduced in favour of this aſſertion. We ſhall mention only one, which, from the venerable name of the perſon whoſe caſe furniſhed it, cannot fail of commanding attention and credit. Upon Dr. Ruſh inquiring of Dr. Franklin, at the requeſt of a friend about a year before he died, whether he had found any relief from the pain of the ſtone from the blackberry jam, of which he took large quantities, he told him that he had, but that he believed the medicinal part of the jam reſided wholly in the ſugar; and as a reaſon for thinking ſo, he added, that he often found the ſame relief by taking about half a pint of ſyrup, prepared by boiling a little brown ſugar in water, juſt before he went to bed, that he did from a doſe of opium. It has been ſuppoſed by ſome of the early phyſicians of America, that the ſugar obtained from the maple tree is more medicinal than that obtained from the Weſt-India ſugar-cane; but this opinion is, perhaps without foundation; it is preferable in its qualities to the Weſt-India ſugar perhaps only from its ſuperior cleanlineſs.

Caſes may occur in which ſugar may be required in medicine, or in diet, by perſons who refuſe to be benefited, even indirectly by the labour of ſlaves. In ſuch caſes the innocent maple ſugar will always be preferred.*

It has been ſaid that ſugar injures the teeth, but this opinion now has ſo few advocates, that it does not deſerve a ſerious refutation.

To tranſmit to future generations all the advantages which have been enumerated from the maple tree, it will be neceſſary to protect it by law, or by a bounty upon the maple ſugar, from being deſtroyed by the ſettlers in the maple country, or to tranſplant it from the woods, and cultivate it in the old and improved parts of the United States. An orchard conſiſting of two hundred trees, planted upon a common farm, would yield more than the ſame number of apple trees at a diſtance

* Dr. Knowles, a phyſician of worthy character in London, had occaſion to recommend a diet to a patient, of which ſugar compoſed a material part. His patient refuſed to ſubmit to his preſcription, and gave as a reaſon for it, that he had witneſſed ſo much of the oppreſſion and cruelty which were exerciſed upon the ſlaves, who made the ſugar, that he had made a vow never to taſte the product of their miſery as long as he lived.

from a market town. A full grown tree in the woods yields five pounds of ſugar in a year. If a greater expoſure of a tree to the action of the ſun has the ſame effects upon a maple that it has upon other trees, a larger quantity of ſugar might reaſonably be expected from each tree planted in an orchard. Allowing it to be only ſeven pounds, then two hundred trees will yield one thouſand four hundred pounds of ſugar; and deducting two hundred from the quantity for the conſumption of the family, there will remain for ſale one thouſand two hundred pounds, which at ſix-ninetieths of a dollar per pound, will yield an annual profit to the farmer of eighty dollars. But if it ſhould be found that the ſhade of the maple does not check the growth of grain any more than it does of graſs, double or treble that number of maple trees may be planted on every farm, and a profit proportioned to the above calculation be derived from them. Should this mode of tranſplanting the means of obtaining ſugar be ſucceſsful, it will not be a new one. The ſugar cane of the Weſt-Indies was brought originally from the Eaſt-Indies by the Portugueſe, and cultivated at Madeira, from whence it was tranſplanted directly or indirectly to all the ſugar iſlands of the Weſt-Indies.

It were to be wiſhed that the ſettlers upon the ſugar maple lands would ſpare the ſugar tree in clearing their lands. On a farm of two hundred acres of land, according to our former calculation, there are uſually ſix thouſand maple trees. If only two thouſand of thoſe original and ancient inhabitants of the woods were ſuffered to remain, and each tree were to afford only five pounds of ſugar, the annual profit of ſuch a farm in ſugar alone, at the price formerly mentioned, would amount to ſix hundred and ſixty-ſix dollars, one hundred and fifty dollars of which would probably more than defray all the expenſes of making it, and allow a plentiful deduction for family uſe.

According to the uſual annual profit of a ſugar maple tree, each tree is worth to a farmer two dollars, and two-thirds of a dollar, excluſive therefore of the value of his farm, the two thouſand ſugar maple trees alone confer a value upon it of five thouſand three hundred and thirty-three dollars, and thirty-ninetieths of a dollar.

It is ſaid that the ſugar trees, when deprived of the ſhelter and ſupport they derive from other foreſt trees, and liable to be blown down, occaſioned by their growing in a rich, and of courſe a looſe ſoil. To obviate this, it will only be neceſſary to cut off ſome of their branches ſo as to alter its center of gravity,

and to allow the high winds to have an eaſy paſſage through them. Orchards of ſugar maple trees, which grow with an original expoſure of all their parts to the action of the ſun, will not be liable to this inconvenience.

In contemplating the preſent opening proſpects in human affairs, we are led to expect that a material part of the general happineſs which Heaven ſeems to have prepared for mankind, will be derived from the manufactory and general uſe of maple ſugar, for the benefits which we flatter ourſelves are to reſult from it, will not be confined to America; they will, we hope, extend themſelves to the intereſts of humanity in the Weſt-Indies. With this view of the ſubject, we cannot help contemplating a ſugar maple tree with a ſpecies of affection and even veneration, for we have perſuaded ourſelves to behold in it the happy means of rendering the commerce and ſlavery of our African brethren in the ſugar iſlands as unneceſſary, as it has always been inhuman and unjuſt.

To the above we add a copy of Mr. Botham's account of the method of manufacturing ſugar in the Eaſt-Indies, extracted from the report of the committee of the Britiſh privy council on the ſubject of the ſlave trade, but we ſhall inſert only ſuch parts of it as will throw light upon the method of manufacturing the maple ſugar which has been mentioned, and to ſhow how much it is to be preferred in point of economy to that which is uſed in the Weſt-Indies.

"Having been for two years in the Engliſh and French Weſt-India iſlands, and ſince conducted ſugar eſtates in the Eaſt-Indies; before the abolition of the ſlave trade was agitated in parliament, it may be deſirable to know that ſugar of a ſuperior quality and inferior price to that in our iſlands, is produced in the Eaſt-Indies; that the culture of the cane, the manufacture of ſugar and arrack, is with theſe material advantages carried on by free people. China, Bengal, the coaſt of Malabar, all produce quantities of ſugar and ſpirits; but as the moſt conſiderable growth of the cane is carried on near Batavia, I ſhall explain the improved manner in which ſugar eſtates are there conducted. The proprietor of the eſtate is generally a wealthy Dutchman, who has erected on it ſubſtantial mills, bailing and curing houſes. He rents this eſtate to a Chineſe, who reſides on it as a ſuperintendant; and this renter, ſuppoſing the eſtate to conſiſt of three hundred or more acres, re-lets it to freemen in parcels of fifty or ſixty on theſe conditions:

"That they ſhall plant it in canes, and receive ſo much per pecul of one hundred and thirty-three pounds and a half for every pecul of ſugar that the canes ſhall produce.

"When crop time comes on, the ſuperintendant collects a ſufficient number of perſons from the adjacent towns or villages, and takes off his crop as follows:

"To any ſet of tradeſmen who bring their carts and buffaloes, he agrees to give ſuch a price per pecul to cut all his crops of canes, carry them to the mill and grind them.

"A ſecond to boil them per pecul.

"A third to clay them and baſket them for market per pecul.

"So that by this method of conducting a ſugar eſtate, the renter knows to a certainty what the produce of it will coſt him per pecul. He has not any permanent or unneceſſary expenſe; for when the crop is taken off, the taſkmen return to their ſeveral purſuits in the towns and villages they came from, and there only remain the cane planters who are preparing the next year's crop. This, like all other complex arts, by being divided into ſeveral branches, renders the labour cheaper and the work more perfectly done. Only clayed ſugars are made at Batavia; theſe are in quality equal to the beſt ſort from the Weſt-Indies, and are ſold ſo low from the ſugar eſtates as eighteen ſhillings ſterling per pecul of one hundred and thirty-three pounds and a half. This is not the ſelling price to the trader at Batavia, as the government there is arbitrary, and ſugar ſubject to duties impoſed at will. The ſhabander exacts a dollar per pecul on all ſugar exported. The price of common labour is from ninepence to ten-pence per day. By the method of carrying on the ſugar eſtates, the taſkmen gain conſiderably more than this, not only from working extraordinary hours, but from being conſidered artiſts in their ſeveral branches. They do not make ſpirits on the ſugar eſtates; the molaſſes are ſent for ſale to Batavia, where one diſtillery may purchaſe the produce of an hundred eſtates. Here is a vaſt ſaving and reduction of the price of ſpirits; not as in the Weſt-Indies, a diſtillery for each eſtate; many center in one, and arrack is ſold at Batavia from twenty-one to twenty-five rix dollars per leaguer of one hundred and ſixty gallons; ſay eight-pence per gallon.

"The improvement in making the cane into ſugar in Batavia keeps pace with that in its culture. Evaporation being in proportion to the ſurface, their boilers are ſet with as much of it as poſſible; the cane juice, with temper ſufficient to throw up its impurities, is boiled down to the conſiſtence of a ſyrup; it

is then thrown up into vats calculated to hold one boiling, then ſprinkled with two buckets of water to ſubſide its foul parts; after ſtanding ſix hours, it is let off by three pegs of different heights into a ſingle copper with one fire; it is there tempered again, boiled up, and reduced to ſugar, by a gentle fire. It granulates, and the ſugar-boiler dipping a wand into the copper, ſtrikes it on the ſide, then drops the ſugar remaining on it into a cup of water, ſcrapes it up with his thumb nail, and is by this means able to judge to the utmoſt nicety of the ſugar having its proper degree of boiling: the vats or receivers mentioned are placed at the left hand of a ſet of coppers; after running off for boiling all that is clear, the remainder is paſſed through a ſtrainer on the outſide of the boiling houſe; what is fine is put into the copper for ſugar; the lees are reſerved for diſtilling."

We ſhall cloſe this part of our work with a few obſervations on thoſe inquiries in natural philoſophy which appear at preſent moſt beneficial to the United States of North-America, and beſt calculated for the promotion of human happineſs.

INQUIRIES RELATIVE TO RURAL ECONOMY.

On the tillage of the United States the following remarks appear very intereſting:—The ſucceſſion of ſevere froſts and deep thaws during winter in all the northern and middle States make a variety of drains neceſſary in moſt ſoils and ſituations; yet an almoſt general neglect of this deſtroys a great part of the ſeed: a judicious treatiſe on the forms and courſes of ſuch drains would be very uſeful. A large portion of the arable lands in Pennſylvania, and ſome other States, being hilly, is detrimentally waſhed by heavy rains in every ſeaſon of the year; eſpecially the manure is thereby totally loſt. This would be much prevented by tranſverſe ploughing in a proper degree of horizontal inclination, which may be traced by computing the force and quantity of the water.

The Indian corn* is an eſſential article among American grains, and peculiarly ſuitable to an extenſive country. It might be raiſed at ſo moderate a price as to bear exportation to Europe, in the northern parts of which it would be very valuable, as nouriſhment for domeſtic animals during the long winters. The

* Maize or zea.

mode of planting this grain by four or five ſeeds together on hills, at the diſtance of ſeveral feet, appears leſs reaſonable from the conſideration, that one part of the ground is left vacant, while the other is overcharged; that the contiguous ſtalks muſt impede each other; that their ſpindling height, and cloſe poſition, ſubjects them more to the high winds, which not unfrequently ſweep down whole fields. We are informed by the natives of Italy, that in that country the corn is planted ſo as to cover the ground equally, with convenient intervals for weeding.

The culture of meadows has gained a conſiderable perfection in the middle States, but is ſtill capable of much improvement. A mode of banking effectually againſt the floods that often ruin the beſt marſh-meadows, has not yet been diſcovered: in open ſituations, a cloſe row of ſome aquatic trees, beyond the bank, is indiſpenſable for breaking the force of a ſtormy tide. The Americans want graſſes that will flouriſh in dry and ſandy ſoils: ſuch, for example, as were lately introduced in Spain, and are ſaid to have proved ſo beneficial to that dry and warm country.

The heat of the ſummers is unfavourable to graſs, where the ground, though fertile, has not a degree of moiſture; it is therefore adviſeable to try, whether barley, rye, or wheat, if cut young, would make good hay; and whether a ſecond crop, or the ſucceeding paſture, may help to make a full compenſation for an eventual harveſt? We have heard this method much recommended by ſome cultivators in Europe. The diviſion of paſture grounds by encloſures is generally neglected. Clean feeding is an advantage of admitting cattle, horſes, and ſheep in rotation, that deſerves attention.

The value of land, and cloſe neighbourhood, makes good fences neceſſary in old ſettlements. Worm-fencing, and ſimilar expedients of infant cultivation, ſhould never be ſeen; they occaſion loſſes, vexation and contention. The regular frames of rails and boards would be much improved by hardening againſt heat and moiſture: to render the lower part of the poſt more durable, burning, encruſting with mortar, and ſoaking in ſalt water, are expedients partly uſed, and worthy of trial. Live hedges are in general preferable to any, but yet very rare, though the country preſents many ſhrubs of promiſing qualities.

The vaſt domains of the United States can vie with any country in the variety, utility, and beauty of trees and ſhrubs. Their ſtately foreſts are a national treaſure, deſerving the ſolicitous care

of the patriotic philoſopher and politician: hitherto they have been too much abandoned to the axes of rude and thoughtleſs wood-choppers. What perſon of ſenſe and feeling can, without indignation, behold millions of young oaks and hiccories deſtroyed, to make bonfires in open ſmoky houſes, or trucked in the cities for foreign toys? Some parts of Europe were thus laid waſte in former centuries, and the preſent generation muſt with great labour and expenſe repair the ravages of their forefathers. In many parts of America a preſervation and increaſe of the timber for fuel, and other domeſtic uſes, renders theſe queries important. What trees are of the quickeſt growth? At what age they do increaſe moſt? What is the proper diſtance between them? What is the beſt mode of pruning, for promoting the growth, and taking off all ſuperfluous branches? What kinds are ſuitable to different ſoils? What ſpecies thrive beſt together? A judicious lopping of the branches, thinning cloſe the clumps of trees, and clearing the ground of underwood, will make many woodlands good paſtures, and form them into beautiful parks. This management would alſo improve the quality of timber by procuring the benefit of ſun and air: the want of this may be regarded as one principal cauſe of the ſpongineſs of their timber, which defect, ſo inimical to durability, ſtrength, and preſervation of a given form, is farther increaſed by a too common ignorance or neglect of the proper ſeaſon for felling the materials of building, furniture, ſtaves, and various utenſils. Some valuable trees and ſhrubs are yet obſcurely known; among theſe, the ſo called coffee tree,* in the weſtern country, that bears a hard nut, the kernel of which is generally uſed by the inhabitants as a ſubſtitute for coffee; the native plum trees on the Miſſiſſippi, ſaid to be far ſuperior to thoſe in the middle States; the newly diſcovered and much extolled grape of Scioto.† Many of thoſe which have long been familiar to the Americans, ſtill poſſeſs uſeful qualities little explored. Oil might be extracted from acorns, and eſpecially from the large and greaſy ſpecies of the cheſnut oak; as lately, though but in few places, is done from the various kinds of walnuts. Spirits may be diſtilled from the berries of the red cedar, which ſo much reſembles thoſe of the European juniper. Wine, far better than what is generally done, can be made from the late grapes. From all kinds of grapes, the Perſimon fruit, the berries of the four gum,‡ and white thorn,§ the crab apple, the wild pears, plums

* Guilandia. † A branch of the Ohio. ‡ Nyſſa. § Crus galli.

and cherries, with ſimilar fruits; ſpirituous liquor, and vinegar, may be obtained. The white thorn will, if it can be kept cloſe and low, make an impenetrable and beautiful hedge, by its long, ſharp, and ſolid ſpears, and by its cluſtering bloſſoms and large red berries. The new experiment of grafting foreign kinds on their native grape vines, ſaid to be very promiſing, may prove a good preſervative againſt the rigour of winter. In all probability many ſpecies of leaves would make good fodder for cattle, if gathered in the proper ſeaſon, and well cured: this expedient is practiſed in the north of Europe,* is of great importance to one half of the American States, which have, according to ſituation, no paſture for five or ſeven months. Finally, we may ſincerely wiſh that the owners of venerable woodlands might regard them as principal ornaments to their country; and while they clear a part for the purpoſes of agriculture, leave thoſe hills crowned with towering pines and ſtately oaks; ſuffering likewiſe the groves of tulip trees and magnolas to wave among yellow harveſts and blooming meadows. In ſome of the old countries, many gentlemen would purchaſe ſuch rural charms at any expenſe, but muſt wait till the evening of life for the ſhade of their plantations; is it not then deplorable, that ſo many American farmers daily deſtroy what their offspring of better taſte will deeply regret! This evil might in a great meaſure be leſſened by a treatiſe on ornamental planting, adapted to the preſent circumſtances of that country.

Half a century ago, philoſophers thought it beneath them to inveſtigate the economy of domeſtic animals. By this ridiculous pride, European countries have ſuffered much. The Swediſh naturaliſts were rouſed near thirty years ago, to a ſerious attention, by a peſtilence among horſes and horned cattle, which deſtroyed many thouſands in ſome provinces. In America, this important ſcience has been much neglected. Not to enlarge upon a ſubject, which eſpecially concerns agricultural ſocieties, we ſhall only mention two or three particulars. America is not unfavourable to horſes; yet thoſe of good quality are not very common in many of the States, becauſe the natural hiſtory of theſe noble animals is but little cultivated. They are often diſabled by want of proper care, and periſh by various diſorders, eſpecially by ſwelling in the throat, cholic, and the bots.†

* Aſpin leaves, for example, are a pleaſing and ſalutary food for horſes.

† A kind of worms that devours their maw.

Sheep thrive well in ſome parts, but in others they die by dozens, without the owners knowing or inquiring into the cauſe.

Horned cattle ſuffer much when expoſed to the winter's cold, which deſtroys their hoofs even under the thirty-ninth degree. But they and horſes are affected by exceſs of heat in ſummer; which not ſeldom cauſes a fever, diſcernable by their want of appetite, dullneſs, and a yellow tinge of the mouth and eyes. The beſt European treatiſe on domeſtic animals will more or leſs apply to divers parts of the States.

Goats would be very valuable in the rocky woodlands of America, as they are in thoſe of Europe. They are very hardy; their maintenance is cheap, as they browſe ſummer and winter on moſt kinds of trees and ſhrubs; they yield a great quantity of rich milk; and their ſkins are very uſeful. The Angora goat, whoſe gloſſy hair is a material of the mohair, may alſo thrive as well in America as in Sweden, where it was introduced by the patriotic Aſtronomer.

Good orchards eminently unite the uſeful and pleaſing, gratifying, through the greater part of the year, the taſte, the ſcent and ſight. Horticulture was an early object in America, and has made conſiderable progreſs. At preſent their firſt care ſhould be, to prevent diſtempers of the fruit trees, of late become very alarming. Peach trees, have till within twenty or thirty years been very flouriſhing: ſome Engliſh writers relate with amazement, that the Americans fatten their hogs on this fruit, which is ſo coſtly in the north of Europe; and it is true, that many common farms abounded ſo far in a promiſcuous collection of better and worſe. But at preſent the peach trees are few, and generally in a ſickly condition, through the greater part of the country. Of this one principal cauſe is a fly, that depoſits her eggs within the ſtem near the ground, which produce a great number of worms, who quickly conſume all the lower bark. Moſt kinds of plum trees are liable to decay, and the fruit is deſtroyed by a ſpecies of fly; but the ravages of this inſect have been for a long time. Pear trees have never, indeed, flouriſhed well, but of late far leſs: ſome aſcribe the blights of them to lightning, and hang pieces of iron in the branches, to anſwer the purpoſe of electric rods. In ſome places lately, cherry and apple trees have been attacked by various diſtempers, which cauſe the fruit to rot, and the limbs to decay in rapid ſucceſſion till the tree dies. This gangrene in fruit trees bears a ſtrong

reſemblance to the mortification of members in the human body; the corruption ſpreads quickly over a large limb, and amputation is the only preſervative of the tree yet known. The loſs of peach orchards is a conſiderable diſadvantage, as their early bloom is the principal beauty of ſpring; and the fruit is not only very pleaſing, both green and preſerved, but alſo yields by diſtilling an agreeable and wholeſome liquor, well known by the name of peach brandy. The apple orchards claim a ſolicitous care, merely as great ornaments of the country; much more ſo as they ſupply a great article of diet and ſalutary beverage, equal to ſeveral ſpecies of wine. An American treatiſe on fruit trees is wanted, which would ſhow how far the beſt Engliſh authors are applicable to divers parts of the United States; give a full account of all the beſt fruits there cultivated, with their variation from local cauſes; collect all the various names of the ſame fruit, and fix one as national, to prevent a confuſion that often fruſtrates information, both foreign and domeſtic.

Fiſh ponds are uſeful decorations in places diſtant from lakes and rivers; and it is matter of wonder why this advantage is not derived from ponds and ſtreams which are ſo common: a uſeleſs and unwholeſome ſwamp may thus be changed into an elegant improvement.

PHYSICO-MATHEMATICAL INQUIRIES.

Machines for abridging human labour are eſpecially deſired in America, as there can be no competition between them and the arms of induſtrious labour, while theſe have full employ on her extenſive lands, which muſt be the caſe for ages. Agriculture has the firſt claim to the exertions of mechanical genius, as the principal ſource of national proſperity. Extent of territory, improved by artificial induſtry, muſt yield a great quantity of products at ſo cheap a rate as to bear exportation to very diſtant markets. It is moreover a weighty conſideration to the humane philoſopher, that agricultural mechaniſm would in the ſouthern States ſupply the labour of ſlaves. Among important deſiderata we may place theſe:—A machine for ſowing broad-caſt, ſo as to ſpread the grain even and in proper quantity; another for cutting drains, and making banks on their extenſive marſh meadows; an apparatus for clearing new lands, which ought to be a compound of coulters, ſaws, axes, and ſcrews, ſo that the trees may be pulled out of the ground, cut in convenient pieces, and heaped; a better inſtrument for reaping than the common ſickle,

ſuch, for example, as the cradling ſcythe of northern Europe; temporary ſheds of eaſy and light conſtruction for the preſervation of the reaped grain in wet ſeaſons.

The many ſhipwrecks that happen on the extenſive, and often ſtormy coaſt of America, render diving bells very neceſſary; theſe machines are yet but little known.

A plenty of naval ſtores, and numerous ports, render ſhip building an important branch of national induſtry. This noble art, which has long been cultivated with ſucceſs, would ſtill be much improved by more expeditious modes of hauling timber, and of preparing the main pieces for the finiſhing workmanſhip.

An extenſive inland navigation by locks and canals, is now become a great object of legiſlative care in ſeveral States; it is to be hoped, that ſuch perſons may be entruſted with theſe important works, as have a perfect theory of hydraulics, and a practical knowledge of local circumſtances, among which the force of ice in winter, and of rainy torrents in ſummer, are to be duly eſtimated.

As many new towns and villages will gradually riſe with the increaſing population of the country, their ſituation and form ſhould be choſen with a view of permanent circumſtances. A ſure ſupply of water is one great object. If the advantage of ports is deſired, inquiry ſhould be made whether the preſent water-courſes are likely to continue; as in the old countries, ſeveral towns have been immerſed, and others left far within land, by the increaſe or diminution of the water, or by the change of the channels. Health and conveniency require ſeveral open ſquares, wide ſtreets, and a direction of them calculated for ſhelter in the winter, and for ſhade and ventilation in the fervent ſummer months.

Architecture claims the following remarks:---The poſition of houſes ought to ſecure the fanning ſummer breeze, and exclude the wintry blaſt. Another object ſhould be to exclude from ſummer rooms, the burning ſun, during the hotter part of the day. Entries throughout the houſe are very common, but not generally in directions that beſt anſwer theſe purpoſes. The length, and by frequent intervals, ſeverity of winter in the northern and middle States, makes warm rooms not only agreeable, but in a degree neceſſary. For this purpoſe, the moſt improved chimneys and iron ſtoves are inadequate expedients; eſpecially as the open kind of theſe, though the more pleaſant, yet conſume a great quantity of wood. The ſtoves which have long been in uſe through Sweden, and a part of the neighbour-

ing countries, are unqueſtionably the beſt ever yet deviſed; they warm the room uniformly with a quarter of the wood required for theſe laſt mentioned, are free from any diſagreeable ſteams, and have the appearance of elegant furniture.* Larger farms require ſeveral buildings, eſpecially in cold countries, where ſtore-houſes and warm dwellings for domeſtic animals are neceſſary. If all theſe ſtructures are formed on regular plans calculated for the value of eſtates, and reſpective local circumſtances, the uſeful and agreeable may be united in a very high degree: a well-written treatiſe on this ſubject would be very valuable.

To form with ſpeed and conveniency an accurate map of the United States, aſtronomical obſervations ought to determine the latitude and longitude of thoſe places which are moſt eſſential to the figure of the whole country, or to the ſituation of certain parts in a political and economical view.

INQUIRIES IN NATURAL HISTORY.

Natural hiſtory, like a faithful guide, leads us through the myſterious mazes of nature, and opens to our enraptured eyes her ſublime and beautiful wonders. How many precious plants are as deſpicable weeds trod under foot in every part of the world! how many new qualities are from time to time diſcovered in productions which have been known for centuries in countries long ago perluſtrated with this ſacred lamp! what treaſures may we not then expect in this new and vaſt diviſion of the globe! in the foreſts of a thouſand miles hitherto traverſed only by ſavage tribes and mercenary traders; in the lakes, ſome of which are inland ſeas, and rivers that wander through ſeveral States before they meet the ocean! neglect of natural hiſtory under circumſtances ſo alluring would indicate a want of rational taſte. The great Linnæus wiſhed that he could have explored the continent of North-America; may this wiſh animate American philoſophers!

The vegetable realm claims their firſt attention. They ſhould begin with a reſearch of the ſtores it offers for the preſervation and recovery of health. The frequent appearance of trees, ſhrubs and plants, whoſe taſte and ſcent or analogy with well-known pharmaceutics is very promiſing, would lead us to ex-

* They are conſtructed by an iron grate-work, and panes of a fine clay fitted therein, which are varniſhed according to taſte and ability. At Bethlehem, in Pennſylvania, an inferior kind of theſe are already in uſe.

pect a very conſiderable ſtock of native materia medica. But, although above an hundred of theſe ſpecies are, or have been, more or leſs in uſe among the inhabitants, very few of them are well known as to the extent and peculiarity of their qualities, and a very ſmall number is adopted either by the apothecaries or regular phyſicians. On this view the following expedients merit attention---to ſubſtitute indigenous medicines of equal value for thoſe imported, which by quantity or price cauſe a great national expenſe, and that are liable to adulteration or depreciation by age; to point out the beſt native plants in local diſtricts, with fixed names, clear deſcriptions, and accurate medical inſtructions, for ſafe, convenient and general uſe; to appreciate the merit of thoſe drugs which are eſteemed ſpecifics in the worſt epidemic or particular diſtempers. Collecting all the botano-medical information at preſent attainable, we may judge what plants are moſt intereſting, in what degree they are known, and how this knowledge may probably be moſt improved: the Indians have ſeveral remedies againſt the diſeaſes and accidents ariſing from the climate and their ſavage mode of life; as fevers, rheumatiſm, wounds, bruiſes, ſcalding, chilblains, bite of venomous ſerpents; beſides emetics, cathartics, ſudorifics, and dietics. Theſe have the ſanction of time and ſimplicity. It is alſo generally believed, that they poſſeſs very important ſecrets, of which only a few extraordinary ſpecimens are related with plauſible authenticity. In domeſtic practice, particularly of the country people, we obſerve medical plants of general ſalubrity, uſed as detergents, tonics, ſudorifics and laxatives; and others of particular virtue in rheumatiſm, fevers, pectoral ailments, viſceral obſtructions, ulcers, external hurts, poiſons, female complaints, and diſeaſes of children. Among the great number of theſe popular drugs, particular attention is due to thoſe that are recommended by their ſalutary effects, atteſted by the patients or other perſons of credit; and more ſo, when the teſtimonial is attended with the preciſe ſtatement of facts. In caſe of defective information, we may expect valuable qualities in thoſe which are in vogue over large diſtricts; becauſe this general eſteem cannot be owing to imitation in a country, where intercourſe between diſtant places has till of late been very limited, and where botanical curioſity is yet very rare. The medical plants which America has in common with other countries, poſſeſs the ſame virtue, under variations from climate and local circumſtances; the too common opinion of their inferiority will often be changed by a fair trial. Different

ſpecies alſo promiſe a reward of examination from the generic ſimilarity; when theſe are actually in uſe among the people of the country; the probability of their value is the greater.

An application of theſe principles will bring the following plants to particular notice: agrimony, potentilla-quinquefolium, polygonum-biſtorta, gentiana, fumaria, angelica, cochlearia, eryſimum officinale, arum, ſymphitum, inula campana, aſarum, all grow in the northern and middle States, and are the ſame with or near a-kin to thoſe claſſed among the beſt ſimples by Dr. Cullen in his Materia Medica.* The gentiana growing in the glades of Pennſylvania, is by Dr. Schoeph eſteemed the beſt of their ſeveral ſpecies. The arum of North-America is generally called Indian turnip, from its ancient value among the Indians, and often uſed with other ingredients by the country people in that general debility conſequent on tedious fevers. The beſt recommended remedies againſt intermittent fevers are cornus *florida*, dogwood; quercus *phellos*, live oak; perſimon; lonicera *ſymphoricarpos*; by their barks; pyrola *maculata*, with the Indian name *pipſiſſeva*; ſambucus *Canadenſis*; laurus *æſtivalis*, ſpicewood, Benjamin tree, benzoin. The firſt is more generally known; a decoction of the bark has, in many caſes, been effectual; it is by ſome deemed equal, when freſh, to the Peruvian.† The ſecond is much valued in the ſouth, its native place; that of perſimon in North-Carolina, and of lonicera *ſymphoricarpos* in Virginia.‡ An infuſion of the plant pyrola *maculata* has been frequently uſed for ſome years in Pennſylvania, under the name of *pipſiſſeva*.§ The ſambucus *Canadenſis*, red berry elder, is by the Indians called the *fever-buſh*; a decoction of its wood and buds being of ancient renown among them.‖ The laurus *æſtivalis*, ſpice-wood, Benjamin tree, is alſo diſtinguiſhed with that name by the people in the

* Compare this book with Dr. Schoeph's and John Bartram's notes to Short's Medicina Britannica, reprinted in Philadelphia, 1751.

† Kalm ſays, that in Weſt-Jerſey many were cured by the bark of the root who had in vain tried the Peruvian: in that ſickly country Dr. N. Collin, of Pennſylvania, made uſe of it, and thinks it worthy of a full trial.

‡ Called St. Peter's wort, Indian currants; a ſpecies of honeyſuckle. See Arbuſt. Amer. of Marſhal.

§ See ditto: a ſpecies of winter-green.

‖ Geſchiehte der Miſſion der Evangeliſchea Bruder unter den Indianern in Nord America, by Loſkiel, publiſhed 1787.

northern parts, for the ſalutary decoction of its wood and leaves.* The bark of the liriodendron, *tulip tree*, is alſo very generally eſteemed a good ſubſtitute for the Peruvian, eſpecially that of the root. We may obſerve on theſe and other febrifuges, that the variety probably correſponds with the diverſity of the fevers, which is very conſiderable, from latitude, ſeaſon, and perſonal conſtitution: thus, for example, the above ſpice-wood is of peculiar benefit in that moderate but tedious kind, called *ſlow fever*, which is almoſt continual.

Againſt rheumatiſm theſe are worthy of trial: the root, in decoction, of aralia *ſpinoſa*, angelica tree; the cones of pinus *ſtrobus*, white pine; the twigs and roots of magnolia *glauca*, ſwamp ſaſſafras, both in decoction and bath; the freſh bark of juglans *alba*, hickory, applied externally, is much uſed by the Indians.†

Dyſentery has been cured by the bark and gummi of liquidambar ſtyraciflua, ſweet gum; cynogloſſum *Virginianum*, foliis amplexicaulibus ovatis, hound's tongue; trioſteum *anguſtifolium*, floribus oppoſitis pedunculatis; the root of white oak in powder.

Antidropſical, well recommended, are the leaves of callicarpa *Americana*;‡ the root, in decoction, of aralia *nudicaulis*, foliis binis ternatis; that of ſaſſafras in extract.

Cholic is removed by the oil of the above ſpice-wood berries; the flatulent and hyſteric kinds, eminently ſo by angelica *lucida*; foliolis æqualibus ovatis inciſo-ſerratis, called therefore *belly-ach root*.

The beſt among pleuritic remedies muſt be the *pleuriſy root*, ſo much extolled in Pennſylvania, deſcribed by Schoeph aſclepias *tuberoſa*, foliis alternis lanceolatis, caule divaricato piloſo; another aſclepias bears high value in Maryland, called alſo *butterfly root*; the aſclepias *decumbens*, *pleuriſy root*, mentioned by Mr. Jefferſon in his *notes on Virginia*, muſt be one of theſe. The bark and berries of the above magnolia, either in decoction, or infuſion of ſpirituous liquors, is generally ſalutary in thoſe great *colds* which affect the ſides, back and breaſt with painful *ſtitches*, attended with febrile chills and general langour.

* Memoirs of the American Academy, &c. printed in Boſton, 1785.

† They drive the pain from one place to another until it breaks out in a bliſter: this bark burns the ſkin, as it were. Loſkiel. In New-England a ſpecies of pyrola called rheumatiſm weed, and one of aletris named unicorn, are reputed very efficacious; the latter in the chronic rheumatiſm. Mem. A. Ac.

‡ A ſhrub growing in the ſouthern States. Arbuſt. Am.

Anthelmintics are the chenopodium,* and the ſpigelia *Marylandica*, caule tetragono, foliis omnibus oppoſitis, Carolina pink, a ſouthern plant, it will deſtroy the worms, but caution in the doſe is requiſite.

Spiræa *trifoliata*, foliis ternatis ſerratis ſubæqualibus, floribus ſubpaniculatis, ipecacuanha, Indian phyſic, baumont root, is an effectual and ſafe emetic. Podophyllum *peltatum*, foliis peltatis palmatis, May apple, is lately coming into practice as a laxative by an extract of the root that removes its emetic quality.† Convolvulus *panduratus* grows in the middle latitudes; and in the ſouth ſome ſpecies ſimilar to the convolvulus jalappa, not well explored.

Ulcers and cancerous ſores are frequent among thoſe whoſe humours are vitiated by perennial fevers; in a variety of remedies theſe deſerve notice: *iris verſicolor*, aſhes of magn. glauca, in form of plaſter, and a ſtrong bath of ſaſſafras root, have cured ulcerated legs. The root of ſaururus *cernuus*, foliis cordatis petiolatis, amentis ſolitariis recurvis, *lizard-tail*, bruiſed and applied as a poultice to ſore and impoſtumate breaſts will ripen and heal them. A ſpecies of nigella, called *gold thread*, Indian *mouth root*, is an excellent remedy for an ulcerous mouth.‡ In New-England a ſpecies of geum, *water-avens*, *throat root*, *cure all*, is an eſteemed remedy for ulcerated ſore throat; a decoction of the root is both a gargle and drink.§ Rumex *acetoſella*, floribus dioicis, foliis lanceolato-haſtatis, *four dock*, *cancer root*, is recommended againſt inveterate ring-worms; this is biennis and found over the whole country: the juice is mixed with vinegar; (Schoeph) another is mentioned in the Boſton Memoirs, the root of which in decoction is uſed in ſore throat. The phytolacca *decandra*, floribus decandris decagynis, *poke*, has of late given promiſing experiments in the cure of cancers; the juice of the berries is inſpiſſated by the ſun; the young ſprouts in ſpring are eaten as aſparagus, but grown too far they are violently cathartic; this buſh is common throughout the States.

* Jeruſalem oak.

† The firſt grows in the northern and middle States, the latter in theſe and the ſouthern; it bears on a ſtalk of two feet a yellow fruit like a lime, of a ſweetiſh taſte.

‡ Loſkiel. Mem. of the American Academy; the root is like a ball of ſhining thread.

§ Floribus nutantibus, fructu oblongo, ariſtis plumoſis; powder of the root is uſed by the Canadians in fever and ague. Am. Ac.

Preſervatives againſt venomous ſnakes ſeem to be ſcattered over the whole country, and they merit full inveſtigation, in order to provide prompt remedies, in every place, and againſt different kinds of ſerpents, eſpecially in the new ſettlements. Convolvulus *purpureus, purple-bind-weed,* is very powerful, if it is true that the Indians can handle rattle-ſnakes after anointing the hands with its juice, as Cateſby relates; this grows in the ſouth. A ſpecies of juſſiæ is mentioned in the cited memoirs, as growing in the northern countries near the haunts of rattle-ſnakes, called rattle-ſnake plantain. The hieracium *venoſum,* foliis cuneiformibus hirtis, ſcapo nudo craſſiſſimo erecto, grows from the north to Virginia incluſively; is called poor Robin's plantain, and ſaid to fruſtrate the bite both of the rattle-ſnake and of his ſuppoſed precurſor the pilot-ſnake. Erigeron, likewiſe called Robert's plantain in Pennſylvania, is deſcribed by Dr. Schoeph thus, "radix repens; folia radicalia ovata, baſi attenuata, dentata dentibus paucis a medio ad apicem glandulifera, obtuſa, piloſa, venis paucis. Scapus biuncialis, pedalis, ſtriatus, villoſus, uniflorus, &c. &c." Dr. Otto, a reſpectable practitioner, informed him, that the herb ought to be given in a plentiful decoction, and alſo applied with the root to the wound. The herb of ſolidago *virga aurea,* golden rod, is uſed in the ſame manner.* The root of aletris *farinoſa* is taken in powder, or bruiſed and ſteeped in liquor; this root is called ſtar-root, blazing ſtar, devil's bit, and greatly eſteemed both by the Indians and the people of ſeveral States for many qualities.† The polygala *Senega* is well known. The plantain of Negro Cæſar we juſt mention, with a wiſh that an authentic account could be obtained of the experiments for which he obtained a public reward. Many credible teſtimonies agree in the fact, that the Indians have extraordinary ſkill in curing the bites of ſerpents; but whether any ſpecific antidote is known appears doubtful: the plants in uſe act, however, as powerful ſudorifics and abſorbents; a narrative on this ſubject would here be too prolix for our plan.

* Schoeph deſcribes it as *hirſuta, radice amara:* Bartram as "having ſlender purple ſtalks, riſing a foot high, with a ſpike of fine yellow flowers, for near one-third part of the length of the plant," ſays it is much extolled.

† Bartram ſpeaks of it principally as a "remedy in grievous pains of the bowels;" and ſays, it has a ſtalk eighteen inches long, with a fine ſpike of white flowers ſix inches in length, blooming in June, and growing plentifully in the back parts of the country.

Of late years madneſs of dogs has been more frequent; the ſwertia *differmis*, recommended by Clayton, ſhould be tried.*

In the ſearch of new medicines, ſpicy trees and balmy evergreens are particularly inviting. The ſwamps of the low country abound in plants of aromatic ſcent; the magnolia glauca, ſo frequent in them ſeems to hold out her fragrant lilies and crimſon berries to the ſkeleton-prey of Stygian vapours; probably her lovely ſiſters are alſo compaſſionate.†

Indigenous eſculents claim attention in ſeveral views. Thoſe roots, herbs, grains and barks, that in caſe of need can ſupport life, may be uſeful to travellers in the wilderneſs, and to troops that carry on an Indian war; the ſavages make this uſe of the inner bark of the elm, and the roots of aralia *nudicaulis*. The ſallads of many kinds, gathered in divers parts of the country during ſpring, ſhould be generally known. Several wild fruits might be improved by culture, as walnuts, crab-apples, papaws, *annona*, plums, grapes, perſimons, honey-locuſt, *gleditſia triacanthos*; ſome perſons have planted orchards of this and made plenty of metheglin from the ſweet pods. While the ſugar maple is of late juſtly valued, its kindred alſo merit more attention: we are credibly informed, that in Canada equally good ſugar is made from the weaker juice of the red maple, a tree that abounds through all the States. The cheſnut oak is ſaid by Schoeph to yield in ſpring a copious agreeable drink; other trees may have ſimilar ſaps. Aromatic plants deſerve notice: the barks of young ſaſſafras and of *calycanthus floridus*‡ much reſemble cinnamon: the *acorus calamus* is under name of ſpice-wort, uſed in Maſſachuſetts. The plants uſed as tea in divers parts deſerve examination: the *caſſine*, called South ſea tea tree, is obſcurely known, but has long been famous among the Indians.§

Many vegetable dies are already in uſe, both among the Indians and the inhabitants; ſome of them are alſo recorded by writers, but a collection of ſcattered practice, and a ſelection of the beſt in every kind, are yet wanted. In this branch, the practice of other countries may alſo be adopted: thus the *rhus*

* See Gron. Virginia.

† Serpent. Virg. Sarſaparilla, &c. wants no mention; ſeveral cannot here find room.

‡ Called Carolina allſpice.

§ They call it yaupan, and drink an infuſion of the leaves in copious draughts, both as a dietetic and inebriating. It grows near the ſea in the ſouthern States, ten or twelve feet high.

toxicodendron vernix, varniſh tree, poiſon aſh, is probably the ſame with the valuable ſpecies of Japan.*

Saps, roots, leaves, flowers, barks, may be uſeful in a variety of modes; for example—The roots of æſculus pavia, *ſcarlet horſe cheſnut*, and of jucca filamentoſa, *ſilk graſs*, are uſed for ſoap;† cheſnuts can be prepared for the ſame uſe. The two kinds of *myrica*, candle berry myrtle, are known; the melia *azedarach* grows in the ſouth, under the name of *bead tree*, but its berries are not yet in uſe for tallow, as in Japan.‡ The aſclepias, called *ſilk-weed*, has a fine white down in its pods, which in Maſſachuſetts is carded and ſpun into very good wick-yarn. While oaks abound, an extract of their barks might, as an article in tanning, be a valuable export.

Vegetable medicines for cattle are very intereſting; a critical compariſon of European treatiſes, with what is written and practiſed in America, will point out the beſt.

The beauties of the American flora are yet diſplayed only to thoſe admirers, who have ſought them, in fields and woods, from ſpring to autumn, in northern and ſouthern climes, in the grand magniflora and the humble lily of the valley. Many of the wild flowers would adorn gardens, and embelliſh groves and meadows: but a great part of theſe are known only in their native places, and ſome have not even obtained a vernacular name. Flowery ſhrubs are gradually coming into more notice; and ſome of the fineſt will endure the winter of Pennſylvania; the chionanthus, *ſnow drop*, *fringe tree*, calycanthus floridus, bignonia *radicans*, *trumpet* flower, and the beautiful *Franklinia*, all grow well near Philadelphia.§ Several of the trees moſt agreeable by foliage, bloom, or lofty growth, have a ſpontaneous wide range, and others will, under a ſkilful hand, paſs their natural limits.‖

* By the travels of Prof. Thunberg, we find great analogy between Japan and North-America: thus the perſimon grows there; the cones of the alder are in common uſe for black dye.

† They grow in the ſouthern States.

‡ An oil is preſſed which becomes equally ſolid with tallow. *Thunberg.*

§ The laſt is in Mr. Bartram's garden from fifteen to twenty feet high, and has not been affected with five ſevere winters within twelve years, though its native place is Georgia. The flowers are large and fragrant, with lily-like petala, and a tuft of gold-coloured ſtamina.

‖ Bignonia catalpa flouriſhes in and beyond Pennſylvania.

Our remarks on the animal domains ſhall begin with the ſmall tribes, becauſe ſome of theſe do remarkable miſchief. The Heſſian fly has for ſeveral years made great havoc in the wheat fields through all the middle States,* and the canker worms, caterpillers, and other vermin, lay waſte the orchards; ſome remedies will hopefully reſult from the inquires, of late, begun in ſeveral places. Hoſts of locuſts ſome years infeſt the woods, and cauſe conſiderable damage by devouring the leaves of trees over large diſtricts, many of which decay when thus expoſed to the burning ſun; they lie in the ground for a period of years, not yet aſcertained; appear in the latter part of the ſpring, when the oaks are in perfect foliage, and in a few weeks diſappear.†

Venomous inſects are rare, and obſcurely known, as they ſeem confined to the woods. A ſpecies of theſe, called mountain ſpider, that haunts the inner parts of the ſouthern States, is ſaid to be large, ſtrong enough to take ſmall birds in the net, and by his ſting to produce violent pains at the heart, inflammations with alternate cold ſweats, tremors, frenzy, and death, if proper cure is not obtained. In the middle States there is a black ſpider, whoſe bite cauſes great pains and a tranſient blindneſs, but is not mortal. A large ant, with a long ſting, common in Maryland and farther ſouth, is alſo very noxious.

Among the handſome inſects in America, the fire fly is the firſt; thouſands of theſe illuminate the ſummer nights, and by their gambols in the air, preſent a ſky full of falling ſtars;‡ but the Americans know not where theſe lamps are hid in the long winter nights.

A ſtriking mechaniſm is remarkable in the horn beetles of various kinds, and eſpecially in the wood ſawer, who with two curve inwardly dentated prongs, can cut off ſmall twigs of trees. We venture to add a zoophyton in the Ohio country,

* Neſtling in the joints of the ſtalks they bite it off before the grain is ripe.

† They ſeem to extend far, as many hundred acres upon the Ohio are ſaid to be ſpoiled by them; yet is their depredation local and varying, ſo that different parts have their turn; they were in Pennſylvania eighty years ago, and with the ſame qualities, as we find by old Swediſh records, which alſo add that the Indians fed upon them.

‡ Thunberg deſcribes thoſe of Japan in the ſame manner, under the name of *lampyris japonica*.

which alternately is vegetable and animal.* But without ſuch extraordinary phænomenon, the economy of the numerous little animals is wonderful enough to awaken our attention, eſpecially in this country, where it is yet unexplored.

Thirty or forty ſpecies of ſnakes are counted, but ſeveral are very imperfectly known, eſpecially thoſe which are rare or local. The horn ſnake is now ſeldom ſeen, but many accounts agree, that the ſpur of his tail is ſo venomous, as to kill young trees, if by accident it ſtrikes them. The king ſnake of the ſouth is not ſeen, we believe, far north. The double-headed ſnake may be a monſtrous production; but two ſpecimens of it are found in New-England, and two more are now in Mr. Peale's muſeum: that ſome kinds of ſerpents charm birds and ſquirrels is a fact, but in what manner we know not. Fortunately the ſmaller number is venomous, but which ſpecies ſhould be avoided, is an intereſting queſtion; though the green ſnake, imperceptible in the graſs, is harmleſs, ſome that occaſionally come near houſes, are not ſo.

On quadrupeds in general, two inquiries are intereſting; what is the ſpecific difference from thoſe of the ſame genus in the eaſtern world? And how doth the ſame ſpecies vary in America under different latitudes? In the firſt the tygers and panthers require particular notice; in the ſecond the bear, which frequents the interior country from north to ſouth; and the panther, which has alſo a wide range. Among thoſe peculiar to North-America, the mooſe deer is yet, we believe, undeſcribed, and known to few perſons below the ſouth of Canada.† The opoſſum, common in America, and long known for ſingularities, is yet unexplored in the greateſt of all, to wit, that the female breeds her young at her teats within the falſe belly: many perſons in diſtant quarters aſſert they have ſeen them adhering to the teats when ſmall as a pea. The vaſt mammoth is perhaps yet ſtalking through the weſtern wilder-

* This was communicated to Dr. Nicholas Collin, rector of the Swediſh churches in Pennſylvania, by a reſpectable miſſionary, who had long been among the Indians, and had ſeen this animal, but would not have his name mentioned, as the matter may appear incredible; it is three or four inches high, and after having crawled about the woods, is fixed in the ground, becoming a plant with a ſtem through its mouth, &c. It is analogous to the vegetable fly of Dominica, that buries itſelf in the ground, dies, and ſprings up like a young coffee plant, for which it is often miſtaken, until the root upon examination is found to be the head feet and body of the animal. *See the Natural Hiſtory of Dominica, by Thomas Atwood, publiſhed* 1791.

† Some years ago one was exhibited in Philadelphia; it is a large animal with very high fore legs, a ſhort neck, &c.

neſs; but if he is no more, his remains ſhould be carefully gathered, and attempts made to find a whole ſkeleton of this giant, to whom the elephant is but a calf.

The great herds of buffaloes in the weſtern country are a valuable national poſſeſſion, a wanton deſtruction of them ſhould be checked, and trial of domeſtication would, perhaps, be both practicable and uſeful.

The great number of birds in the old ſettlements have been deſcribed, but many equivocally, and our knowledge of their habits is in general very ſmall. The Americans ſhould not indiſcreetly deſtroy thoſe deemed of no value; who knows what part is aſſigned to them in the economy of nature? Perhaps the numerous tribes of woodpeckers ſave many trees from deſtructive worms. As to the uſeful and ornamental birds, they demand protection againſt licentious and greedy tyranny; the beautiful and melodious birds diminiſh faſt, and the turkeys, once ſo abundant, have long ago been drove into the remote woods.

General knowledge of the fiſhes of America is very limited and confuſed: of thoſe in the weſtern waters we have only reports; there never has been from eye witneſs a tolerable account of the cat-fiſh, that weighs from ſeventy to one hundred pounds. Thoſe proper in fiſh ponds cannot be ſelected without knowing what kind of water, food, &c. they require.

Natural hiſtory demands eſteem from American ſeminaries of learning; and honorary degrees in this purſuit would be much better beſtowed than on miniſters of the goſpel, the only good of which is, to increaſe the privilege of, and beget a blind veneration for a claſs of men who ought to be diſtinguiſhed from ſociety by nothing but their ſuperior piety and virtue: the principal ſeminaries ſhould immediately form botanical gardens, on a plan ſo liberal as gradually to receive all the trees, ſhrubs, and plants moſt valuable in every reſpect. Muſeums are alſo very important, for exhibition of both native and foreign productions.* Finally, it is neceſſary to fix general names for every vegetable and animal of public utility, that great numbers may receive and impart information.

METEOROLOGICAL INQUIRIES.

Changes in the atmoſphere have ſuch important conſequences on the affairs of human life, that the art of prognoſticating them

* That of Mr. Peale in Philadelphia, commenced a few years ago, is by his laudable care coming into reputation both at home and abroad, and merits the public patronage.

is very beneficial. It has of late years been cultivated with great aſſiduity in various parts of Europe, and the ſeries of obſervations will gradually form a ſyſtem that may at leaſt unite probable conjectures with much certain knowledge. Several circumſtances of the United States point out correſponding inquiries—they are ſubject to ſudden guſts of wind, and ſome tornados that rapidly paſs over a ſpace of one or two hundred miles: from the beginning of ſpring till the ſetting in of winter, theſe occaſion many unhappy accidents on their extenſive coaſts and ample navigable rivers. Their tranſient ſtrokes are, however, not comparable to thoſe ſevere ſtorms that generally viſit the Americans two or three times in that ſeaſon: after theſe, the gazettes announce numerous deplorable ſhipwrecks, and other diſaſters; coming from the eaſt with heavy rains, they generally cauſe inundations, which overflow a vaſt extent of meadow grounds, on the lengthy rivers and winding creeks, and ſometimes damage wharfs and ſtores of commercial towns. A foreſight of all theſe would enable them to elude their fury: veſſels might ſtay in port, or ſeek a ſhelter; merchandiſe might be ſecured; the hay might be removed, and the cattle, which ſometimes periſhes by the ſudden riſe of the water. In ſummer the ſudden guſts happen generally towards evening, after a ſultry calm for ſome hours: when attended with thunder and rain, warning is given by the riſing clouds: thoſe with a clear ſky are leſs frequent, and preceded only by light eddies in the air for ſome minutes. The tornados are probably announced by ſome remarkable ſymptoms, though their happily rare occurrences has prevented attention; the air is, we believe, very ſultry for two or three days, and on the laſt, ſomewhat hazy with tremulous light breezes from the weſt. The eaſterly ſtorms are uſhered in by the gradual thickening of the clouds and increaſe of the wind for many hours.

The irregularity of the ſeaſons is a great impediment in the buſineſs of ſocial life; the fallacious appearance of an early ſpring often invites the huſbandman and gardener to planting and ſowing, which will be injured by ſevere froſts and cold rains. The beginning of winter varies alſo by ſeveral weeks: after the firſt of December, mild weather is often changed into cold, that within two or three days fills the rivers of the northern and middle States with ice, by which veſſels outward bound are detained, and thoſe coming on the coaſt ſuffer ſeverely. A greater diſadvantage of this variation is, uncertainty of the ſeeding time, on which much depends the future crop; if it is too early, the luxuriance of autumnal vegetation exhauſts the root; if too late,

It cannot acquire ſufficient firmneſs to bear the froſt. The Americans have two prognoſtics of winter which are founded in nature: the migration of wild geeſe ſhows that the northern waters are freezing, and that they may expect ſevere north-weſterly winds: abundance of rain, by cooling the air and wetting the earth, prepares both for the impreſſion of the froſts; increaſing number of partridges, pheaſants, and other ground birds in the populous parts, with the appearance of bears, doth alſo indicate that the weſtern woods are already covered with ſnow. Mild winters are always ſucceeded by cold ſprings. Early thunder is a ſure token of immediate cold weather for a week or two. The progreſs of the vernal ſeaſon would moſt probably appear from an accurate *Calendarium Floræ*; the bloom and foliation of ſome trees being unfolded, not by an occaſional warmth of the air, but by a gradual penetration of the heat to their deep roots, proves at leaſt an aſcendancy of the vernal temperature not eaſily overcome by the northerly gales.

The ſudden alterations of cold and heat throughout the year, would often be leſs injurious to health, by foreſeeing them. General rules are theſe, exceſſive warmth for the ſeaſon ſeldom continues above a few days, and quickly changes into the oppoſite extreme: fine days in winter, ſpring, and latter part of autumn, are immediately ſucceeded by cold and wet, rain or ſnow, according to ſeaſon and latitude; wherefore they are called weather breeders.

END OF THE THIRD VOLUME.